

**INCLUSION OF LEARNERS WITH DYSLEXIA IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS OF
KINSHASA, DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC OF CONGO**

**By
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DECLARATION

Student number 44487398

I declare that **Inclusion of learners with dyslexia in primary schools of Kinshasa, Democratic Republic of Congo** is my own work and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references

Signature

Date

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DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to all learners with learning disability in general and dyslexia in particular. You are all human beings and you possess the human right to be educated as other children without disabilities are.

I would like also to dedicate this thesis to Muswamba Musenga my lovely wife, my daughters and my sons.

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ACRONYMS

AT	Assistive Technology
CBM	Christian Blind Mission
CORI	Country of Origin Research and Information
CRC	Committee on the Rights of the Child
CRPD	Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities
DBE	Department of Basic Education
DED	Disability Equation Duty
DOE	Department of Education
DRC	Democratic Republic of Congo
EADSNE	European Agency for Special Needs in Education
EFA	Education for All
EHA	Education for All Handicapped
ERC	Ethics Review Committee
HRBAEA	Human Rights Based Approach to Education for All
IDA	International Dyslexia Association
IE	Inclusive Education
LD	Learning Disabilities
LPD	Letter Position Dyslexia
MD	Mixed Dyslexia
ND	Neglect Dyslexia
NEEDS	National Equal Directory Services
OHCHR	Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights
ORA	Onset-Rime Awareness

PA	Phoneme Awareness
PA	Phonological Awareness
RDD	Reading Disorder Dyslexia
REC	Research Ethics Committee
SAALED	Southern African Association for Learning and Educational Difficulties
SD	Surface Dyslexia
SEN	Special Educational Needs
UDHR	Universal Declaration of Human Rights
UK	United Kingdom
UN	United Nations
USA	United States of America
WA	Word Awareness

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ABSTRACT

The inclusion of learners with dyslexia into mainstream education has not been researched within the context of the Democratic Republic of Congo. This study aimed to explore how teachers include learners with dyslexia in mainstream primary schools and proposes strategies that could enhance good practice in this respect. An interpretivist/constructivist paradigm and a hermeneutic phenomenology research design following a qualitative research approach were utilised for the study.

In relation to teachers' understanding of inclusion in general and inclusion of learners with dyslexia in particular, the study's findings revealed that participants (teachers and principals) seem to have a common understanding of the inclusion of learners with dyslexia. The primary difference appears to be that of approaching inclusive education as a practice, or as a basic human right. The findings underline that participants generally perceive inclusive education as the practice where all learners are accommodated in the same classroom setting, irrespective of their ability. Thus, these participants are of the opinion that even though inclusive education is a daunting task, it can be achieved. It will, however, require all critical stakeholders to play their roles not only on an ad hoc basis, but also in a consistent and proactive manner. In addition, this study recommends that policies aligned to the inclusive educational and human rights culture be nurtured and consistently applied. Consistent teacher training, appropriate stakeholder engagement and classroom management, underpinned by human rights values, should be promoted. This study further suggests that a comprehensive awareness campaign should be launched to communicate the vision of inclusive education from the lowest to the highest level in the country. This study also contributes to the human rights framework for inclusive education that has been developed and draws from the literature and the empirical study. This framework will provide direction and impetus to stakeholders that are tasked with the implementation of this critical educational, social, and human agenda. Moreover, the findings suggest that inclusive education needs to be understood and implemented in mainstream primary schools in the DRC so that the development of a framework will serve to conceptualise inclusive education and its underlying constructs to form the basis for further theory development.

Keywords: Education, hermeneutic phenomenology, human rights approach in education, inclusion, inclusive education, learners with dyslexia.

RÉSUMÉ

En République Démocratique du Congo, l'intégration d'élèves atteints de dyslexie n'a pas fait objet de recherche. Cette étude a pour but d'explorer comment les enseignants intègrent les élèves atteints de dyslexie dans les écoles primaires ordinaires et de proposer des stratégies pouvant encourager les bonnes pratiques. Pour cette étude, un paradigme interprétiviste /constructiviste et un plan de recherche phénoménologie herméneutique ainsi qu'une approche de recherche qualitative ont été utilisés.

En ce qui concerne la compréhension des enseignants sur l'intégration en général et l'intégration d'élèves atteints de dyslexie en particulier, les résultats de l'étude montrent que les participants (enseignants et directeurs) semblent avoir une même compréhension de l'intégration des élèves atteints de dyslexie.

La principale différence semble se situer sur l'approche de l'éducation intégratrice comme une pratique ou comme un droit humain fondamental. Les résultats montrent qu'en général, les participants perçoivent l'éducation intégrante comme une pratique qui consiste à mettre tous les élèves dans une même salle de classe sans tenir compte de leur capacité.

Ainsi, l'opinion de ces participants serait que même si l'éducation intégrante est une tâche difficile, cela peut être accomplie. Cependant, on exigerait que toutes les parties prenantes essentielles jouent leur rôle non seulement sur une base ad hoc mais aussi sur une façon proactive et cohérente. En plus, cette étude recommande que les politiques alignées à la culture de l'éducation intégrante et aux droits humains soient cultivées et appliquées de façon cohérente.

On doit promouvoir une formation pédagogique cohérente, un engagement approprié des parties prenantes et la gestion de la salle de classe en tenant compte des valeurs des droits de l'homme. En outre, cette étude suggère qu'une vaste campagne de sensibilisation soit lancée pour communiquer la vision de l'éducation intégrante de plus bas au plus haut niveau dans le pays. Cette étude contribue également dans le cadre des droits humains pour l'éducation intégrante qui a été élaborée et s'inspire de la littérature et de l'étude empirique. Ce cadre fournira l'orientation et l'impulsion aux parties prenantes chargées de la mise en œuvre de ce programme important, éducatif, social et humain. En plus, les résultats suggèrent que l'éducation intégrante soit comprise et mise en œuvre dans les écoles primaires de la République démocratique

du Congo pour élaborer un cadre qui servira à la conceptualisation de l'éducation intégrante et de ses concepts sous-jacents comme base au développement théorique ultérieur.

Mots clés: Education, herméneutique phénoménologie, une approche des droits de l'homme dans le domaine de l'éducation, de l'intégration, de l'éducation intégrante, des élèves atteints de dyslexie.

TSHOBOKANYO

Go akarediwa ga barutwana ba ba nang le bolwetse jwa *dyslexia* mo thutong ya tlwaelo ga go ise go batlisisiwe mo bokaong jwa Rephaboloki ya Temokerasi ya Congo. Maikaelelo a thutopatlisiso eno e ne e le go lebelela ka moo barutabana ba akaretsang barutwana ba ba nang le bolwetse jwa *dyslexia* ka gona mo dikolong tsa poraemari tsa tlwaelo mme e atlenegisa ditogamaano tse di ka tokafatsang tiragatso e e siameng mo ntlheng eno. Go dirisitswe molebo o o dumelang gore tiragalo e ka nna le dithanolo tse di farologaneng gammogo le thulaganyo ya patlisiso ya hemenyuthiki fenomenoloji, go latelwa mokgwa wa dipatlisiso o o lebelelang boleng le mabaka mo thutopatlisising.

Malebana le gore a barutabana ba tlhaloganya go akarediwa ka kakaretso le go akarediwa ga barutwana ba ba nang le bolwetsi jwa *dyslexia*, diphitlhelelo tsa thutopatlisiso di senotse gore bannileseabe (barutabana le bagokgo) ba bonala ba tlhaloganya ka go tshwana go akarediwa ga barutwana ba ba nang le bolwetsi jwa *dyslexia*. Pharologano ya ntlha e lebege e le ya go leba thuto e e akaretsang jaaka tiragatso, gongwe tshwanelo ya motheo ya botho. Diphitlhelelo di bontsha gore ka kakaretso, bannileseabe ba tsaya gore thuto e e akaretsang ke tiragatso e mo go yona barutwana botlhe ba amogelwang mo phaposiborutelong e le nngwe, go sa lebelelwe bokgoni jwa bona. Ka jalo, bannileseabe bano ba dumela gore le fa tota thuto e e akaretsang e le tiro e e bokete, fela e ka fitlhelelwa. Le gale, seo se tlaa tlhoka gore baamegi ba botlhokwa ba diragatse seabe sa bona, e seng fela ka dinako dingwe, fela ka tsela e e tswelolang pele le e seng ya go tsiboga fela. Go tlaleletsa foo, thutopatlisiso e atlenegisa gore go tlhokomelwe le go dirisa dipholisi tse di itepatepanyang le thuto e e akaretsang le setso sa ditshwanelo tsa botho ka tsela e e tswelolang pele. Go tshwanetse ga tswelediwa katiso e e tswelolang pele ya barutabana, dipuisano tse di maleba le baamegi, le botsamaisi jwa diphaposiborutelo, mme tsotlhe tseno di theilwe mo dintlhatheong tsa ditshwanelo tsa botho. Gape thutopatlisiso eno e tshitshinya gore go tlhomiwe letsholo le le akaretsang la temoso go itsese botlhe ka ponelopele ya thuto e e akaretsang, go tloga ka legato le le kwa tlasetlase go ya kwa legatong le le kwa godimodimo mo nageng. Gape thutopatlisiso eno e tshwaela mo letlhomesong la ditshwanelo tsa botho tsa thuto e e akaretsang le le setseng le tlhamilwe mme gape e nopola go tswa mo dikwalong le dithutopatlisiso tsa kelotlhoko le maitemogelo. Letlhomeso leno le tlaa kaela le go rotloetsa baamegi

ba ba neilweng tiro ya go tsenya tirisong lenaneo leno la botlhokwa la thuto, loago le botho. Mo godimo ga moo, diphitlhelelo di tshitshinya gore go tlokega gore thuto e e akaretsang e tlhologangwe le go tsenngwa tirisong mo dikolong tsa tlwaelo tsa poraemari kwa DRC gore go tlhamiwa ga letlhomeso go thuse go akanya ka thuto e e akaretsang mmogo le ditiori tse di amanang nayo go nna motheo wa go godisa tiori go ya pele.

Mafoko a botlhokwa: Thuto, hemenyuthiki fenomenoloji, molebo wa ditshwanelo tsa botho mo thutong, kakaretso, thuto e e akaretsang, barutwana ba ba nang le bolwetse jwa *dyslexia*.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

“We do not see things as they are. We see them as we are.” – Talmud

1.1 Introduction

This study investigates the inclusion of learners with dyslexia in primary schools in Kinshasa, Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) with the ultimate intention of developing strategies and recommendations to enhance inclusive education practices. This introductory chapter presents the background to the study, including the problem statement, and the research questions that guide the study. The researcher provides justification for undertaking this study in the section on rationale and provide reasons for the significance of the research. The penultimate section provides a brief discussion of the research methods and theoretical lens of the study. Finally, I define key terms and provide an overview of the study.

1.2 Background to the Research

For many years, those in the field of education have been grappling with finding a suitable education curriculum that would cater for children of all capabilities (Lavega, Anzano, & Ruiz, 2014). This matter persists because there is a global rise in the number of children diagnosed with learning difficulties or requiring additional learning provision (Pantic & Florian, 2015). To this effect, inclusion has been placed at the centre of the global agenda, and member states have pledged their commitment to its attainment (Hansen, 2012; Niemeyer, 2014).

This worldwide movement towards inclusion in education is geared towards ensuring that children receive education in the same learning environments irrespective of their abilities; it covers physical presence, participations, engagement, respect and academic achievement (Sharon, 2013), and ultimately promotes social cohesion (Pico & Mortari, 2014).

Evidently, inclusion has philosophical as well as practical connotations (Lundqvist, Mara & Eva, 2015). Philosophically, inclusion refers to human rights, social attachment, and an appreciation of multiplicity (Guralnick et al., 2008; Brown & Guralnick, 2012). For Hornby (2015), the philosophical connotation of inclusion refers to an educational environment that aims to improve education of all learners with attractive, interesting and supple common education curricula, in order to bring variety and awareness to learner strengths and challenges by using deep practices and instruction that launch a communal collaboration between learners, educators, parents, professionals and communities. However, for Sharon (2013) the philosophical connotation of inclusion alludes to a learning environment that promotes social and academic development of learners by contesting all forms of discrimination.

Practically, inclusion refers to full participation of learners with and without special educational needs and disabilities in equal educational activities, routines and sustenance provision (Soukakou, 2012; Guralnick & Bruder, 2016). This sentiment promotes collective inclusion, participation, and reaching of all learners, no matter what their educational needs (Reid, 2015). Inclusion empowers every learner to gain access to essential academic curricula and basic cognitive expertise, combined with crucial life skills fundamental to everyday life, social relationships, values, morals, as well as high esteem for human rights and vital freedoms (Bentaouet, 2006; Khan, 2012). Inclusion implies a paradigm shift from seeing a learner with disability as a problem to seeing the education system as a problem (Perles, 2010; Sira, Maine & McNeil, 2018). Policies of inclusion thus enforce the political and social rights of learners by prioritizing the standard of equal treatment as well as procedures for identifying illegal discrimination and anti-discrimination laws which imply that certain groups of learners are unworthy to access mainstream classrooms (Montgomery & Mirenda, 2014; Sharma & George, 2016).

Despite attempts to establish inclusion in many countries, there are still obstacles that hinder its effective implementation, especially with regard to learning disabilities such as dyslexia (Reid, 2015). This is because inclusion of learners with dyslexia is very challenging, hard, and time consuming, because learners with dyslexia are known as slow learners with lack of phonological awareness; often they find it very difficult to distinguish sounds, to decode and encode oral and written information (Tshililo, 2016).

Therefore, teachers require a high level of teaching skills, a positive attitude, being patient as well as praising and encouraging them, in order to promote each individual strength and overcome each individual weakness and make the teaching accessible to the whole classroom (Puigserver, 2017). The challenges toward inclusion of learners with dyslexia are reported from many studies undertaken in developed countries and some studies in developing and under-developing countries in Africa and elsewhere. For example, in developed countries many studies have reported the following challenges:

Su's (2018) study on the Somerset local educational authority in the United Kingdom (UK) indicated that teachers face challenges with regard to teaching English to learners with dyslexia alongside their non-dyslexic peers because they are not adequately trained for inclusive education. Pino and Mortari (2014) in their study on the inclusion of students with dyslexia in mainstream higher education in the UK, revealed that staff training is key for effective inclusion. Teachers who lack of awareness of dyslexia have a significant negative impact on the learning experience. The findings of this study indicated that the relationship between teachers and learners contributes to a positive learning experience. Emotional and relational support is an important factor in motivating students to overcome the barriers to learning that dyslexia presents. In the UK, a study conducted by Cassady (2011) reported teachers believe that learners with dyslexia can be taught in mainstream schools, but those with autism and emotional/behavioural disorders should not be.

Elias (2014), in his study on teacher attitudes towards learners with dyslexia in New Zealand, observed that additional support and teaching resources are necessary to eliminate misunderstandings or hindrances experienced by teachers in this regard. Jusufi (2014) in his research analysing dyslexia awareness and the inclusion of learners with dyslexia in mainstream primary schools in Kosovo, established that while most teachers had heard about dyslexia, they held misinformed beliefs about the disorder. Be that as it may, more than half of the sampled teachers believed that their roles as educators were integral to creating inclusive classroom environments.

Sónia (2012), in his investigation of dyslexia through the eyes of 100 primary school teachers in Lisbon, Portugal, reports that for effective inclusion of learners with dyslexia in mainstream primary schools to take place, teachers should have the necessary

knowledge or strategies to evaluate, detect, and intervene in the education process of learners. She further reveals that teachers who lack knowledge on inclusion frustrate learners with dyslexia which – after enough discouragement – leads to them dropping out. Furthermore, regardless of the awareness of the lack of knowledge on inclusion, most teachers have already dealt with learners with dyslexia in their inclusive classroom.

A study conducted by Leung and Mak (2010) in Hong Kong, found that 25.5% of teachers in primary schools accept inclusion, but 74.5% of teachers were reluctant to do so, citing concern about the learning outcomes of such learners. In Israel, teachers have named long working hours and overcrowded classrooms as major obstacles to inclusion (Gal, Schreur & Engel-Yeger, 2010). Rose (2009), in her research into identifying and teaching children and young people with dyslexia and literacy difficulties in Nottingham primary schools, added that many teachers in mainstream schools usually struggle to differentiate between dyslexic learners and slow learners. This lack of awareness and misconceptions have deleterious effects on the inclusion of dyslexic learners in mainstream classrooms.

However, as intimated, in the developing and under-developing countries, such as African countries, little research has been undertaken into the context of inclusion of learners with dyslexia. These studies report the following challenges:

In their study conducted in the North West province of South Africa, Leseayne, Mandende, Makgato, and Cekiso (2018) established that, in mainstream schools, dyslexic learners were exposed to ill-treatment at the hands of their non-dyslexic peers who undermined, ridiculed, and bullied them, while some teachers used destructive and negative comments to embarrass and humiliate them.

Thompson's (2013) research into 16 mainstream high schools in the Western Cape in South Africa suggested that ongoing adequate pre-service training in the field of dyslexia is required for effective inclusion of such learners. Oswald and Swart (2011) conducted a study on addressing South African pre-service teachers' sentiments, attitudes and concerns regarding inclusive education. The findings reported that some South African teachers did indeed have positive attitudes towards inclusive education for such learners, but what alarmed the authors is that these teachers had no support

services or material resources. Similarly, Lake (2010) in his qualitative study, conducted from grade R to grade 7 in public mainstream primary schools in Gauteng province, specifically in Johannesburg East, found that some teachers in South Africa are not equipped, prepared, and lack the knowledge required, to teach learners with dyslexia in inclusive classrooms.

Furthermore, Ntsanwisi (2008) investigated the identification of barriers to learning encountered by grade 3 teachers in the Ritavi district of Limpopo. The finding revealed that in mainstream schools many teachers labelled learners with dyslexia as “slow learners, mental retards, emotionally disturbed, or behaviourally disordered”.

Mrstik (2017) conducted an examination of inclusive practices of junior secondary students with learning disabilities in Gaborone, Botswana. The findings reported that teachers lack adequate inclusive education and special education skills to teach learners with learning disabilities in general and dyslexia in particular. The same findings reveal that in particular their peers without learning disability bullied learners with learning disability in general and specifically dyslexia in the classroom. These bullying practices showed a significant relationship with the latter’s low academic successes. During the classroom activities learners with learning disabilities and dyslexia in particular were hesitant to respond to the questions asked by teachers because they were afraid to be bullied by their peers without learning disabilities. Furthermore, Mongwaketse’s (2011) study conducted in Botswana primary schools’ settings established that learners with learning disability in general and dyslexia in particular are not receiving learning opportunities to participate in the learning and teaching process. This is because teachers seem to embrace the concept of inclusion theoretically instead of practically.

In the Manzini region of Swaziland, Gama and Thwala (2016) carried out a study on Swazi teachers’ challenges, in including learners with dyslexia in mainstream classrooms. As they reported, teachers in Swaziland experience challenges that range from lack of knowledge of inclusive education, training, space, extra time not being allocated to learners with dyslexia in the classrooms, to monetary support from the government.

Similarly, in Zimbabwe, Chimhenga (2017) undertook research into an assessment of factors affecting the implementation of inclusive education for children with learning

disabilities in Zimbabwean primary schools, in the educational provinces of Bulawayo, Harare, Midlands, Msvingo and Matabeleland North. The findings were that primary school teachers lack training to assist education of learners with learning disabilities in general and dyslexia in particular in their classroom environments. The findings of the same study also reported that the primary schools lack material resources to implement inclusion for learners with learning disabilities, dyslexia in particular.

Agbenyega (2007) examined teachers' concerns and attitudes to inclusive education in basic schools in three localities, namely the central business district, a suburban and a coastal area in the Greater Accra metropolis, Ghana. The study revealed that teachers are concerned about possessing insufficient skills and resources to facilitate inclusion of learners with learning disabilities, such as those with dyslexia in particular. Similarly, Drame and Kamphoff's (2014) research into perceptions of disability and access to inclusive education in Senegal, West Africa discovered that teachers lack effective training, suitable and adapted instructional material for successful inclusion of learners with disabilities in general and dyslexia in particular.

In the DRC, as noted by Handicap International (2012), too few studies have been conducted on the inclusion of learners with disabilities. Existing literature did not specifically focus on dyslexia, but it reveals several obstacles to the implementation of inclusive education of children with disabilities. For example, Tshiunza, Bina, and Kapinga (2018) suggest that the challenges relate to (i) a lack of school resources in the context of inclusive education; (ii) unawareness of opinion on the question of the universal right to education and building a consent around the perceptions of inclusion and quality education; (iii) ineffective legislation in favour of inclusivity in accord with international agreements, assertions and recommendations; (iv) deficiency of local capacity to encourage inclusion and devise ways to extend the effect of inclusion and quality education; (v) the lack of strategies at both the school level and local community level to detect children who are not in school and to find solutions to support them to register in school and to attend schools frequently; and (vi) the lack of knowledge of teachers regarding inclusion. Phaka (2017) revealed antagonistic reactions regarding the inclusion of learners with intellectual disabilities in mainstream primary schools of Kinshasa. Her study claimed that 67.6% of the sampled 107 teachers from different mainstream primary schools refused inclusive education and did not wish to include

children with intellectual disabilities in their respective mainstream classrooms. Reasons include inadequate infrastructure and necessary didactic materials to support the inclusion of such learners. The attitude of teachers toward learners with intellectual disabilities proved to be negative; they regarded them as lacking progress in comparison to their nondisabled peers. In the same vein, Sumbu (2016) reported that deaf learners are not accepted by their teachers or their peers in the primary mainstream classroom in Kinshasa. They were often isolated during teaching activities, as teachers simply did not communicate with them. The findings of another study carried out by Aghamelu (2015) in the DRC suggested that teachers did not prioritize the teaching of learners with learning disabilities and hold negative attitudes towards the latter's inclusion. They further declare that the sustainability of inclusive educational placements for learners with learning disabilities poses many problems in the country because of limited resources, both financial and material. Inclusion of students with learning disabilities was also opposed by 89% of the 130 teachers sampled by Manzita (2014) at two public primary schools located in Lemba and Kinsenso, Kinshasa. The reasons they named were a lack of appropriate skills and educational resources. Teachers felt that the education of such children should take place in special schools where there are special teachers who are trained for such cases. An investigation by Mbiyavanga (2016) which included 694 teachers in Kinshasa (317 nursery school and 377 primary school teachers) concluded that for effective inclusion in mainstream primary and nursery schools, teachers require effective training in order to be comfortable with enabling an inclusive classroom environment.

1.3 Problem Statement

Dyslexia is the most common form of language-based learning disability, affecting children and adults alike (British Dyslexia Association, 2007). The problem is widespread in poor countries (Aghamelu, 2015). As noted by CBM (2012) nearly two thirds of the 77 million people of the DRC live below the poverty line, which may be a consequence of the decade-long civil war. Negative attitudes of teachers towards inclusion constitute a serious call for concern.

In the DRC, the inclusion system is very poorly aligned with the needs of the economy and is snowed under by a plethora of challenges, including the fact that the quality of education is not a priority for the government (UNICEF, 2008). The survival of inclusion

is almost entirely due to community financing and the administration systems of schools (Verhaghe, 2007), while access to inclusive education opportunities is predominantly poverty-related; in addition, inclusion is still in the early stages of design (World Bank, 2008; Handicap International, 2012).

The provision of inclusive educational placements of learners with dyslexia and learning disabilities in general poses many problems (Hanson et al., 2002). In many mainstream primary classrooms of the DRC, learners with dyslexia tend to be discriminated against as teachers often overemphasise their deficits or differences, while their strengths remain underrated (Phaka, 2017).

In the DRC, learners with a learning disability (e.g. dyslexia), are often viewed by the mainstream primary school as 'deficient' and they are targeted with all kinds of projections, in that they are seen as incompetent, burdensome, and demonstrating insufficient progress (Handicap International, 2012; Sumbu, 2016).

In the DRC such learners are always removed from the mainstream school and kept in a different space, that of specialist schools, which comprises a defence against the anxiety of integration and the forming of meaningful relationships (Tshiunza, Bina & Kapinga, 2018). Thus, families, departments, schools, and even nations use citizens with disability in general and dyslexia in particular as vessels of deficiencies. When this happens, their human rights are further undermined (Aghamelu, 2015).

In the DRC, many learners with dyslexia are excluded from the mainstream school curriculum, or they are often excluded from classroom activities (Handicap International, 2012; Sumbu, 2016). In addition, teachers lack strategies, appropriate support, good practice and policies to enhance effective inclusion of learners with dyslexia (Tshiunza, Bina & Kapinga, 2018). As a result, and as indicated, many learners with dyslexia are the subjects of bullying by teachers and their fellow learners alike, which often leads to a range of emotional difficulties, frustration, disappointment, shame, or anger (Nugent, 2008; Aghamelu, 2015). In such discrimination, numerous of these learners with disabilities drop out of school and end up being unemployed, turning to drug abuse, or becoming involved in other criminal activities (UNICEF, 2008; Aldersey, 2013; Mena, 2018).

In this study, I consequently aimed to investigate and explore how teachers include learners with dyslexia in mainstream primary schools and to propose strategies that could enhance good practice in terms of inclusion of such learners in these schools.

1.4 Research Questions

1.4.1 Main Research Question

The main research question is as follows: “How could inclusion of learners with dyslexia be enhanced in mainstream primary school?”

1.4.2 Sub-Questions

The following sub-research questions guided the study:

- What are the primary school teachers’ understanding of inclusion of learners with dyslexia in primary schools?
- How are learners with dyslexia included in the primary schools?
- What factors influence teachers’ practices in inclusion of learners with dyslexia in primary schools?
- What strategies can be put in place to enhance the inclusion of learners with dyslexia in primary schools in the DRC?

1.5 Aim and Objectives

The main goal of this study is to investigate inclusion of learners with dyslexia in ordinary primary schools in the DRC, with the aim of suggesting strategies for improving practice.

To this end, the objectives of this study are to:

- Explore teachers’ understanding of inclusion of learners with dyslexia in mainstream primary schools of Kinshasa
- Describe how learners with dyslexia are included in the mainstream primary schools of Kinshasa
- Explain factors that influence teachers’ practices on inclusion of learners with dyslexia in the mainstream primary schools of Kinshasa.

- Propose strategies for the inclusion of learners with dyslexia in ordinary primary school classrooms.

1.6 Rationale for the Study

Various reasons motivated me to undertake this study.

The researcher has two children with dyslexia. They experienced difficulties with reading and writing in the early years of their education. They were often bullied in mainstream schools by their teachers and their peers without disabilities, a problem which led to their being transferred from one institution to the next in searching for a school which could accommodate their learning challenges.

The implications of dyslexia are far reaching, as noted: if such learners are not identified early or provided with appropriate support in the mainstream, they may develop serious behavioural or social problems which could lead to school dropout (Sónia, 2012). In DRC, education of learners with a learning disability, namely dyslexia, causes difficulties and has never been prioritized, so that such learners are subject always to discrimination in a mainstream school environment (Handicap International, 2012). The government is inactive in the provision of public services such as healthcare, sanitation, water and education (CORI /Country of Origin Research and Information, 2013). This silence has resulted in the sustained marginalization of an individual with disabilities from society (Mbiyavanga, 2016). In some instances, such learners with disabilities may become jobless, a stumbling block and burden to society (Cimpric, 2010). If quality education is not provided to these learners, this will advance the country into a higher level of poverty (Awan, Noureen & Naz, 2011). A previous study conducted by De Boeck (2011) indicated that the only way to minimize this danger is that the country must implement inclusion where all learners will be qualified to study in the same learning environment as their peers. These findings are consistent with the international treaties and statements which the DRC has ratified. These indicate that the right to a quality inclusive education is indeed a human right and value, it is universal and inalienable, it has been enshrined in a number of conventions in international law (Jonsson, 2003; Lawrence, 2004). All learners with and without disabilities have the right to be schooled where respect for such a human right is protected both in word and in action, in the school environment and in the schools'

educational materials (Frankovits, 2005). Through quality inclusive education the DRC can achieve the economic development of its country (Awan, Noreen & Naz, 2011). In addition, inclusive classrooms are beneficial to all learners with or without disabilities (Mortimore & Crozier, 2007).

Schools are supposed to benefit all as per the international treaties, because inclusion promotes cooperation and collaboration between learners with and without disabilities, strengthens the school culture, empowers individual learners, and improves educational performance (Pantic & Florian, 2015). In inclusive classrooms, learners with dyslexia receive help from their teachers and peers without disabilities (Khan, 2012). Teachers and learners without learning disabilities are known as facilitators and supporters of learners with learning disabilities (Shogren et al., 2015).

Given that worsening poverty in the DRC is a significant factor, effective implementation of inclusion in the country encounters many problems and challenges (Prunier, 2010; Pype, 2011). In the DRC, as noted, there is an absence of true inclusion in many schools, because the government of the DRC is very silent on allocating enough funds for teacher training on inclusion, nor does it equip schools with the required educational materials or equipment (Tshionza, Bina & Kapinga, 2018).

Even though policies of inclusion in the DRC have been boldly declared by the government as a human fundamental right and of national urgency in the constitution of 2000 and articles 42, 43 and 49 of the 2006 constitution, the country has a long way to go to concretely implement the inclusion of learners with special education needs in general, and learners with dyslexia in particular (Stephanie, 2010; MINEPS-INC, 2011).

1.7 Significance of the Study

The study will benefit several organizations and numerous people. Its outcomes will add to the limited literature on the inclusion of learners with dyslexia into the mainstream school system in the DRC and other countries. The data collected for this study will be useful in the field of inclusion of all learners with disabilities in general and learning disabilities such as dyslexia in particular. Teachers, staff, and education stakeholders in mainstream schools of the DRC and other countries will benefit in this study as they will be presented with different strategies, recommendations, and skills

to aid learners with dyslexia in the mainstream settings. The study will also assist the Department of Education (DOE) in the DRC to arrange in-service training and workshops in order to help teachers cope with the demands of learners with dyslexia. The DOE, as a policy maker, might also plan and develop ways to provide effective inclusion for all learners with learning disabilities. The DOE could also liaise with other departments, such as the DRC Department of Social Development and the Department of Health, from which psychologists, social workers, and speech therapists could be recruited to diagnose those with learning disabilities, as well as equip teachers with the right knowledge to help their pupils achieve educational success. This study also hopes to raise awareness and increase understanding of dyslexia in the DRC and beyond.

1.8 Research Methods and Methodology

In this section, I present the research methods and methodology used in this study.

1.8.1 Research Paradigms

An interpretivist paradigm was used to explore and answer the main and sub-questions of this study. The selected paradigm employed hermeneutic phenomenology specifically as an orientation for this study. Through the said paradigm, I seek to understand the experiences of each participant related to the inclusion of learners with dyslexia in mainstream schools of Kinshasa. This paradigm is appropriate because interpretivist approaches focus on understanding a phenomenon from the perspective of participants, exploring the interface between individuals as well as the historical and cultural settings which these individuals inhabit (Creswell, 2013). The paradigm is discussed more fully in chapter 4, methodology.

1.8.2 Research Approach

For this study, the qualitative approach was suitable because of a need to comprehend social problems from many points of view; this approach has the benefit of providing rich data on real-life situations in regular settings and embraces a procedure of building a multifaceted and universal picture of the situation of interest (Marshall & Rossman, 2011). Through qualitative research, data is collected in a natural research setting; this

is sensitive to the people and phenomena under study (Klenke, 2016). This research approach is illustrated in detail in the methodology chapter.

1.8.3 Research Design

For this study, I placed myself within the tradition of hermeneutic phenomenology, founded by Martin Heidegger and developed by Hans-George Gadamer and Paul Ricoeur in France (Lindseth & Norberg, 2004). This research design is developed in detail in chapter 4 on methodology.

1.8.4 Research Strategy

In this study, data will be collected through individual interviews and focus groups. Data will be analysed through phenomenological hermeneutic interpretation as proposed by Lindseth and Norberg (2004). The said research strategy is explained in detail in the methodology chapter (Chapter 4).

1.8.5 Data Collection Methods

For the purpose of this study, I used individual and focus group interviews in order to obtain the different views and opinions of participants regarding the inclusion of learners with dyslexia in mainstream primary schools in West District, Kinshasa, DRC. Both methods of data collection were used to supplement information obtained by each one of them.

1.8.5.1 Individual interviews

For this study, I utilized individual interviews, which consisted of interview questions that were correlated with the research questions and the aims of the study. The individual interviews were conducted in teachers' classrooms, after school hours. Each interview lasted approximately 55 minutes.

1.8.5.2 Focus group interviews

In this study, focus group interviews were used to collect effective data that would aid in analysing the social issue of inclusion of learners with dyslexia in mainstream primary schools. The interviews consisted of four groups; participants in each group came from the same selected school. Each focus group interview was conducted in

the teacher's meeting halls of each respective school, after school hours, and lasted for two hours.

1.8.6 Sampling Process

In this section, the following aspects are outlined: population, sampling procedures, and the sample itself.

1.8.6.1 Population

The study population consisted of teachers and principals of four mainstream primary schools of the department of basic education in Kinshasa's West District.

1.8.6.2 Sampling procedures

In this study, purposive sampling was used to select research participants. The said department was used as a sampling location. There are 1167 mainstream primary schools in Kinshasa, but for the purpose of this study, four mainstream primary schools were selected. As mentioned, the participants in this study were selected by virtue of teaching in mainstream primary schools with a minimum of 10 years of experience, including their qualification.

1.8.6.3 Sample

The sample comprised 24 teachers and 4 principals from the 4 selected mainstream primary schools. The focus groups consisted of 24 teachers (9 women, 16 men) in 4 groups of 6. Four school principals (2 women, 2 men) were individually interviewed.

1.8.7 Data Analysis

To analyse data, I used the method of phenomenological hermeneutic interpretation proposed by Lindseth and Norberg (2004). This consists of naïve reading, structural analysis, and comprehensive understanding. Data analysis is further explained in the methodology chapter.

1.8.8 Reporting

A first-person qualitative reporting style was used to report on the findings of the study in the form of themes and subthemes.

1.8.9 Trustworthiness of the Study

In qualitative research, trustworthiness is measured by adherence to the following principles: credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability (Guba & Lincoln, 2005; Anney, 2014). Credibility was established through adopting a qualitative approach and personal visits to the selected schools. Transferability was assured through rich descriptions of the study processes to reflect the relevance of the phenomena to other schools and respondents. Dependability was achieved through proper management of study sites together with the use of a qualitative approach in terms of the principles of a phenomenological study. Confirmability was reached through member checking and giving comprehensive descriptions of methods (Lapan, Quartaroli & Riemer, 2012). The factor of trustworthiness is discussed in detail in the methodology chapter.

1.8.10 Ethical Considerations

In order to attain permission to carry out the study, I submitted a project proposal, an ethical clearance form, and consent documentation to the UNISA Ethics Review Committee (ERC) and the Department of Basic Education, West District, Kinshasa, DRC for approval. Permission was also secured from the school principals to conduct research at their schools.

For ethical reasons, participants were informed about the aim of the study. This served to assure them that the study was purely for academic reasons. Participants were extensively informed of the objectives of the study to empower them to make decisions and to know what would be expected of them. They were assured that the information collected would be trustworthy and kept private. Participants were unrestricted and could freely join or drop out at will (Henning, Van Rensburg & Smith, 2004; Bryman & Bell, 2007). The names and schools of participants were kept confidential and secure inaccessible to anyone unless by special arrangement with both the researcher and the participants (Neuman, 2014).

1.9 Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework adopted in this study is a Human Rights Based Approach to Education for All (HRBAEA), which addresses the right to access to education for all, the right to quality education, and respect for human rights in education (Annan, 2005). The theory suggests collective access, respect of identity, and integrity of all children in the school's environment (UNICEF, 2007). It is also designed to shape the skills of learners in the area such as learning through participation, acting as a learning facilitator, inculcating the learner's rights, the non-discrimination principle, positive discipline, class management, inclusive teaching settings, learners' participation at all levels of education settings, and in-service training that designs a rolling programme which delivers training on the rights-based framework (Wright, 2003; Frankovits, 2005). The details of this section are discussed in the following chapter (Chapter 2).

1.10 Definition of Terms

- **Dyslexia**

For Bell (2010), dyslexia *“is a learning disability which initially shows itself by difficulty in learning to read, and later by erratic spelling and by lack of facility in manipulating written, as opposed to spoken words”*.

For the British Dyslexia Association (British Dyslexia Association, 2007), dyslexia *“is a disorder in one or more of the psychological processes involved in understanding or using spoken or written language manifested in imperfect ability to listen, think, speak, read, write, spell, or do simple mathematical calculation including such conditions as perceptual handicaps, brain injury, minimal brain dysfunction and developmental aphasia”*.

The International Dyslexia Association (2017) defines dyslexia as “a specific learning disability that is neurological in origin. It is characterized by difficulties with accurate and/or fluent word recognition and by poor spelling and decoding abilities. These difficulties typically result from a deficit in the phonological component of language that is often unexpected in relation to other cognitive abilities and the provision of effective classroom instruction. Secondary consequences may include problems in reading

comprehension and reduced reading experience that can impede the growth of vocabulary and background knowledge”.

For the purposes of this study, I will use the definition of the International Dyslexia Association.

- **Inclusion**

Inclusion describes the principle that all students are entitled to equitable access to learning, achievement and the pursuit of excellence in all aspects of their education. The practice of inclusion is not necessarily synonymous with integration and goes beyond placement to include meaningful participation and the promotion of interaction with others (Farrell, 2010).

- **Inclusive Education**

Inclusive Education (IE) is a universal trend that comprises the idea of making education reachable to all children (Bryant, Smith, & Bryant, 2008).

- **Learning Disabilities**

Learning disabilities (LD) are neurologically-based processing problems that can interfere with learning basic skills such as listening, speaking, reading, writing, arithmetic and other higher-level skills such as time-planning, abstract reasoning and organization (Learner & Kline, 2006; Swanson & O’Connor, 2009).

- **Special Educational Needs**

Special educational needs (SEN) are those characteristics which make it necessary to provide a student undertaking an educational program with resources different from those which are needed by most students. Special educational needs are identified during assessment of a student; they are the basis for determining an appropriate educational program (including necessary resources) for that student (Fawcett, 2004).

1.11 Outline of Chapters

The remaining chapters of the study are as follows:

Chapter Two presents the Human Rights Based Approach to Education for All (HRBAEA) as the theoretical framework embedded in this study.

Chapter Three discusses the existing national and international literature on dyslexia and inclusion of learners with dyslexia in relation to the study research questions.

Chapter Four considers the research methods and methodology, research paradigms, research design and research approach of this study.

Chapter Five presents the findings of the empirical study. These are based on the focus groups and the individual interviews in the form of themes and sub-themes, along with a brief integrated literature discussion.

Chapter Six debates the findings of the study by referring to relevant literature in the field of inclusive education and within the context of a human rights framework.

Chapter Seven discusses study conclusions and limitations and makes recommendations for future research based on the findings of the study.

1.12. Chapter Summary

In Chapter One, the scientific orientation of the study was discussed. This discussion commenced by exploring the background and motivation for the study. This was followed by a presentation of the problem statement, research questions, aims, objectives, and the rationale for the study. Thereafter, a critical discussion was undertaken of the paradigms, for the literature review, the empirical study and the research design, pertaining to the research approach, strategy, and method. The chapter concluded with a discussion on the trustworthiness of the study, a proposed theoretical framework and definition of terms. The following chapter focuses on the HRBAEA as the said theoretical framework.

CHAPTER 2

HUMAN RIGHTS BASED APPROACH TO EDUCATION FOR ALL

2.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to discuss the theoretical framework used in this study, namely the Human Rights Based approach to education for all (HRBAEA). This approach was chosen due to its alignment with the topic of this study. This approach was the foundation that guided me to envisage an alternative framework which could ease the inclusion of learners with dyslexia in mainstream primary schools of Kinshasa.

2.2 Categories of Models of Disability

Research endeavours of learners with disability have attracted the attention of scholars and practitioners (Fawcett, 2004; Thomas, Curtis, & Shippen, 2011). Shakespeare (2010) perceives disability as an impairment in any part of a human being; it may affect anyone temporarily or permanently. Braithwaite and Mont (2009) indicate that disability comprises two categories: visible disability (physical impairment, sensory impairment, chronic illness and health issues) and hidden disability (epilepsy, diabetes, dyslexia, speech and language impairment, mental distress...).

People with disability are regarded differently by practitioners and scholars: each group observes and analyses disability from different perspectives. These perspectives are the fundamental cause of discrimination against people with disabilities all around the globe (Miyazaki, 2015). In the education sector, educators employ various views to understand, think about, act towards and define people with disability; those views are shaped by different theories: the religious model of disability, the medical model of disability, the social model of disability, and the human rights model of disability (Yengo, 2008; Degener, 2013).

2.2.1 The Religious Model of Disability

This model of disability views an individual with disability as someone who is under the curse of witchcraft, possessed by demons or punished by God because of their wrongdoing or their parents' sins (Yengo, 2008). This model of disability is viewed from

such perspectives as Christianity, Judaism, Islam, Buddhism and Hinduism (Smart, 2009). The social, economic and educational needs of individuals with disability are cherished and interpreted by the belief of each religion (Groce, 2014). For scholars this model of disability does not solely interpret disability in terms of religious beliefs (Miyazaki, 2015).

2.2.2 Medical Model of Disability

The medical model of disability has been the leading paradigm of disability in the United States (Samuel, 2003). It offers a technique of labelling the standards that have conventionally governed disability in Western civilization (Steven, 2001). As such, it depends on normative categories of 'disabled' and 'non-disabled' (Bradley, 2008). This model assumes that individuals with disabilities have a medical problem, but the problem can be adapted to through a medical solution and not by social policy (Samaha, 2007). This is because disability is a sickness, not social problem or effected by environmental factors, experienced by an individual and it can be cured by undergoing specific treatments (Bradley, 2008). Individuals with disabilities are often branded as having individual characteristics of inability and dependency that can be overcome or cured by medical efforts (Steven, 2001). Under the medical model, individuals with disability are often stereotyped and seen as objects of pity and in need of charity (Samaha, 2007). In addition, Shakespeare & Watson (2001) believe that disability is a condition that affected the body and mind of particular persons, which could only be fixed or cured and resolved by doctors and specialists.

For many years, the medical model was considered as a unique framework that could address different issues relating to the difficulties of disabled people in the following areas: social, political, economic, and educational (Broderick, 2015). This model of disability has been applied by some medical practitioners and scholars in order to analyse disabilities and affect their practice in terms of people with disabilities (Smart 2009; Miyazaki, 2015). Regarding the education of disabled learners, the medical model emphasizes that learners with disabilities could only receive their education in special schools or sheltered workshops, and not in mainstream schools (Roulstone & Barnes, 2005). This because they need an environment where there is the presence of the following features: occupational therapists, special transport, social services,

educational psychologists, special training centres, speech therapists, and sheltered workshops (Anon, 2007). This can be illustrated clearly in the following figure:



Figure 2.1: Medical Model of disability (adopted from Anon, 2007)

However, the education of learners with disability in accordance with the medical model is not in line with the human rights model of disability (Reindal, 2008), because such practitioners perceive the child as the problem; in other words, he or she has special needs, does not know how to learn, needs a special teacher and also a special environment, and is different from other learners. This is illustrated in the following figure 2.2:

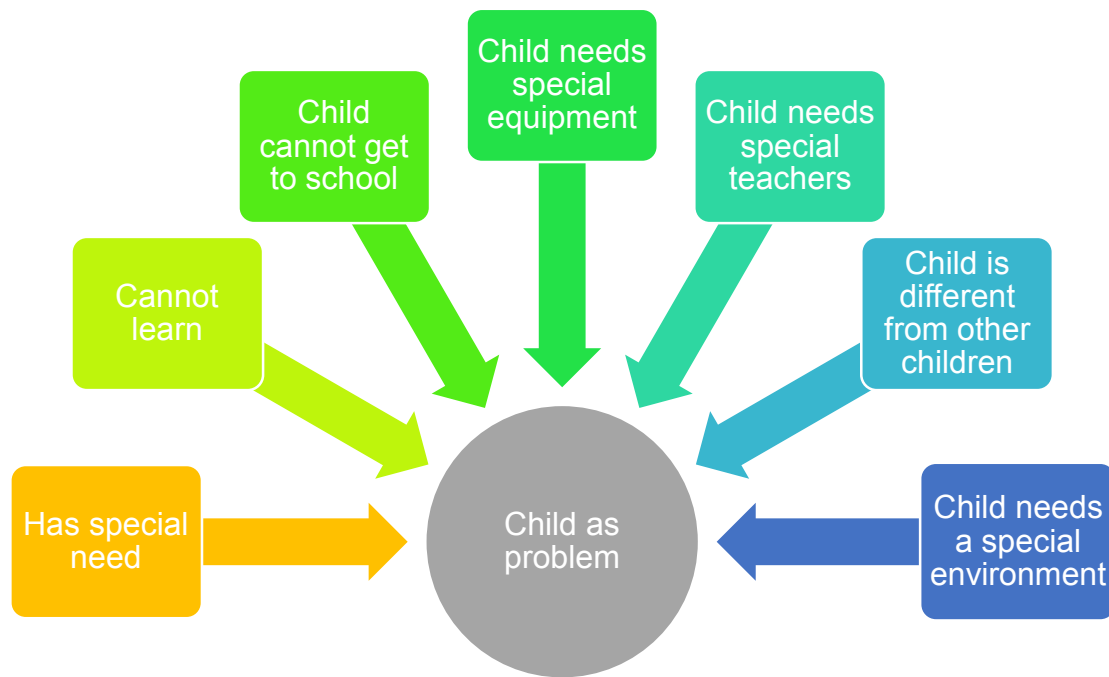


Figure 2.2: Medical Model of Disability (adopted from Rieser, 2014)

2.2.3 Social Model of Disability

Those who employ the social model of disability believe that disability is a social, constructed impairment perceived through the person’s interaction with barriers of society; in other words, learners are disabled by society, not by impairment (Shakespeare, 2010; Davis, 2013). The social model seeks to eradicate superfluous obstacles, which prevent disabled persons from taking part in society, living autonomously and accessing work (Degener, 2016). This model identifies that the attitude towards people with disability creates excessive barriers to inclusion (Degener, 2014). Within the social model framework, children with disability are educated in accessible public schools together with their non-disabled peers and the provision of their education is accessible to all with the same qualifications and open opportunities (Roulstone & Barnes, 2005; Reindal, 2008). In this model of disability, a child is valued, his or her needs are defined by others and by self, while schools are in charge of making educational resources available to him or her in mainstream or ordinary schools (Buntinx & Schalock, 2010). The social model believes that disability is caused by many factors within society, such as: lack of useful education, discrimination in employment, segregated services, poverty, belief in the medical model, inaccessible

information, devaluing, prejudice, and inaccessible transport (Anon, 2007). This can be illustrated in the following figure:

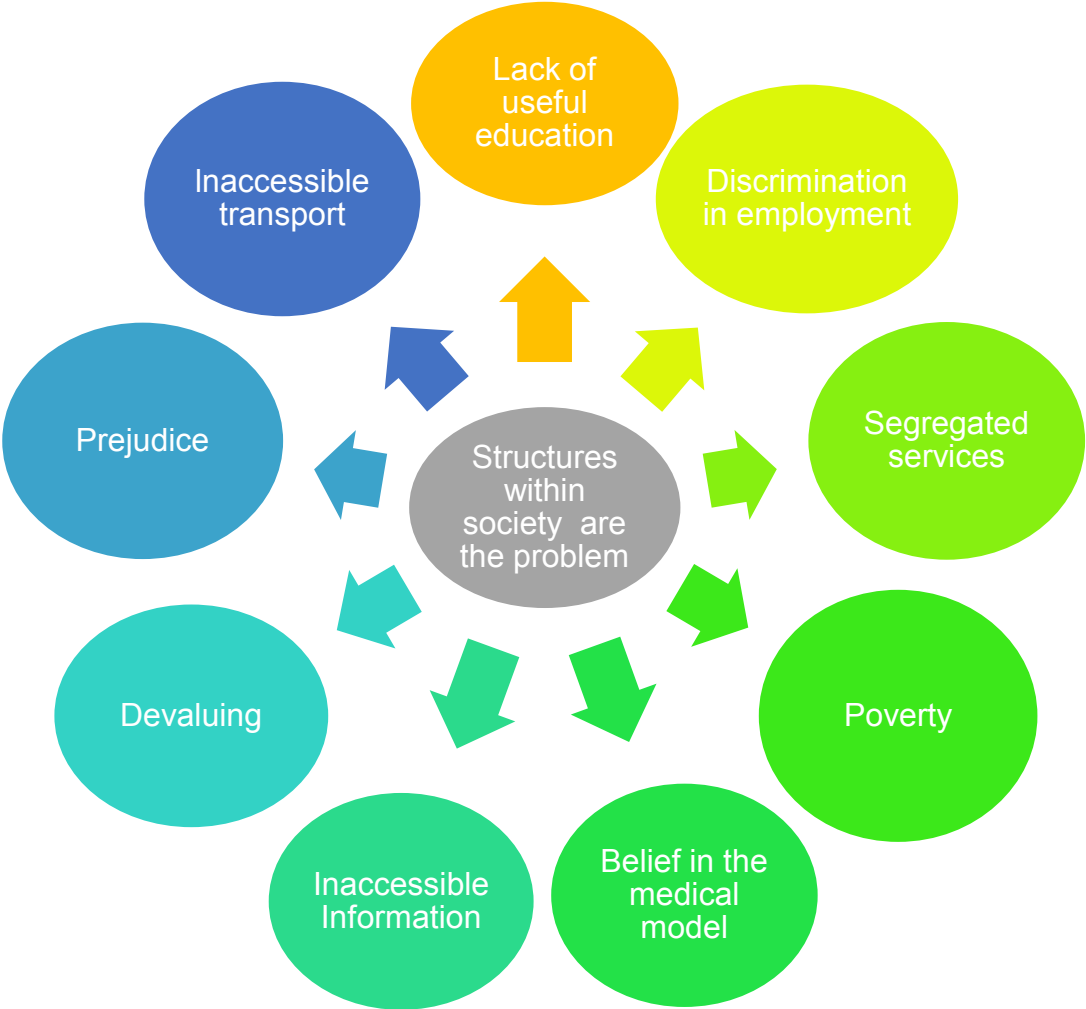


Figure 2.3: Social Model disability framework (adopted from Anon, 2007)

2.2.4 The Social Ecological Systems Model

This kind of model aims to help communities gain a deeper understanding of the different stages and characteristics of people who have or do not have disabilities among them (Lustig, 2010). In fact, the quality of the context would to a large extent determine how disabling the particular disability is, for example, in a context where assistance is easier to come by, the degree to which someone is considered disabled is lessened (Woo, 2005). This also shows that every person is placed and considered

in society in relation to their functions and levels in their community (Thurston & Vissandjee, 2005). This context has a global, national, and local quality (Woo, 2005). At the global level, there are many policy instruments that would recognise the human right to inclusivity of people living with disabilities. The spirit of these international instruments will be ratified in national policies and interventions, however, at the very local level, the specific context of a person living with a disability will be of vital importance. For example, whether that person is living in a rural or an urban setting, in an affluent or deprived community (Wachs & Evans, 2010).

Bronfenbrenner's (1979) ecological model shows that the standard to which people are held by a community is determined in relation to their important, dynamic, and independent relationships (Lustig, 2010). The ecological model believes that learners with or without disability are dependent on the different forces that empower them (Kim, 2005). In this model, disability and its behaviour are not taken into consideration, the meaning of its attitude and behaviour not only relates to its perceptions, but to the perceptions of teachers and parents

This theory shows that the appreciation of the dynamics of students with disabilities is related to their home and their families (Essex, 2006; and Colyvan & Ginsburg, 2003). This model demonstrates that relationships between humans and their physical community depend on their ecological responses.

This theory suggests that an ecological problem manifests in a disconnection between what is provided for those with disabilities and what is provided for them (White et al, 2006). This shows that one aspect cannot exist without acknowledgement of the other. One solution could be to centre the educational environment on the individual learner.

For Bronfenbrenner (1979), his social ecology model summarizes a substantial ideology related to human development that contemplates change and involvement of the individual in his/her environment. In fact, there are types of systems that are connected in this model. These include the micro system, the meso system, the exo system, the macro system, and the chrono system. All five of these systems play a vital role in the educational life of the disabled learner (Christensen, 2016).

The **micro system** centres on the phases with which the learner is directly connected. The micro-system encompasses the relationships and connections that learners have with those around them (Paquettes and Ryan, 2001). The learner plays an important role in the environment and the environment also plays an important role for the learner. Micro-systems are much more bi-directional in importance than other systems. As a result, the different interactions at the external level are always considered more efficient than those of the internal structures. This phase guarantees the relationship between the different layers of the micro-system of any category of learners (Berk, 2000). In this phase the school plays an important role in the learner's life (Swenson and Chaffin, 2006).

The **exo system** is a system that is larger than the micro-system. It is considered larger because learners are considered as a whole. The different levels of this phase play a very important role in the development of the learner by connecting with some parts of the micro-system structure (Paquettes & Ryan, 2001). This is a system that has no direct impact on the learner, but rather one that focuses on the 'bigger picture' of the parent and the place of learning, which can have either a positive or negative effect on the learner (Krishnan, 2010).

The **meso system**: it is a system where parents and teachers interact with the micro system (Swenson & Chaffin, 2006).

The **macro system** is known as an external phase in the environment that characterizes the learner (Swenson & Chaffin, 2006). The macro system focuses on cultural, legal, and customs values (Paquettes & Ryan, 2001). In fact, these principles are broader and are defined by an attitude that manifests itself with its connection with other systems (Engler, 2007). It is an institution that have indirect effect with the learners, such as school policies and ethnic practice.

The **chrono system** refers to the dimension of time that relates to a learner's environment (Krishnan, 2010). Elements within this system can be either external, such as the timing of a parent's death, or internal, such as the physiological changes that occur with the maturation of a learner. As learners get older, they may react differently to the changes in their environment and may be able to determine how change will influence the learners (Christensen, 2010).

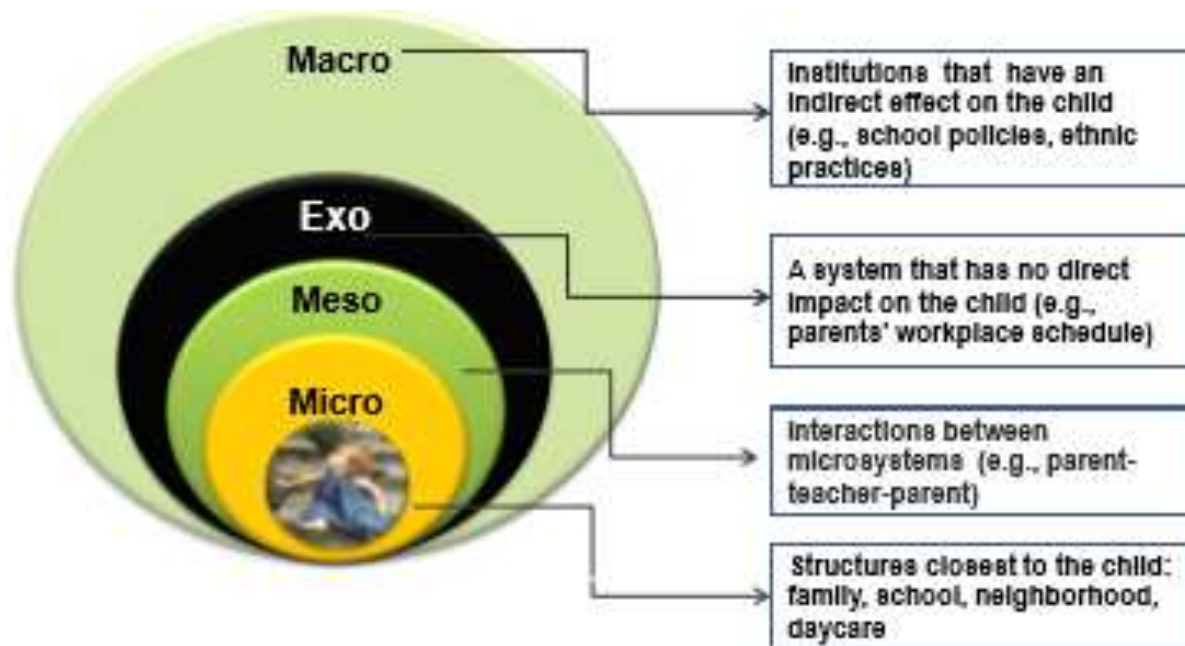


Figure 2.4: Bronfenbrenner's bio-ecological model (source from Krishnan, 2010)

2.2.5 Inclusive Pedagogy Model

The inclusive pedagogy model is a teaching model that was developed in part to decrease irregularities in the quality and provision of modern teaching (Sosu & Ellis, 2014). This model is a starting point that replaces traditional approaches to teaching learners who have special educational needs and is based on the argument that such learners necessarily require different or addition teaching approaches than the ones, which are available in ordinary classroom settings (Hart, Dixon, Drummond & McIntyre, 2004).

This model redresses the restraints on learning that are often and unintentionally imposed on learners when they are as "less able". This model does not refute dissimilarities among learners, but nevertheless aims to accommodate all of them in the most generally acceptable way (Göransson & Nilholm, 2014). This model shifts away from the idea of inclusion as a dedicated answer to some learners, instead it empowers the maximum number of them to participate (Sosu & Ellis, 2014).

This model assumes that differences between learners are a normal facet of the human condition (Booth & Ainscow, 2002). The inclusive pedagogy model aims to help teachers to support all learners without any form of discrimination, especially learners

who are vulnerable to exclusion and marginalization (Black-Hawkins, Florian & Rouse, 2007). Furthermore this model supports teachers to craft and articulate knowledge and learning in an inclusive way (Florian & Black-Hawkins, 2011). Inclusive pedagogy offers an alternative to the bell curve thinking that underpins traditional approaches to providing education for all that reduce the inequality of educational opportunity that occurs when performance expectations are lowered as a result of the identification of additional support needs.

A teacher takes account of the specific needs of all learners in the classroom and plans a lesson with distinguished choices that will safeguard that each learner will be able to partake in the lesson (Lani, 2015). However, while the teacher takes account of dissimilarities among learners, he/she does not set what is taught. Instead he/she aids pupils through the course of their own learning through prime of educational activities (Black-Hawkins & Florian, 2012). Inclusive pedagogy considers learners with dyslexia as part of the classroom environment, because teachers individualized educational support of all learners in the classroom, including those with learning disability, such as dyslexic learners (Lani, 2015).

2.2.5.1 Similarity and Dissimilarity Between Inclusive Pedagogy and Human Right Model

The inclusive pedagogy model and Human Rights Model of disability are both models that enforce education of all learners in an inclusive classroom (Lani, 2015 & Degener, 2014). The Human Rights Model of disability enforces educational rights of all learners in inclusive classroom (Degener, 2016). However inclusive pedagogy model pays attention to learners by taking account of their specific needs and plans the lesson of each learner in an inclusive educational environment (Florian & Black-Hawkins, 2011).

2.2.6 Human Rights Model of Disability

This model of disability emphasizes the integral dignity of the human being; it is a replacement of the social and medical models of disability (Degener, 2014). It defies the presumption that disability can hinder the human rights capacity of a disabled person (Degener, 2017). It is more comprehensive compared to other models of disability, because it encompasses all sets of human rights of an individual with

disability, whether civil, political, economic, cultural and or social (Degener, 2016). For Peter (2007), the human rights model of disability forces educational rights of all learners through many international conventions and policies namely: human rights Charters, Conventions, Declarations and Statements such as Universal Declaration on Human Rights (United Nation, 1948), UNESCO convention against Discrimination in Education (UNESCO, 1960), The World Declaration on Education for All (UNESCO, 1990), the Salamanca Statement Framework (UNESCO, 1994), and the Incheon Declaration on Inclusive Education of Learners with Special Needs (UNESCO, 2015).

For the purpose of this study, I have applied the HRBAEA as the theoretical framework that endeavoured to answer the research questions of this study, because learners with dyslexia have the right to quality education, the right of access to education and respect for their human rights in education (Annan, 2005). In addition, this theoretical framework is effective, and helps educators to move from the social model to the human rights model of disability-centred inclusive education; it focuses on the autonomy of all learners, despite social, economic and political constraints, and assists parents and teachers to work simultaneously in order to ensure that all learners receive equivalent education in an inclusive classroom environment (Biamba, 2016). A learner with disability has the right to be educated in any chosen mainstream school. This is because it is a right of the child to be valued, while it is the responsibility of educators to make educational resources available in mainstream or ordinary schools. In this model of disability, learners with disability no longer constitute a problem; instead, education itself is a problem. This can be illustrated by means of the following figure.

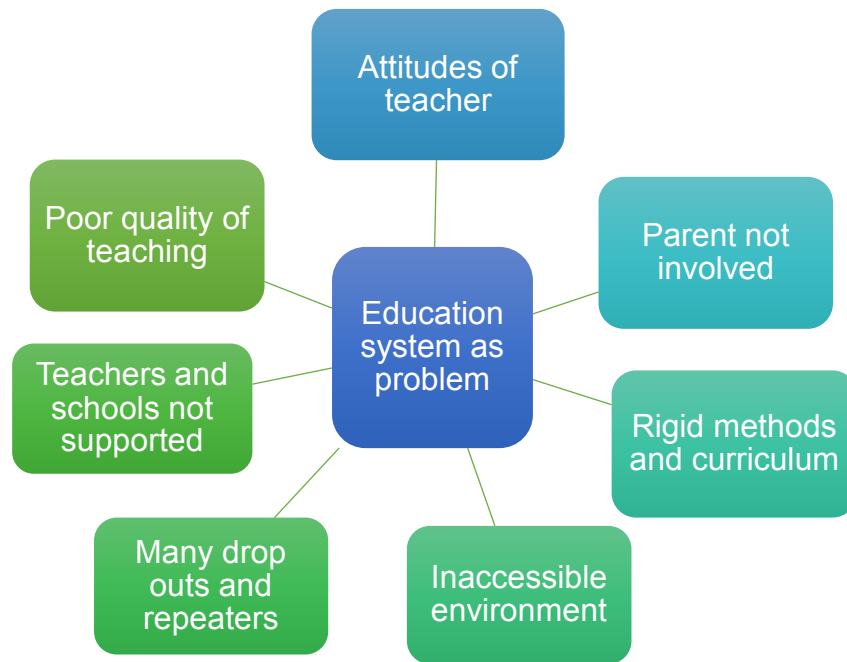


Figure 2.5: Human Rights Model (adopted from Rieser, 2014)

2.3 Human Rights Based Approach to Education for All

The said approach originated from the Universal Declaration of Human Rights signed on the 10th of December 1948 (Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR), 1948). The declaration was affirmed by the United Nations General Assembly, “as a standard achievement of all people and all nations, and to the end that every individual and every organ of society keeping this declaration constantly in mind shall strive by teaching and education to promote for these rights and freedoms [...]” (Patel, 2008).

Later, the HRBAEA was adopted into many treaties, as mentioned earlier. It emphasizes inclusive access to educational quality grounded on human rights standards and values (Human Rights Watch, 2016).

2.3.1 What is the Human Rights Based Approach to Education for All?

This is a framework for understanding the rights of individuals to education and their rights within education, irrespective of their social and economic status (Gordon, 2013). As noted, the right to education is considered equal to all human rights: it is universal and inalienable, is enshrined in international law and is adhered to by many states (De Beco, 2014).

Education is a human right that should not be considered in isolation from its greater context, but rather as an ongoing process that holds its own inherent value (Byrne, 2013). People have the right to receive quality education, the right to be equipped with knowledge and skills that ensure long-term recognition of a respect for all human rights (Patel, 2008). Education is a vehicle that enhances economic and social life of any given country, because it gives each individual, irrespective of social or economic standing, full access to education to raise him or herself out of poverty (Eren et al., 2017).

Therefore, a rights-based approach to education for all plays a significant role in disabling all the educational hindrances. Education policy should respect human rights in words, actions, and in classroom materials (Singh, 2010). A human right to education consists of all forms of learning that develop the knowledge, skills, and values of individual human rights in ways that would reinforce esteem for decisive freedoms; it also allows for the complete development of the human character and the strength of self-reverence, the advancement of gender equality, respect, racial, ethnic, and religious and linguistic attachment among countries, and for empowering individuals to participate efficaciously in a free culture (Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights (OHCHR), 2017). Rights to education comprise a life-long process by which individuals at all levels increase respect for the self-esteem of others and safeguard that respect in all societies (Singh, 2010).

2.3.2 Components of Human Rights Based Approach to Education for All

A conceptual framework for HRBAEA embodies three interlinked and dependent facets: (i) the right of access to education, (ii) the right to quality education, and (iii) the right to respect within the learning setting. Rights to education cannot truly be enforced unless these three facets are addressed (UNICEF & UNESCO, 2007). The right to education requires a pledge to guarantee universal access whilst employing all indispensable methods even for the most downgraded learners (Theis, 2004). For Urban (2003) and Tomaševski (2004), placing children in schools is not enough and does not guarantee an education system that empowers learners to attain their economic and social potential and to add value, knowledge, skills, and social responsibility to their lives.

To safeguard quality education, attention must be paid to the applicability of the curriculum, the role of teachers, and the nature and philosophy of the learning environment (UNESCO, 2001). A HRBAEA requires a commitment to identifying and valuing the human rights of learners while they are in school (UNESCO, 2000). A quality education cannot be attained without respecting learners' right to health and well-being (Wright, 2003). Learners cannot reach their full potential when they are exposed to humiliating reprimands or physical mistreatment (UNESCO, 2005). A HRBAEA emphasises the need for holistic strategies to education (Theis, 2004).

2.3.2.1 The right to access to education

The right of access to education is a universal and fundamental human right accepted in the past century (Marishane, 2017). It stems from international conventions and is protected by Article 26 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, Articles 13 and 14 of the International Covenant of Economic, Social and Culture Rights, Articles 28, 29, and 40 of the Convention on the Rights of the Child, Article 5 of the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women and Article 12 of the American Declaration on the Rights and Duties of Man (UNESCO, 2001; UNESCO, 2005; UNESCO, 2015).

Article 26 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights states:

Everyone has the right to education. Education shall be free, at least in the elementary and fundamental stage [...] Elementary education shall be compulsory [...] Technical and professional education shall be made generally available and higher education shall be equally accessible to all on the basis of merit. Education shall be directed to the full development of the human personality and to the strengthening of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms. It shall promote understanding, tolerance and friendship among all nations, racial or religious groups, and shall further the activities of the United Nations for the maintenance of peace. Parents have a prior right to choose the kind of education that shall be given to their children [...]” (Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR), 1948; UNESCO, 2002 & 2005).

The right to access to education is manifested in the HRBAEA, in which the key principles are the principles of non-discrimination, inclusion, equality, accountability,

and participation (UNESCO, 2005). The HRBAEA is underpinned by the view that all children, irrespective of their socio-economic backgrounds, are afforded quality education (Marishane, 2017). To reiterate: access to education is a right to which all human beings must be entitled, regardless of gender, colour, and socio-economic status (UNESCO, 2000). It is universal, inalienable, indivisible, independent, and interrelated (UNESCO, 2001; Tarc, 2013).

The right of access to education is inalienable; it can never be taken away from a learner at any time, merely because of his or her learning disabilities or barriers (UNFPA, 2005). An individual's right to education should enjoy equality with other rights (Tarc, 2013). Educational rights are inherent to the dignity of each person and cannot be positioned in a hierarchical order, or denied (UNFPA, 2005). Thus, the right to education cannot come about at the expense of other rights (UNFPA, 2005).

Such a right is interdependent and interrelated; it fulfils the social, economic, psychological, and spiritual needs of an individual (Shanahan, 2004). An individual who does not have quality education will be at a disadvantage in terms of his or her economic or social rights, because the lack of a good education blocks opportunities for better employment or promotion in the labour market (Tzouveli *et al.*, 2008; Kun & Mei, 2010). The right to education is equal and non-discriminatory: all learners are equal, and they should not suffer any educational discrimination because of the basis of their sexual orientation, opinion, colour, ethnicity, gender, age, geographical origin, social origin, and disability or special educational need (Kouros & Vainio, 2014).

The right of access to education is a facet of the framework of HRBAEA that comprises three elements: (i) the provision of education during all stages of life, and aid in meeting respective development goals; (ii) the provision of an adequate and reachable school premises and accessibility of learning prospects; (iii) equality of opportunity (Spaull & Taylor, 2014). This may result in a child receiving a quality early education and – in so doing – this helps the child develop a positive view of the schooling system and assures the best guarantee of endorsing sustainable social and economic development (Theis, 2004). Moreover, education should not cease at the age of 18; instead it should be the pursuit of a lifetime (UNICEF & UNESCO, 2007).

The government must provide support that is able to facilitate a strong foundation of autonomous and responsible lifelong learning which prepares learners of all ages to be responsible and valuable citizens (Tomaševski, 2004; Tomaševski, 2006). In addition, the government has obligations to create a legislative framework that offers adequate resources to satisfy the right to access to education for every learner (Spaull & Taylor, 2014). Each learner should therefore be provided with accessible learning opportunities, appropriately competent teachers, and adequate and appropriate equipment and resources (Urban, 2003). All learning settings should be economically and physically reachable for each learner, including the most marginalized, such as learners with SEN and those with dyslexia, in particular (UNICEF & UNESCO, 2007). The learning environments should be effective, respectful, and flexible and impart self-esteem, self-confidence and life skills to every learner (United States Agency for International Development (USAID, 2010).

2.3.2.2 The right to quality education

HRBAEA is a framework that promotes the right to quality education which safeguards respect for human rights and vital freedoms and prepares learners for a responsible life in a spirit of peace, equality, friendship and tolerance (Edeh, 2012). It promotes inclusive curricula that enable each learner to acquire the fundamental basic cognitive skills, essential life skills for life's challenges, and develop nonviolent conflict, good social relationships, and respect for human rights, different cultures and values within the learning environment (USAID, 2006). The HRBAEA requires a high degree of participation from stakeholders, including civil society, local communities, and learners with special needs, indigenous people, and women (Chapman, 2002). This would allow everyone to fulfil their potential in terms of cognitive, emotional and creative aptitudes (Lee, 2002). Quality education was recognized as a major factor of education for all by the Jomtien Declaration of 1990 and the Dakar Framework for Action in 2000. The instrumental roles of quality education are facilitating people to reach their individual socio-economic and cultural goals and assisting people to be protected and served in more equitable ways (Williams, 2000). Therefore, quality education should take place in an environment that promotes respect for learners, their cultural identities and their entitlement to exercise their right to education (Universal Declaration of Human Rights, 1948). Quality education should be tailored to the needs of each learner, no matter their circumstances, and all learning and teaching materials should be free from gender

stereotypes and negative representation of any indigenous groups in order to fulfil the educational potential of each learner (Lisievic, Ticsan, & Todor, 2013; UNICEF & UNESCO, 2007). Quality education encompasses healthy learners, healthy environments, and relevant curricula that reflect a learner-centred focus (Eze, 2009). A lack of such education is the main reason why many schools across the world are still plagued with high dropout rates, low rates of primary school completion, exclusively female ethnic minorities enrolments, even though those schools have reached reasonably high figures of enrolment (Sheldon, 2004).

Curriculum policy should identify different ways in which HRBAEA should be integrated, as well as include human rights issues and practice in material, and provide teacher training and support (Amnesty International, 2012a).

Therefore, schools and governments must pay special attention to learners who should be in school, but are not, and children who are unable to succeed in school (Zimba et al., 2007). This still occurs, even though many countries have pledged to follow the recommendations of the Convention of the Rights of the Child and their right to access to education (UNICEF, 2007). This leads to various cases where children are dispossessed of their right to education and, as a consequence, there over 140 million children in the world who are out of school, a majority being children with disabilities and girls (UNESCO, 2015). By applying the HRBAEA this situation could well be altered (UNICEF, 2007).

2.3.2.3 The right to respect in the learning environment

Respect for all learners is a vital aspect of HRBAEA, because human rights imply a respect for learners' identity (Mitchell, 2010). The learning environment should respect these rights with regards to both learners and educators (Gearon, 2003). This environment should empower learners by encouraging them to claim their educational right (Kouros & Vainio, 2014). Learning environments should respect each learner equally without any grounds for discrimination and should recognize that each learner has the right to expression, conscience, and religion (Davis, 2000). In addition, educational stakeholders should administer discipline that protects all learners, especially those with SEN, from any form of physical violence and abuse, including sexual abuse or maltreatment (UNICEF & UNESCO, 2007).

School environments should be human rights friendly settings that empower an overall atmosphere of quality, inclusion, dignity, non-discrimination, and full participation (Burridge & Chodkiewicz, 2012). The school environment should also make use of a fully democratic approach that governs all members of the school community in decision making and increase the sense of inclusion that fosters mutual responsibility, both locally and globally (Ang, 2010; Tibbits & Kirchsclaeger, 2010). A learning environment should be positive and consider the performance of learners along with their schoolwork (Clifford et al., 2012). A learning environment can mean the difference between a pass and a fail (Klem & Connell, 2004; Hardiman, 2016).

2.3.2.4 Human rights-based approach to education and inclusion

HRBAEA also aims to strengthen inclusive education programmes (Sandkul, 2005). Inclusivity is a basic right in education, embedded in numerous international human rights agreements as stated above (UNESCO, 2003; Sheldon, 2004). The central concept of inclusion is that all learners should have equal opportunities to develop their individual abilities and talents in the same learning environment (Katarina, 2004; Eren et al., 2017). It also implies equivalence, sustainability, effectiveness, and applicability in the same mainstream classroom, where each learner is valued and actively engaged in what is learnt and taught (Bowring, 2012). The provision of inclusive education is an obligation under international law that requires enhancing education systems to make them more amenable to the educational provisions of all learners (Eren et al., 2017). It is a method of strengthening the limit of the training agenda to connect with all pupils and can consequently be understood as a crucial technique for realising the concept of education as a human rights based approach, being inclusive of marginalised, neglected, and disabled children (Gordon, 2013).

An inclusive education system is one that operates in terms of equality, acceptance, non-discrimination, participation and transparency (Human Rights Commission of Malaysia, 2015). The pledge of inclusion became a legal obligation through Article 24 of the CRPD that enforces the provision of quality and free inclusion for all learners at primary and secondary school level (Burridge & Chodkiewicz, 2010). To conform to the established ideologies and principles signified in the Universal Human Rights instruments and to advance a rights-based approach to education, governments need

to apply these maxims to their school curricula and planning practices (UNESCO, 2005).

2.3.2.5 A human rights-based approach to inclusion of learners with disabilities

The convention on the Rights of the Child is a holistic human rights agreement that emphasizes the right to education for all children on the foundation of equality of education in terms of promoting the educational rights of any child without any form of discrimination on grounds of disability (Peters, 2004; Singal, 2014). Lindqvist (2002b), UN special reporter for persons with disabilities, added that: “All children and young people of the world, with their individual strengths and weaknesses, with their hopes and expectations, have the right to education. It is not our education systems that have a right to certain types of children. Therefore, it is the school system of a country that must be adjusted to meet the need of all children”.

Article 23 of the CRC reaffirms the right of children with disabilities to support and allows access to education in a way that endorses their social inclusion (Miles & Singal, 2010). In addition, the Committee on the Rights of the Child, commenting on children with disabilities, has further stressed that inclusion must be the goal of all forms of education for such children (Meijer & Watkins, 2016). It is an obligation of any government to ensure that the rights to education of the said children are adhered to: fulfilment of the rights to education, respect and protection (UNESCO, 2006). For Meijer and Watkins (2016), learners with disabilities are learners who are subjected to severe discrimination, stigma, and exclusion in many school settings.

Sadly, the right to access education for such people is often violated (Eren et al., 2017). This is coupled with the fact that most learners with disabilities – especially those with dyslexia – are seldom given enough attention (Booth & Ainscow, 2011; Braunsteiner & Lapidus, 2014). Most of the said learners remain unable to access primary education (Klem & Connell, 2004). In reaction to these failures of EFA, an increasing effort has been made to install inclusion as the primary strategy for encouraging HRBAEA for learners with disabilities (Lay & Hui, 2014).

Inclusion is intended to be a means to end segregation of learners with SEN (Miles & Singal, 2010; Ngcobo & Muthukrishna, 2011). Through inclusion, learners with disabilities can be afforded universal education access that respects and values their

diversity and promotes the principle of educational democracy, social justice, and equality in teaching and learning (Evans, 2008). Inclusion strengthens education agendas to ensure a wider understanding of the right to education; such policies employ human rights instruments that aim to extend the right to education to all learners including those with disabilities such as dyslexia (Lansdown, 2009).

As a result, learners with disabilities are now holders of rights to education rather than being a “problem to be solved” (Evans, 2008). Policy, legislation, and practice in relation to the right to inclusive education should be re-developed based on the HRBAEA, because this approach was built on seven basic principles of human rights: universality and inalienability, indivisibility, interdependence and interrelatedness of these rights, equality and non-discrimination against human beings, participation and inclusion of every person in civic, social political and economic expansion, empowerment of people to use their human rights and, finally, accountability and respect for the law of human rights (Ainscow, 2008; Booth & Ainscow, 2011).

2.4 Chapter Summary

This chapter presented the HRBAEA as the theoretical framework embedded in this study. The discussion commenced by exploring the different types of models of disability. Thereafter, a critical discussion of the HRBAEA was undertaken in detail. It emphasizes the right to an education system that includes all learners from all socio-economic backgrounds. Education embodies three main facets, namely the right to access to education, the right to quality education, and the right to respect in the learning environment. Right of access to education is a human right that every child with or without disability is born with. It is a universal and fundamental human right regardless of gender, race, culture, ethnic background, or where she/he lives. In addition, each individual has the right to quality education that safeguards his or her respect in order to strengthen his or her cognitive, emotional, and creative potential. An individual has the right to be respected in the learning environment without any grounds of discrimination. Furthermore, HRBAEA is essential to promoting inclusion of all learners in the same learning environment. Through such an approach the rights to education of learners with SEN in general, those with dyslexia in particular, are achieved in an inclusive classroom. The following chapter focuses on dyslexia and inclusion.

CHAPTER 3

DYSLEXIA AND INCLUSION

3.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a review of national and international literature to lay a foundation as well as give direction to the study (Webster & Watson, 2002). The chapter is divided into two sections, namely: dyslexia and inclusion of learners with dyslexia.

3.2 Dyslexia

This section consists of a conceptualization of dyslexia, dyslexia theories, dyslexia as an obstacle to education, major educational obstacles faced by learners with dyslexia and global prevalence of dyslexia.

3.2.1 Conceptualization of Dyslexia

Dyslexia does not have a single final definition, but many (Bell, 2010). According to the British Association (2007). Dyslexia derived from two Greek words, namely “*dys*”, which simply means “poor”, and “*lexis*” which denotes “languages”. Dyslexia is a definite language disability that is both neurological and genetic in origin (Bell, 2010). In the scientific literature, the discovery of dyslexia dates to roughly 1861-1865, to the work of Pierre Paul Broca, wherein he identified the cerebral region responsible for language function, the acquisition of language-based skills, and the production of speech (Franceschini et al., 2012; Seifert & Espin, 2012). Martin (1995) added that the term dyslexia refers to a learning disability (LD), it was first used by Dr. Samuel Kirk in 1962. The term LD narrates to a syndrome that lessens the skill to know and to absorb novel skills and to master difficult information (Søndenaa et al., 2008). The British Psychological Society (1999) defined dyslexia as a type of learning disability that links an obstinate difficulty with reading and spelling at word-level, regardless of suitable education opportunities.

The International Dyslexia Association (2017) added that dyslexia is a multifaceted difficulty that reduces the ability to understand, learn new skills, and master complex information.

Swanson and O'Connor (2009) described dyslexia as a neurologically-based processing difficulty that may delay the acquisition of elementary skills such as speaking, listening, reading, writing, arithmetic, chrono-literacy, abstract reasoning, and organization.

For Cole (2008) and Seifert and Espin (2012), dyslexia is a learning disability that is unrelated to emotional disorders, social class and income, race, ethnicity, linguistic group, or mental ability, but is a disorder that affects one or many basic psychological processes of a learner. The disorder presents itself as a dysfunction of listening, spelling, speaking, writing, calculation, and social ability (Alloway et al., 2005; Ndombo et al., 2013). For Alexander-Passe (2015) dyslexia is a disorder that manifest itself as a lacking ability to listen, speak, spell, listen, write and to process mathematical calculation, and occur in conjunction with emotional behavioural disorders and lack of social skill.

Dyslexia is a cognitive impairment that affects 80% of learners who are identified as having a learning disability (Levy, 2011). Learners with dyslexia are poor performers in reading, writing, and thinking, consequently, in the school environment, they are poor performers and often lack motivation (Katusic et al., 2001).

Dyslexia is not a disease; it is not linked to intelligence, and it is incurable; however, there may be a link between the variance between a normal and an above-normal result on an intelligence check and a low score on a reading check (Berninger et al., 2008; Jamieson & Morgan, 2008; Gabrielli, 2009). It is a disorder that affect one or more of the elementary psychological processes of an individual that comprise of using and understanding spoken or written language (Seifert & Espin, 2012). This disorder is characterized by an impairment of the phonological processing, reading, writing, thinking, working memory, automatic development skills, processing speed, rapid naming, emotional behavioural disorder and lack of social skills (Smith-Spark et al., 2003; Rose, 2009).

For the researcher, dyslexia is a neurological disorder that affects the reading and writing abilities of an individual despite economic, cultural or other issues. This impairment is unlinked to linguistic difficulty but stems from genetic factors.

3.2.2 Dyslexia Theories

Three leading theories of dyslexia emerged through a perusal of the literature, namely: the phonological theory, the magnocellular (visual and auditory) theory, and the cerebellar theory (Ramus, 2003).

3.2.2.1 Phonological Theory of Dyslexia

This theory hypothesises that learners with dyslexia have a specific scarcity in the presentation, storage, and retrieval of the speech sounds, and that the skill of attending to and employing linguistic sounds is essential for establishment and automation of the graphophonic relation core the skills of phonological coding and decoding (Landerl & Willburger, 2010; Ramus *et al.*, 2003).

According to Peterson and Pennington (2012), the phonological deficit presented by learners with dyslexia results from an unclear and despoiled phonological representation. If speech sounds are poorly represented, stored and retrieved, learning graphophonic relationship is conceded. Phonological theory of dyslexia assumes the specificity of phonological insufficiency. This theory discloses that learners with dyslexia show poor performance in tasks involving phonological awareness, segmentation, and manipulation of speech sounds (Ramus *et al.*, 2003). The poor phonemic awareness results in a deficit in the ability to learn the mapping between written letters (orthography) and their corresponding sounds (phonology) (Caylak, 2010). The theory also explains that the reading impairment of learners with dyslexia is related to a lack of an ability to read the alphabetical system and an ability to match a letter to the appropriate sound of speech (Boada & Pennington, 2006).

3.2.2.2 Allophonic Theory

Allophonic Theory (AT) is based on the suggestion that learners with dyslexia present a change on speech awareness (Noordenbos & Serniclaes, 2015). The phonemic representation is the ultimate artefact of a development practice that has two significant phases: the combination of universal allophonic faces into explicit phonological features of the language that transpires when a person is around one years old, and the amalgamation of phonological faces into phonemic fragment, which between 5 and 6 years old (Hoonhorst *et al.*, 2011).

According to AT, learners with dyslexia do not incorporate the allophonic faces into phonemic features during the speech awareness development. The failure to incorporate phonemic faces would not be tributary to the auditory perceptual scarcity and modification in phonological awareness (Bogliotti *et al.*, 2008).

According to Serniclaes, Heghe, Mousty, and Carre & Sprenger-Charolles (2004), the uncommon perception of speech is the direct cause of dyslexia, because the non-perception of phonemes explicitly disturbs the mapping between graphemes and phonemes. Allophonic perception is the cause of the modification in the phonological awareness because it affects the uniformity of the mental representation of the phonemes (Serniclaes, 2006). The scarcity of short-term phonological memory is triggered by the demand for higher memory load when a learner processes the speech sounds coded as allophones rather than as phoneme (Hoonhorst *et al.*, 2011).

3.2.2.3 Auditory Deficit Theory

According to the Auditory Deficit Theory, auditory deficit is caused by a malfunction occurring during the phonological scarcity development phase. In this theory, therefore, the phonological deficit is considered to be a secondary deficit (Goswami, 2015). Since speech is an acoustic signal, modification in auditory temporal processing may make it difficult to process small elements such as the consonant that are dependent on by profligate formant changes (Banai & Kraus, 2007). Changes in the perception of short sounds and fast transitions of auditory stimuli lead to significant problems in speech awareness, with negative effects on the construction of mental depictions of the speech stimuli. The discernment of phonemes for which the contrasting signs are auditory damage (Serniclaes *et al.*, 2001). The reading barrier experienced by learners with dyslexia implies that there is an insufficiency in terms of the linguistic scheme, more specifically a deficit in the phonological processing skill (Peterson and Pennington, 2012). This is because, learning reading and writing demands high levels of phonological acquaintance, and it entails the suitable depiction of the slightest sound features of the language (phoneme) (Shinn, 2003). Virtuous skill of reflecting on these elements, and awareness that such sounds may be epitomised by dissimilar graphemes. The auditory experience is the distinctive sensorial route that consents kids to obtain the phonological pictures prerequisite to acquire the skill of the grapheme decoding (Morais, 2009).

Learning to read requires one to combine an auditory phonemic constituent with a graphic visual constituent. A struggle in handling the auditory phonemic constituent may be due to early sound stimulation that, in the occurrence of auditory awareness change, is not linked to deficiency of the significant stimuli in the milieu, but to the inability and struggle of handling the stimuli presented (Banai & Kraus, 2007). As such, one can accept that the dearth presented by learners with dyslexia may not be detailed to the phonological processing but to a perceptual auditory insufficiency (Bogliotti *et al.*, 2008).

3.2.2.4 Magnocellular Theory

The magnocellular theory posits a visual and auditory impairment that gives rise to difficulties with the processing of letters and words on a specific page of text. This theory emphasizes a visual contribution to reading problems in some learners with dyslexia but does not exclude a phonological deficit (Friedmann *et al.*, 2010). The theory suggests that magnocellular pathways are selectively disordered in certain dyslexic people, leading to a lack of visual processing, and, through the posterior parietal cortex, to abnormal binocular control and visuospatial attention (Ramus *et al.*, 2003). Learners with the magnocellular deficit often complain that small letters seem to shift and move while they are trying to read (Stein, 2001).

3.2.2.5 Cerebellar Theory

The cerebellar theory assumes that the cerebellum of dyslexic people is mildly dysfunctional, which could cause several cognitive problems such as deficient phonological representation (Ramus, 2003). This is because the cerebellum is central for acquisition of language adroitness, and those with cerebellar injuries show shortages in attention and working memory; this plays a role in the automatization of overlearned tasks, namely: reading, typing, and driving (Nicolson & Fawcett, 2011). An underdeveloped aptitude for automatization would disrupt the learning of grapheme-phoneme correspondence (Ramus *et al.*, 2003).

3.2.3 Dyslexia as an Obstacle to Education

Dyslexia becomes an obstacle to learning, because learners with dyslexia are known as learners with impairment with reading, writing, phonological processing, poor

handwriting and inadequate knowledge in editing and organizing texts (Valdois, et al., 2011). learners with dyslexia are often characterised with low efficiency, problems with phonological processing, reading, writing and naming, poor handwriting, poor spelling skills, poor planning and inadequate skills in organising and editing texts (Salend, 2000; Troia & Graham, 2002; Ysseldyke et al., 2000). For Fawcett (2004), the dyslexic learners obstacles to education relating to: (i) memorizing printed words; (ii) number reversals (6 for 9; 12 for 21); (iii) letter reversals (b for d, p for q); (iv) change in the order of letters in a word (tar for rat, quite for quiet); (v) omission of letters; (vi) misperception of the sounds of vowels; (vii) swapping of one consonant for another; (viii) obstinate spelling mistakes; (ix) writing difficulties; (x) difficulties with time (before and after; yesterday and tomorrow); (xi) difficulties with direction (up and down); (xii) speech deferment; (xiii) insufficient speech; and (xiv) deficiency of phonological skills such as breaking up a word into syllables, onset-rime and phonemes (Fawcett, 2004). All these skills are interconnected, and as a consequence, students who display barriers with one element of the above skills will frequently exhibit obstacle to his or her educational life (Ndombo et al., 2013). This because lack of real literacy skills can not only disturb the ability of learners to progress effectually in his or her educational life in primary, secondary and higher education schools, but also this can block a learner with dyslexia to obtain better employment in the labour market (Tzouvelli et al., 2005), because the skill to write and read has become an important phase in job pursuing, spreading a career and getting promotions (Kun & Mei, 2010). This because competency in writing and reading skills is the most important quality to gain a favourable promotion and further one's career (Kun & Mei, 2010; Tzouvelli et al., 2005).

3.2.3.1 Major educational obstacles faced by learners with dyslexia

Learners with dyslexia face many educational barriers that hinder their capability to learn and to shine in their educational life. The most major obstacles that obstruct their advancement in education are phonological awareness, reading and writing (Troia & Graham, 2002).

3.2.3.1.1 Obstacle to phonological awareness

In current years, numerous researchers have revealed that success with reading and writing is linked to phonological awareness (PA). The PA is known as part of the spoken language that relates to the ability to reflect the sounds in a word and their

connotations. The PA consists of words, syllables, onset-rime and phonemes (sounds) (Ramus et al., 2003). It is known as an important metalinguistic skill in the process of language acquisition (Gillon, 2004). A learner with well-advanced PA has the ability to know how to sound letters, because PA assists a child to judge, discern and even to know the words that belong to its mother tongue (Moats, 2000; Dal, 2008). PA is divided into word awareness (WA), syllable awareness (SA), onset-rime awareness (ORA), and phoneme awareness (PA) (Jones et al., 2010). Numerous studies have indicated that learners with dyslexia in particular do not have PA skills, which is the reason why most of them encounter obstacles in reading and writing (Crombie & McColl, 2001; Magnan & Ecalle, 2006).

3.2.3.1.2 Obstacles to reading

Most children with dyslexia found reading a difficult and punishable task (Vidyasagar & Pammer, 2010). However, as reported by Kun and Mei (2010), mentioned above, the ability to read is the most significant skill (Tzouveli et al., 2008), because reading is an opportunity that develops the tools of neural apparatuses, indispensable for the diversity of motor abilities, reasoning and progression in life (Taroyan & Nicolson, 2009). Reading entails identification and consortium of letters, their subsequent conversion to sounds, which are then combined to deliver complete elocution and eventually its semantics (Vidyasagar & Pammer, 2010).

The ability to read is related to the theory of the right brain and the left brain (Pugh et al., 2001). The theory of hemispheres suggests that for most people who are right-handed, the left hemisphere will be strong in reading and spelling. Therefore, an individual with a left hemispherectomy would have serious deficiencies in reading skills, and would normally develop dyslexia (Pugh et al., 2001). Many learners with reading developmental dyslexia exhibit a dysfunction of phonological processing (Lyon, Shaywitz & Shaywitz, 2003). However, Savill and Thierry (2011) added that an individual with poor short-term memory will experience an obstacle to reading, because such a memory is a predictor of poor reading prediction (Grigorenko, 2001; Grigorenko, 2006). In addition, for learners with dyslexia, because of their poor performance in reading, this inability to read will create poor visual and orthographic skills in coding (Vidyasagar & Pammer, 2009). The reading ability of a learner with dyslexia may be more reasonably connected to ineffectual monitoring than to scarce detection (Savill &

Thierry, 2011). Often, reading deficiency is linked to writing deficiency (Baker & Irland, 2007). An individual with a reading problem may also have a writing difficulty, because we write what we read (Svensson, 2011). In the learning process, it is found that learners with reading impairment always fail to satisfy in their yearly reading curriculum, which limits their opportunities to obtain higher pay in the market place (Mastropieri et al., 2003). Learners with dyslexia which presents obstacles to reading are classified as learners with development dyslexia (Ramus et al., 2003; Demonet, Taylor & Chaix, 2004).

Development dyslexia is the most common neurobehavioral impairment that affects 5% to 10% of the learning abilities of children across countries (Hommet et al., 2009). Learners with development dyslexia are labelled as learners having serious impairment in reading and spelling and are often resistant to the usual didactic and tutoring approaches (Vandermosten et al., 2011); these learners are classified and grouped into various reading descriptions: reading disorder dyslexia, letter position dyslexia, surface dyslexia and mixed dyslexia (British Dyslexia Association, 2007; Bjorklund, 2011).

- **Reading disorder dyslexia**

Reading disorder dyslexia (RDD) is regarded as a difficulty in reading fluently and accurately; it affects 5% to 17% of people around the world (Shaywitz & Shaywitz, 2005). RDD is a common childhood disorder characterized by developmentally inappropriate errors in speech production that greatly reduce intelligibility. RDD has been found to be associated with later reading disability. Numerous studies assert that phonological awareness is the real cause of RDD in many people (Torgesen et al., 2003). Learners with this form of dyslexia often have poor speech-sound representations yet are forced to learn the grapheme-phoneme correspondence system in order to read an alphabetic system (Ramus *et al*, 2003). RDD is also called “articulation disorder” and, more recently, “phonological disorder” (Knopik *et al*, 2002). A large majority of children with RDD have deficit in printed word recognition and problem with phonological processing (Smith, Pennington, Boada & Shriberg, 2005).

- **Letter position dyslexia**

Letter position dyslexia (LPD) is a minor dyslexia characterised by errors in letter order within words. Individuals with developmental LPD have a scarcity in the letter position

encoding function of the orthographic visual analyser, which leads to under specification of letter position within words (Friedman, Dotan & Rahamim, 2010). LPD errors occur mostly when there are contiguous middle letters, causing the reader to perceive another word entirely (Friedmann & Rahamim, 2007). LPD affects the visual analysis system of the brain, which disrupts the skill to comprehend the relative position of letters in a word (Friedman, Dotan & Rahamim, 2010). For example, instead of reading “dairy” they may read “diary”, “trail” as “trial”, or “form” as “from”, etc. (Friedmann & Rahamim, 2007). Individuals with developmental LPD have an enormous number of letter relocation errors in reading words, but do not have a deficiency in reading numbers (Byrne et al, 2007).

- **Neglect dyslexia**

Neglect dyslexia (ND) is a reading disorder often called “Visual error” dyslexia. This type of dyslexia is generally the result of traumatic brain damage (Vallar *et al*, 2010). Visual errors have been operationally demarcated as having 50% of letters with targets and having some impression of correct order. This visual error dyslexia is an impairment in a component of the language system (Berndt, Haendiges & Mitchum, 2005). This form is also grouped into two categories namely: right neglect dyslexia and left neglect dyslexia. Learners impaired with left-neglect dyslexia regularly omit, add, and substitute original letters of words while learners affected with right neglect dyslexia make letter errors at the end of the word (Friedmann, Gross & Gvion, 2011). A person with left neglect dyslexia shows improved reading of words presented vertically or spelled aloud. A person with right neglect dyslexia, on the other hand, has consistent difficulty with oral spelling and words ends across orientation manipulation (Berndt, Haendiges & Mitchum, 2005).

- **Surface dyslexia**

Surface dyslexia (SD) is a deficiency of the lexical route and results in inaccuracies in phonating exception or irregular words. The letters of words with irregular pronunciation do not follow the most common letter sound shape (Karanth, 2003). An individual with surface dyslexia reads frequently signified words as well as pseudo words: a mixture of letters which are words but follow the phonological shapes of the language and consequently sound like words with accuracy (McCandliss, Cohen & Dehaene, 2003).

SD is a broad label for a disorder of reading in which there is an anomalous reliance on sub-word level conversion from orthography to phonology, which could be a result of inadequate functioning of the word-level process. An individual with SD generally has left hemisphere lesions as a result of damage to the lexical-semantic route (Karanth, 2003). He/she may pronounce an exception word such as “One” as “Own”, “Through” as “Tough”. However, an individual with SD does not have difficulties in pronouncing regular words, as these words conform to the letter-sound rules in the sub-lexical system (Cummine *et al*, 2009).

- **Mixed dyslexia**

Mixed dyslexia (MD) is a particular learning disability characterized by a sudden barrier to the development of reading skills in children who have at least normal intelligence, who do not have overall learning difficulties, and whose reading difficulties are not due to superfluous factors that might delay reading-skill acquisition, such as sensory perception scarcities, severe emotional difficulties, developed brain damage or poor educational opportunity (Zoubrinetzky, Bielle & Valdois, 2014). MD children presents as indicators of surface dyslexia and subtypes of phonological dyslexia in which the sufferer experiences problems with reading sub-words and whole words (Castles *et al*, 2009). Such children often present picture-reading problems incorporating distinctive of both phonological and surface dyslexia subtypes (Valdois *et al*, 2011). Many children with mixed dyslexia have deficits in lexical and sub-lexical processing routes. Such children require skills to recognize a sound of full word (Brunsdon, Hannan, Coltheart & Nickels, 2002).

3.2.3.1.3 Obstacles to writing

Learners with dyslexia are labelled as learners with higher impairment and anxiety in writing. Most of them are incapable of constructing a good written composition and their writing skills are far below their peers without dyslexia (Bjorklund, 2011). As intimated, writing skills are measured as a key to predicting the academic success of an individual and are an ultimate requirement in competing in global economic and civic welfare (Graham & Perin, 2007). A person’s writing skill is a multifarious method, which encompasses numerous brain tasks and a mixture of physical and intellectual procedures, and the synchronisation of various linguistic talents, which are not restricted only to semantics, spelling and writing determination (Cynthia, Linda & Lori,

2006). Unfortunately, most of the young learners with and without dyslexia through the globe are struggling to meet the criteria mandatory in terms of writing skills in their classroom settings (Kun & Mei, 2010). Most learners who lack an aptitude to write have merely been classified as learners with learning disabilities (Graham & Perin, 2007).

Writing is connected to PA and reading; thus a child who does not know how to distinguish the sound of a spoken word or letter and how to read will certainly not be proficient in writing (Jones et al., 2010). This is because before one can write, he /she must understand the sound of letters, read those sounds, compose the word and pronounce it properly (Desroches et al., 2010). Unfortunately, the writing skills of learners with dyslexia are much below the basic level required by schools or employers (Biancarosa, 2006). The writing skills of learners with dyslexia are labelled as characterized by plenty mistakes with shorter phrases. A previous study has reported that the poor writing skills of learners with dyslexia are connected to a dearth of enthusiasm and incapability to structure and to frame a worthy piece of writing that comprises all the sub-methods of writing (Graham & Harris, 2003). For Gracia and Fidalgo (2008), teachers in mainstream classrooms should motivate learners with dyslexia in order to develop their writing skills, because motivation is also known as an indispensable key of writing.

3.2.4 Prevalence of Dyslexia

Worldwide estimates of the prevalence of dyslexia vary from around 10% to 17.5%, meaning more than 1.3 billion people are dyslexic (Chan *et al*, 2013).

3.2.4.1 Prevalence of dyslexia in Western schools and countries

Dyslexia has been comprehensively studied in developed countries; there are wide and different worldwide estimates of the prevalence of dyslexia. For example, the prevalence range of dyslexia in school-aged children in the USA is between 5% to 17% (Shaywitz & Shaywitz, 2003). In the United Kingdom (UK), the prevalence ranges between 3% to 6% (Miles, 2004). In the UK, the overall prevalence of learners displaying learning disabilities is around 20%, but of this figure, 80% of learners are detected as having dyslexia (Djan & Begum, 2008). In Australia, the prevalence of dyslexia is around 10%, but the most common disabilities among school-aged children are intellectual, learning, sensory, speech, psychiatric, and physical disabilities (Walsh,

2015). In Italy, the prevalence of dyslexia ranged between 3.1% to 3.2% (Barbiero et al., 2012). In Greece, Nevertheless, the study carried out by Vlachos *et al* (2013) on prevalence and gender ratios of dyslexia in Greek adolescents, reveals that, of the sample, 7.6% male and 3.8% female were found to be dyslexic, implying that – in Greece at least – dyslexia is twice as prevalent amongst men than women. In Scandinavian countries, dyslexia amongst learners is 15% (Shaywitz, 2003), while in German, the prevalence of dyslexia is around 7%. In India, the prevalence of dyslexia is fast growing; it is reported that the prevalence of dyslexia in primary schools of India is around 11.2% (Mogasale et al., 2012). In Malaysia, the prevalence of learners with dyslexia attending schools is around 5% (New Straits Time, 2009). The data from the Malaysian ministry of education report that children with dyslexia constitute around one in every 20 children (Gomez, 2004; Subramaniam, Mallan & Mat, 2013). In China, the prevalence of dyslexia is around 3,9%, the prevalence ratios in boys than girls (Sun et al., 2013). The prevalence of dyslexia narrowly matches that of countries that use alphabetic languages (Zhou et al., 2014). Nevertheless, the findings of research carried out by Ho *et al.*, (2003) on 147 Chinese primary school children revealed that the majority of Chinese dyslexic children have rapid naming and orthographic insufficiencies, and a small proportion have phonological impairments and orthographic related problems. This may be the root of the difficulty in Chinese development dyslexia. The findings of another study show that most Chinese children have severe dyslexia with regards to rapid automatized naming deficit (Zhou *et al.*, 2014).

3.2.4.2 Prevalence of dyslexia in African schools

There is little data on the prevalence of dyslexia in most African countries; however, it is believed that around 8% of learners suffer from it (Jackson & Abosi, 2006). In Egypt, a study conducted in the 2nd and 3rd in grades in elementary school reported that the prevalence of dyslexia in Egypt is around 1%, because their education is conducted in Arabic (Waijuihian & Naidoo, 2011). In Botswana, dyslexia was equally uncommon. The only terms for disability that were introduced and focused on by many church organizations, missionaries, and non-governmental bodies were physical impairment, visual impairment, and hearing impairment (Kisanji, 1994). Those organizations provided educational support for learners with these disabilities. Be that as it may, a rough estimation of the percentage of learners with dyslexia is about 20%. These

learners are merely described as slow learners and experience problems in the classroom environment (Abosi, 2007).

In Kenya, a study by MOEST (2003) revealed that learners with learning disability (dyslexia) have high rates of difficulty with reading, writing English and mathematics. The same study showed that 63% of these learners are failing in both English and mathematics. In English, most of them display common errors such as difficulty in copying perfectly, word and letter reversals, omission of some letters and words, poor handwriting, spacing of letters, poor visual motor coordination, grammatical mistakes, poor organizational skills, and slowness in finishing work. With regard to arithmetic, learners with learning disabilities failed to carry out basic mathematics operations, such as addition, multiplication, division, and subtraction (UNESCO, 2006). Kumar (2015) in her study conducted on class 2 and 3 in primary schools of Nairobi in Kenya with a sample size of 120 children found that 7,49% out of 120 children were dyslexic. The findings also indicated that children whose parents are dyslexic had a chance of also being dyslexic. In addition, the Kenya National Examinations Council (2009) indicated that the English skills of boys with learning disabilities was considered much poorer than girls with the same disabilities. However, the total prevalence of dyslexia was reported to be around 10% (Smythe, Everatt & Salter, 2003).

In Nigeria, dyslexia was championed and researched by a medical doctor, Dr Olusanya Bolutife, in 1992, who went to the UK to seek help from the British Dyslexia Association for her 7-year-old daughter who was dyslexic (Agunloye, 2011). In December of 1995, Dr Olusanya Bolutife created an organization, "Nigeria Dyslexia Association", as she realised that there was a dire need for such assistance in her country (Akhidenor, 2007). A pilot study was conducted on the occurrence of dyslexia in a Nigerian school using Slingerland screening, which revealed that 11% of participants were dyslexic. Another study was conducted with 359 learners in eight schools in Nigeria. This concluded that 43% of the target population were dyslexic (Salter & Smythe, 1997).

In South Africa, a pilot study conducted by Kokot (2006) revealed that 50% of Grade 3 learners in 11 schools in the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality had been identified as being dyslexic. They faced challenges in the following areas: concentration, slow pace of work, reading, writing, comprehension, mathematics, auditory perception, visual perception, behaviour, and social interaction.

In Tanzania, a study conducted by Kalanje (2011) on primary schools showed that out of 42,033 participant learners, 22,800 (54.24%) were dyslexic, and were thus incapable of reading or writing English or their mother tongues. The failure to read and write has been reported to be related to the lack of appropriate pedagogical methods that could improve their learning style (Kalanje, 2002; Malekela, 2003; Kalanje, 2011).

In Zimbabwe, remedial schools for learners with learning disabilities in general and dyslexia in particular were available before independence, but placement in those schools was only available for white, Asian and coloured learners, not for children of black communities (Mpofu et al., 2006). In 1982 after the independence of the country, the term “learning disability” started receiving attention from the black community. The task of addressing this issue was left to the psychological services and special needs education systems in the country. The issue of learning disabilities in Zimbabwe was taken into action when 9% to 10% of seventh grade learners started failing mathematics and English exams. In Zimbabwe the total rate of learners with learning disability in general and dyslexia in particular is around 20% of the entire population, but children with disabilities number around 600,000 (Chakuchichi, 2013).

In Uganda, according to the 2002 census, 5 million people out of a population of 30 million are considered as presenting physical and learning disabilities, meaning that 4 out of every 25 people have some form of disability (International Labour Organization, 2009). However, the rate of children with learning disabilities is around 13%, approximately 2,5% million (Government of Uganda, 2010). In Malawi, studies have indicated that almost 11,5% of learners are dyslexic (Loeb & Eide, 2004; Malawi SNDP, 2010).

In the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC), formerly Zaire, there are few statistical records of the prevalence of learning disabilities, such as dyslexia. The term dyslexia is for the most part, least known in the DRC, even amongst educated people, but many schools identified learners with dyslexia (Mena, 2018). Despite the lack of data in this country, the World Report on Disability reports global prevalence rates of disability to be between 10 and 15% of the population (World Health Organization (WHO), 2011).

It is evident that dyslexia is a worldwide concern; this category of learning disability touches children from developed and undeveloped countries (Grigorenko, 2001) as

can be seen from the table below (Table 3.1). In this table, it is shown that the prevalence of dyslexia in the school environment is higher in African countries where the English and French languages are spoken (Congo: 10-15%; Malawi: 11.5%, Nigeria: 11%, Uganda 13%, Zimbabwe: 20%, Botswana: 20%, South Africa: 50%, Tanzania: 54.24%) than in western countries and Asian ones. In Africa, Egypt is a country where the prevalence of dyslexia is very low; around 1%, because it is an Arabic speaking country. Most Arabic speaking countries do not use the alphabetical letter system, consequently making it harder to detect among those children (Mortimore and Crozier, 2006). From this survey, it can be reported that English countries or countries which use 26 letters of the alphabet have a higher prevalence of dyslexia compared to countries where 26 letters of the alphabet are not used, such as Egypt, Malaysia and China. This survey reflected in below table 3.1 should raise alarm, showing to the world that dyslexia should be a global concern and that its prevalence is high. This should be a concern especially for impoverished countries of a continent such as Africa. The following table is the researcher's deduction based on the findings of the above studies on the prevalence of dyslexia in some western countries and some African countries.

Table 3.1: Global Prevalence of Dyslexia in Schools

Country	Prevalence %	School Language
United States of America	5-17	English
UK	3-6	English
Australia	10	English
Italy	3.1-3.2	Italian
Greece	11.4	Greek
Scandinavia	15	Danish, Norwegian and Swedish
India	11.2	English
China	3.9	Chinese
Malaysia	5	Malay
Nigeria	11	English
Egypt	1	Arabic
Botswana	20	English
Tanzania	54.4	English
Zimbabwe	20	English
Uganda	13	English
Malawi	11.5	English
South Africa	50	English
Democratic Republic of Congo	10-15	French

Source: Own 2019

3.3. Inclusion of Learners with Dyslexia

The purpose of this section is to discuss the education of learners with dyslexia and their inclusion in mainstream classroom settings. This section covers dyslexia and teaching approaches, inclusive education as a global agenda, international conventions on inclusion of learners with disabilities, international perspectives on inclusion and inclusion of learners with dyslexia.

3.3.1 Teaching Strategies on Inclusion of Learners with Dyslexia

To recapitulate: dyslexia first becomes visible when a child enters the education system. It surfaces during the first few years of school when fluent reading and writing

must be learnt (Glazzard, 2011). The phonological dearth hypothesis of dyslexia regulates the current day emphasis on phonics affecting the crucial extent of problems experienced by learners with dyslexia (Reid, 2011). Phonological teaching, conversely, needs to be supplemented by the development of understanding and presented within a gorgeous language setting. Verbal memory and processing problems, classically allied with dyslexia, as well as other habitually co-occurring disorders necessitate the embracing of a sum of supplementary tactics for the teaching of reading to learners with dyslexia (Rose, 2009).

In the education environment, their teachers and peers consider learners with dyslexia as obstinate, lazy, and slow to grasp learning activities (Alexander-Passe, 2007). This has resulted in them being subject to mockery from both teachers and peers (Glazzard, 2011). This is because many teachers do not understand that dyslexic learners require a different teaching approach that fits the educational needs of each one of them (Tannahill, 2009). Therefore, in the classroom settings, teachers should deploy teaching approaches that suit the needs of each one of such students, because their learning style is different (Mortimore & Crozier, 2007).

The teaching approaches for learners with dyslexia are classified into three groups: the auditory learners' approach, the tactile learners' approach, and the visual learners' approach (Scotwest, 2012). The **auditory learners' approach** could ease the learning barriers of learners who acquire knowledge or skills most effectively by listening or hearing (Tannahill, 2009). These learners are very good at oral information activities. They work very well while they are listening to music (Mortimore, 2008). The **tactile learners' approach** may help those who learn most effectively through touch and physical interaction (Scotwest, 2012). Actual learning here takes place when lessons are combined with physical objects, and graph or lined paper (Tannahill, 2009). The **visual learners' approach** aids those who acquire knowledge visually or by interacting with multimedia materials such as games or images. To assist reading ability, certain parts of text should be highlighted before the learner reads them. Often visual learners are labelled "pictures and print learners" (Mortimore, 2007; Scotwest, 2012).

There are some additional teaching strategies recommended for learners with dyslexia, namely the multisensory approaches are known as major component

dyslexia-friendly teaching (Reid, 2011). These approaches are combined with the auditory, visual, oral, and kinesthetic-tactile sensory modalities and they enhance memory and facilitate automaticity of learners with dyslexia (Walker, 2000). Troeva (2015) identified the following teaching strategies that can strengthen learners with dyslexia in inclusive mainstream classrooms:

3.3.1.1 Phonics

Phonics refers to a teaching approach that assists learners with dyslexia to develop their phonemic awareness and knowledge on grapheme-phoneme correspondences and spelling patterns. In an inclusive classroom, learners with dyslexia should receive an additional phonic class's intervention to improve their phonological awareness skills (Brooks, 2007). This teaching strategy helps learners with dyslexia to improve their skill of blending phonemes and segmenting words into their constituent phonemes (Rose, 2009).

3.3.1.2 The time factor

The time factor is a slower word processing technique. Here the teacher aims to slow down decoding and hinder comprehension in terms of correctness and speed. Teachers may use it in the classroom to assist learners with dyslexia when they need more time to reread a text. This technique produces a better quality and quantity of work (Massey, 2008).

3.3.1.3 System instruction

System instruction is a slower word processing teaching system that slows down decoding and hinders comprehension in terms of correctness and speed. This system endeavours to aid learners with dyslexia to reread a text (Reid & Green, 2007). In an inclusive classroom, teachers should pace the delivery of the lessons, repeat instructions, allow extra time and give breaks for learners with and without dyslexia to process and retain the new information (Massey, 2008).

3.3.1.4 Multisensory approaches

Multisensory approaches refer to a teaching strategy often used in inclusive classrooms. This approach consists of multiples visual teaching aids and modalities that aim to reinforce new information for learners with dyslexia. This approach is a support memory consist of chart, diagrams, mind-maps, spider-grams, and video recordings (Farrell, 2006). In inclusive classrooms, teachers are requested to use them in order to enhance skills of learners with dyslexia in relation to their lateral thinking and creativity (Reid & Green, 2007). This because learners with dyslexia often have poor auditory memory, therefore any new teaching material should incorporate a visual form and instruction that will enhance their reading and writing skills (Massey, 2008).

3.3.1.5 Boosting learners' self-confidence

Boosting learners' self-confidence is an approach that teachers use in inclusive classrooms to improve self-confidence of learners with dyslexia by involving them in activities that do not require a significant amount of reading, such as: quizzes, videoing, fieldwork, oral presentation, comic strips, drawing pictures, computer work, posters, oral presentations, songs, poems, and learning in pairs. This is effective because learners with dyslexia are often imaginative, good lateral thinkers, curious, skilful technology and design, sport, drama and often able to bring together the missing pieces of a bigger picture that can construct the whole (Massey, 2008).

3.3.1.6 The classroom environment

The classroom environment refers to an inclusive strategy that gives learners with dyslexia opportunities to express their preferred environment which they feel most comfortable to work in inclusive classroom. Usually, learners with dyslexia learn more effectively if they sit at the front, next to a well-motivated study buddy with reduced background noise (Kelly & Philips, 2013). This classroom management system helps them to improve their memory deficits (Reid & Green, 2007).

In addition, Davis *et al* (2004) indicated that effective teaching in inclusive classrooms involve the following teaching strategies and approaches:

- **Directly raising attainment**

Directly raising attainment denotes a set of teaching strategies that use task analysis with access strategies directly relating to attainment such teaching relevant ICT skills to overcome literacy difficulties and allow entry into learning across the curriculum (Brett, 2003).

- **Promoting active learning**

Promoting active learning refers to a strategy which tries to incorporate several approaches to promote appropriate learning that develop thinking skills, metacognition, reflection, language development, observational skills and self-assessment (Davis & Hopwood, 2002).

- **Promoting participation and engagement**

Promoting participation and engagement facilitates collaborative learning and peer tutoring that engages real-life problem solving, developing social skill, teamwork and establishing supportive whole schools ethos such as seeking out and valuing opinion of other and forging community links (Dockrell, Peacey & Lunt, 2002).

- **Responding to personalised learning styles and preferences**

This teaching strategy is for the visual, auditory, and kinaesthetic styles of learning. It allows learners with dyslexia to obtain individualised support as required. It is also consistent with new understandings of teaching diverse group of learners (Evans *et al*, 2003).

However, Sutton and Shields (2016) point out that it is vital that teachers be proficient in the process of discovering learners that are facing reading problems and teaching styles that need to be smeared to alleviate these difficulties. Teachers in inclusive classrooms need to have an in-depth knowledge of the basic acuties of language and be able to sway this knowledge in a multisensory structures and explicit program that is definitely linked with learner reading achievement (Washburn & Mulcahy, 2014).

Currently, many teachers are unprepared to detect language problems and are not trained in important strategies and assets to effectively engage with these learning approaches (Long, MacBlain & MacBlain, 2007). It is vital that mainstream schools ensure that teachers are effectively prepared and suitable assets are accessible to satisfy for learner with dyslexia (Washburn & Mulcahy, 2014). As part of this process a whole-school approach needs to be adopted and implement the following teaching strategies and approaches:

- **Explicit direct instruction in phonological and phonemic skills**

Teachers should provide efficient, explicit, and direct phonics instruction so that learner master the crucial alphabetic code-breaking talents. Therefore, to increase the efficacy of the instruction, a multisensory instructional methodology needs to be embraced that contains visual, auditory and kinaesthetic strategies (Hammond, 2010). The kind of instruction also needs to contain the oral language, phonological awareness, and comprehension strategies (Konza, 2010).

These teaching approaches are appropriate for the early years of school when learners are still learning to read. Schools need to ensure that their reading programs include explicit phonemic and phonological skills. Schools can utilise programs such as “**letter and sounds**”, “**the Reading Doctor**”, “**Cracking the ABC Code**” and “**Jolly Phonics**” to provide the compulsory explicit phonics instruction to empower learners to improve segmenting, phoneme blending and letter-sound correspondence (Department for children, School & Families, 2008).

For older learners, intervention in phonological in phonological awareness can be applied using **MultiLiT** (Wheldall *et al*, 2015), where learners necessitate supplementary instruction with sight words, vocabulary development, reading knowledge, and various practice prospects to improve reading fluency. This is because learners with dyslexia require extensive practice sessions to improve the overlearning of skills required to develop automaticity that leads to reading fluency (Sutton & Shields, 2016). Shaywitz (2005) recommends, that, to develop fluency, once learners can decode a passage of text, that practice should include the learner rereading the same passage out loud at least four times.

- **Worksheets for learners with dyslexia**

Recent studies have explored the influence that font styles have on the ease of reading for learners with dyslexia. The use of a three-dimensional font has revealed enhancement in the reading scores for learners with dyslexia of 10 to 25 % (Zascavage, McKenzie, Buot, Woods & Orton- Gilligham, 2012). The use of a diffuent font leads to better recall due to the deeper processing needed. Learners with dyslexia also profited momentarily in remembering and recalling when presented with information in a diffuent font (French, Blood, Bright, Futak & Grohmann, 2013). Otherwise, learners can determine what their favourite font is by choosing between Comic Sans, Century Gothic, Time Roman and Dyslexie (Reid & Green, 2014). “Learner with dyslexia”, a purposely created font learners with dyslexia, has reformed shapes of letters (Troeva, 2015) and supports with reading speed and accuracy (Van de Vrugt & Ossen, 2012). Other worksheet reflexions that facilitate effortless aids; uncrowded well-spaced-out format (MacCullag, 2014); using left justification; evading using italics, capitals and underlining, and the use of bold type to accentuate (Davied, 2014). These strategies are suitable for inclusive classroom due to the low cost and ease of implementation.

- **Personalized Homework**

Homework needs to be set apart and personalised and comprise of simple and perfect instructions. Homework tasks must be time-motivated not task-driven, meaning that teachers should provide substitutes for writing chores and try to build on the child’s previous knowledge (DFNZ, 2015). Homework assignments should be well structured and clear enough to allow learners with dyslexia to participate in a relaxed and pressure-free school environment.

- **Classroom resources**

Classroom resources used by the teacher and learner should apply colour coding, clear tables, and use a common and reliable layout. MacBlain and MacBlain (2007) state that learners with dyslexia report that their greatest struggle is taking notes through dictation and copying off the board (Long *et al*, 2007). Consequently, learner recording ought to include marginal copying from the board and printed copies of

teacher notes and PowerPoint presentations should also be emailed or printed (DFNZ, 2015). This affirms that learners are free from the mechanical activities of copying, consenting more time for the learner to engage with the content and can aid completion of substitute tasks of highlighting key words and ascertaining core ideas (Reid & Green, 2014).

Additionally, the creation of personal dictionaries to store a subject-specific vocabulary and visual outlines for each subject to reduce the amount of manual copying, allowing more time for the learners with dyslexia to absorb the content and aid their completion of substitute tasks (Reid & Green, 2014).

- **Classroom learning environment**

Teachers need to be aware of the classroom environment and its effect on learners. Time spent in ensuring the classroom environment is “dyslexia friendly” will assist learners in their learning. Considerations comprise of lighting, seating, proximity to the board and teacher, minimal background noise, neat and clearly labelled equipment, and a large well-spaced wall display (DFNZ, 2015).

- **Time Constraints**

There is neurobiological evidence that proves that learners with dyslexia require extra time to process their reading tasks. It is proposed that learners with dyslexia should be provided with an individually determined amount of time for exam or quiz situations (Mather & Wendling, 2012; Karten, 2015). Other time concerns relate to the provision of shorter tasks and flexibility of assignment deadlines (DFNZ, 2015). Additionally, learners with dyslexia report that their second biggest challenge is concentrating for long periods (Long *et al*, 2007). Therefore, learners need to utilise “brain breaks” where prospects to move about and stretch are delivered to assist (Reid & Green, 2014).

- **Reducing stressors**

Lowering the stress in the inclusive classroom can be achieved by having an ethos of mistake-making-leads-to-learning, providing sufficient time for thinking, not requesting the learner with dyslexia to read aloud (Long *et al*, 2007), and emphasising content not spelling mistakes (DFNZ, 2015). These simple teaching strategies and schemes are easy to implement but have a substantial effect on decreasing level of stress of learners with dyslexia.

- **Provision of teacher mentors**

Learners with dyslexia should be associated with an empathic teacher mentor, preferably a teacher that has a sound knowledge of the condition. The learner and the mentor meet twice a week to discuss themes including: immediate anxieties, forward planning and self-assessment. The mentor also acts as an advocate for the learner with other teachers and inspires the learner to take responsibility for their learning (Long *et al*, 2007). This strategy is appropriate as the teacher mentor would assist learners to keep pace with school tasks and assist with any problems.

- **Assistive Technology**

Assistive Technology (AT) empowers learners with dyslexia to have reasonable and equitable access to print. This can help overcome problems with reading and text production and lets learners show their skills in higher-order perception growth and analysis. Technologies, like Dragon Voice Recognition help the learner record their thoughts via speech-to-text features, evading difficulties in reading, and letting learners access learning content (McNeill, 2015).

Additional technologies, such as BookShare offer an expanding number of reachable books and magazines for learners with dyslexia. The E-ssential Guide to AT (Schwab Learning, 2008) and the Wheel of Apps (McNeil, 2015) offer support for parents and teachers in the identification of suitable AT for their child and learners.

- **Building reliance and self-esteem**

Dyslexia impacts on more than just learning, it also affects the social and emotional well-being of the learner. The size of the impact is exacerbated by the environment,

early diagnosis, and intervention implementation (Mather & Wendling, 2012). Early diagnosis links to a surge in sympathy and tolerance for the learners (Armstrong & Squires, 2012). Frequently, intervention models for dyslexia integrate mechanical strategies of multisensory phonemic awareness programs but fail to incorporate the needs of the whole child (Long *et al*, 2007). Learners with dyslexia carry emotional and psychological scars from continued failure and stigma from their non-dyslexic peers. Teachers need to support learners with dyslexia to shape positive self-esteem by focusing on their strengths (Karten, 2015). Developing peer support systems and acting as advocates when the need arises is a solution to this (Armstrong & Aquires, 2012).

Dyslexia is a lifelong difficulty and often worsens despite devoted literacy and numeracy teaching interferences (Firth, Frydenberg, Steeg & Bond, 2013). Teaching should also focus on developing learners' adaptive coping skills. Instruction in the three main areas: defying self-defeating thought, knowledge and consolidation for coping strategies, and detecting needs and seeking proper support, should be considered as important (Karten, 2015).

3.3.2 Inclusive education as a global agenda

The term inclusion is related to "inclusive education" (Pearson, 2007; Blank-Hawkins, Florian & Rouse, 2007). Some writers have defined inclusion as overcoming barriers to learning and development for all learners (Booth & Ainscow, 2011). Inclusion means achieving education for all learners with and without disabilities or SEN (Vislie, 2003; Loreman *et al.*, 2005). It is a pledge that generally signifies "*full inclusion of learners with various abilities wholly in features of schooling that other learners are enjoying to access*" (Miles & Singal, 2010).

As noted, inclusion is a global agenda, an essential aspect of the millennium development goals, and it is a human right, a worldwide initiative that consists of welcoming all children, without discrimination, into the mainstream classroom (UNESCO, 1994; Miles & Singal, 2010). Inclusion began hesitantly in a few countries in the late 1960s and early 1970s, but this shift became much more globally prevalent in the 1980s and the 1990s (Chhabra *et al.*, 2010). Inclusion is a pledge of even-handedness in education for persons having disabilities; it is not restricted to the United

States, but is a universal movement (UNESCO, 1994; 2000; 2006; Incheon, 2015). Inclusion is *“a dynamic approach of responding positively to pupil diversity and of seeing individual differences not as problems, but as opportunity for enriching learning”* (UNESCO, 2005). The goal of inclusion means answering to disciplinary exclusion, inclusion in relation to all categories of learners who are susceptible to exclusion, inclusion as education for all, inclusion as a moral system for education and society as well as inclusion as facilitating the emergence of the school for all learners (Ainscow, 2005).

Inclusion promotes social cohesion and is a worldwide movement geared towards ensuring that all children receive education in the same learning environments (Hargrass, 2005; Sharon, 2013; UNESCO, 2010). Inclusion is a ruling principle in the 21st century that allows each learner to participate in the education system irrespective of dissimilarities in terms of disability, sex, religion, ethnicity and other factors (Tsegave & Moges, 2014). Inclusion promotes collective participation for all learners with diverse cognitive deficits and special educational needs (Reid, 2015). It relates to the quality of education for all learners (UNESCO, 1994; UNESCO, 2015). It is not just another programme or a modified policy, but it is a manner of living together and feeling connected with the community (UNICEF & UNESCO, 2007). Inclusion is a comprehensive package that maximizes and is tailored to the educational and social needs of learners, with and without dyslexia, for mainstream schooling (EADSNE, 2003; European Agency for Special Needs and Inclusive Education, 2009). Inclusion is not a slogan turned into a cliché or just a process of accommodating learners with different disabilities in a mainstream school (Ainscow & Miles, 2008), but it is the full participation of a learner in the school curriculum, and a process of making the mainstream classroom a responsive environment capable of developing the capacities, needs and potentials of all learners (Mitiku, Alemu & Mengsitu, 2014). It is a standards-based reform which entails the improvement of educational success for all learners with and without SEN by establishing their accurate inclusion in the classroom setting (Bii & Taylor, 2013). Inclusion is different from integration, or another programme or a modified policy applied to the current school structure; instead, it is a manner of living together and feeling connected with the community (UNICEF & UNESCO, 2007). Inclusion requires appropriate curricula that empower every learner to gain the essential basic cognitive expertise, combined with crucial life skills, that

enable them to face life experiences, build strong social relationships, advance esteem for human rights and vital freedoms, and promote reverence for values and morals (Singal, 2014). The ultimate belief of inclusion is that all students should learn together, wherever possible, irrespective of any problems they may have (Salamanca Framework for Action, 1994). Landsdown, Dina and Mialy (2007) added that inclusion is not simply about the location or placement of a learner into mainstream schools, an organizational or mechanical change, but means the participation of the learner in the curriculum, social life and education setting, and is a movement with a vibrant philosophy. Furthermore, Benoit and Angelucci (2016) pointed out that inclusion is a global initiative that aims to support and welcome all learners, and does not involve labelling, anthologizing, or norming learners; instead, it involves minimizing and identifying the interactive sociocultural issues that impact the idea of disability and difficulty (O'Neill et al., 2009). Ainscow and Miles (2008) argued that inclusion is a radical ideology that objects the reforming of the education system in order to deliver equal educational chances for all learners, regardless of individual dissimilarities arising from ability. Similarly, for Singal (2014), the goal of inclusion is about the rights of all children in mainstream schools which have all the essential requirements for providing equivalent educational opportunities for all children. For Pugach and Blanton (2009), inclusion should be an environment that accepts diverse flairs and rates of learning and safeguarding of education of all learners through suitable programmes, structural provisions, teaching policies and use of assets that embraces terminological, psychological, physical, social, administrative and curricular areas.

In inclusive classrooms, learners with or without learning disabilities are faced with a multitude of learning opportunities and benefits that meet the diverse learning and behavioural needs of an individual (Benoit & Angelucci, 2011). In inclusive classrooms, learners with special needs receive many of the benefits of the community school setting that enable them to build friendships and create and enhance an affirmative self-image by engaging in activities with their schoolmates and by so doing improve the effectiveness of their education, their ability to communicate, and to self-advocate (Forlin, 2004; Corbett, Dumaresq & Tommasini, 2014). In the inclusive classroom, all learners learn collectively, live collectively, and play collectively (Mohammed, 2014). The inclusive classroom requires a flexible and accessible curriculum, accessible school buildings, compulsory differentiation of teaching and assessment, and staff who

are trained to implement inclusive practices (Symeonidou & Phtiaka, 2009). Inclusive classrooms have a strong focus on teaching as well as managerial direction, the acquisition of fundamental aptitudes by learners, and supporting their individual requirements (Avramidis, Bayliss & Burden, 2004). Effective inclusion requires the following features: materials of instruction, environment of classroom, content of instruction, teacher and parent collaboration, assessment and methods of instruction (Voltz *et al.*, 2005).

3.3.3 International Conventions on Inclusion of Learners with Disabilities

There are many international treaties and conventions on education and inclusion of learners with disabilities, mentioned earlier. These conventions and treaties recognize inclusive education as a key to the development of a country and the most appropriate system under which universal and non-discriminatory education can be achieved, because through inclusion the full development of people with disabilities can be effectively achieved in their society (Shaw, 2014).

- **Universal Declaration of Human Rights**

The Universal Declaration of Human Rights was adopted and promulgated on 10th December 1948 by the General Assembly of the United Nations. The declaration states that:

“...We all have the right to an education, and to finish primary school, which should be free, we should be able to learn a career, or to make use of all our skills...” (United Nations, 1948).

- **Convention against Discrimination in Education**

This conference was adopted by the general conference of human rights at its 11th session on 14 December 1960 in Paris, France. The purpose of this convention was to debate educational discrimination, exclusion or preference based on sex, colour, race, religion, language, political opinion, social and national origin. In article 5 of this convention it is stated that:

“...education shall be directed to the full development of the human personality and to the strengthening of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms;

it shall promote understanding, tolerance and friendship among all nations, racial or religious groups..." (UNESCO, 1960).

- **International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights**

This convention entered into force on 3rd January 1976; Article 13 declares:

"...the right of everyone to education... education shall be directed to the full development of human personality and the sense of its dignity, and shall strengthen the respect of human rights and fundamental freedoms...education shall enable all persons to participate effectively in a free society, promote understanding, tolerance and friendship among all nations and all racial, ethnic or religious groups..." (OHCHR, 1977).

- **The Salamanca Statement**

The Salamanca statement stemmed from an international convention held in Salamanca in Spain during June 1994. Its aims were to promote the approach of inclusive education, enabling education for all children, youth and adults with SEN within the ordinary education system. This convention gathered senior education officials, policy makers and administrators, international government organizations, donors' agencies and non-governmental organizations coming from 92 governments of the world. The Salamanca statement asserts that:

"Every child has a fundamental right to education, and must be given the opportunity to achieve and maintain an acceptable level of learning...education systems should be designed and educational programmes implemented to take into account wide diversity of these characteristics and needs... [those with] special educational need must have access to regular schools which should accommodate them within a child centred pedagogy capable of meeting these needs, regular schools with inclusive orientation are the most effective means of combating discriminatory attitudes, creating welcoming community." (UNESCO, 1994).

- **The Dakar Framework**

The Dakar Framework derives from an international convention that was held in April 2000 in Dakar, Senegal. It is a world education forum that consisted of governments, organizations, agencies, groups and associations who met to discuss the topic of education being for all people. In this conference, the participants believed that education should be a goal for every citizen in every society. They affirmed that

“The right to education imposes an obligation upon States to ensure that all citizens have opportunities to meet their basic learning needs. Basic education should be both free and compulsory.... The indispensable role of the State in education must, however, be supplemented and supported by bold and comprehensive educational partnerships at all levels of society. Education for all implies the involvement and commitment of all to education... All children must have the opportunity to fulfil their right to quality education in schools or alternative programmes at whatever level of education is considered “basic”. While there is international agreement on the 2015 target date for achieving Universal Primary Education in all countries, more is required” (UNESCO, 2000).

- **The Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities**

The Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (CRPD) is the first internationally binding treaty; it entered into force in 2006 and is intended specifically for the promotion and protection of the rights of people living with disabilities. This treaty does not create new rights, but fairly ascertains and recognises disability as a human right, and obliges the governments of countries of the world to firstly recognise the education rights of people living with disabilities; the treaty aims to eliminate the practices of social oppression and discrimination that face individuals with disabilities; it enforces equal opportunity in education; ensuring an inclusive education system at all levels and lifelong learning without any form of discrimination (Sabetello, 2014).

The CRPD’s Article 24 states that:

“...persons with disabilities are not excluded from the general education system on the basis of disability, and that children with disability are not excluded from free and compulsory primary education, or from secondary education on the basis of disability, persons with disabilities can access an inclusive, quality and free primary education and secondary education on an equal basis with others in the communities in which they live, persons with disabilities receive the support required, within the general education system, to facilitate their effective education...” (United Nations, 2008).

- **The Incheon declaration**

The Incheon declaration is an international convention on education and human rights, established on 21 May 2015 at the World Education Forum which was held in Incheon, Republic of Korea. The goal of the conference was to ensure inclusive education as an equitable form of learning that promotes lifelong education opportunities for all. The Incheon conference constituted the commitment to establishing education in 2030 as an agenda and main key driver of the development of all the countries of the world. Therefore, this conference declared that there should be:

“...access to and completion of quality education for all children and youth to at least 12 years of free, publicly funded, inclusive and equitable quality primary and secondary education...ensure the provision of learning opportunities so that all youth and adults acquire functional literacy and numeracy....to foster their full participation as active citizens....ensure equity and inclusion in and through education....inclusive education for all should be ensured ...and the right to education begins at birth and continues throughout life ...and countries must institute measures to develop inclusive....to meet the needs of children , youth and adults in crisis contexts, including internally displaced persons and refugees.” (UNESCO, 2015).

3.3.4 International Perspective on Inclusion

Inclusion is usually understood to be part of a human rights plan that demands admission and equity in education (Wedell, 2008; UNESCO, 2010). It is developed with the SEN and challenges of an individual in mind to avoid fragmented or uneven access to services (EADSNE, 2003).

The practice of inclusion was enshrined in various documents already mentioned. Nevertheless, the original period of the inclusion policy adopted the procedure of law passed by the United States Congress in 1975 called The Education for All Handicapped Child Act, known as EHA. This practice affirmed that children, irrespective of disability, or emotional, social, cultural and linguistic difference, were eligible for free and appropriate education in a setting as close as possible to normal schooling (Florian, 2008; Thomazet, 2009). From the 1990s and onwards, the policies of inclusion have formed part of the fundamental perception of all countries (Florian, 2008).

Inclusion is linked to democratic values and ideals and is characterized by the term “mainstream schools” (Arnesen & Lundahl, 2006). Conversely, there are numerous interpretations about what makes up educational rights, as well as how these ought to be evaluated and appraised (Wedell, 2008). In designing and implementing values of inclusion, each country must ensure that the wide diversity of learning interests and needs of all learners has been taken into account, because each learner has unique educational needs, and all the inclusive practices must embody from a learner-centred value (Corbett, Dumaresq, & Tommasini, 2014). In implementing effective inclusive values, governments must ensure that there is a twofold approach centring on both the rights of learners and success of their education (Florian, 2008; Frankel, Gold & Ajodhia-Andrews, 2010). To this end, American and European countries have developed inclusive values that accommodate learners with SEN in mainstream schools, by providing support to teachers and supplementary staff in the form of equipment, materials and in-service training (Lindsay, 2007; Ferguson, 2008; UNESCO, 2010). These values are grouped into three categories: the one-track approach, the two-track approach and the multi-track approach (Spiteri et al., 2005). The first approach takes the view that only learners without learning disabilities should be educated in the mainstream classroom environment, and those with SEN should be transferred to special classrooms where they can receive their individual support (Spiteri et al., 2005). The two-track approach adopts the view that learners who are officially registered as having SEN should be placed in special education schools (Florian & Rouse 2009), whereas the multi-track approach advocates that learners with SEN have the right to be educated simultaneously with their peers (Spiteri et al., 2005).

3.3.4.1 International perspective on inclusion in Western countries

In terms of legislative commitment, as mentioned the USA committed itself to promoting inclusion as far back as 1975 in the Education for All Handicapped Children Act (Pha'draig, 2007). This resulted in the inclusive school movement gaining momentum (Florian, 2008; Thomazet, 2009; Guralnick & Bruder, 2016). These legislative commitments promote the accommodation of learners with disabilities and special educational needs in mainstream classrooms (UNESCO, 2010). Here, every learner with physical or learning disabilities has the right to study in any mainstream classroom settings despite his or her differences and/or the challenges these present to educators (Ferguson, 2008). In this regard, educators welcome parental involvement in order to promote higher levels of achievement (Denboba et al., 2014).

In Canada, the inclusive education movement began in 1966 in Manitoba when mentally disabled learners were promised access to education; however, the issue of separate classrooms emerged (Belanger & Gougeon, 2009). In 1975 the government took a position in favour of mainstreaming in a general school for such individuals (Porter, 2008). In the 1980s, most learners with special needs were integrated into mainstream schools, but teachers received no inclusive teaching support and their attitudes toward these learners were ambivalent (King & Edmund, 2001; Porter, 2008). In the 1990s, inclusion became a regular subject in policies for supporting special needs learners. In 1995, Education Manitoba began joining the philosophical, legislative, and pedagogical foundations for inclusion (AuCoin & Vienneau, 2010). In 1996, inclusive education practices developed extensively, in that all learners with learning disabilities, who had formerly been educated mostly in special education schoolrooms, were now able to enter a mainstream school, and also in that teachers were provided with appropriate training – all of this in accordance with the policy manual (Jordan & Stanovich, 2004).

In the UK, inclusion was advocated in the Education Act of 1981 (Pha'draig, 2007). In the last two decades, the law of inclusion has been extended to include learners with disabilities (Save the Children UK, 2006). In December 2006, the Disability Equality Duty (DED) was implemented in the UK as a positive move towards widening access to mainstream education. This duty is an amendment to the Disability Discrimination Act of 1995 (Madriaga, 2007). Since then, inclusion has become a core principle of the

British education system (Hodkinson, 2005). Inclusion policies ensure the continued inclusion of learners with disabilities or SEN, promote improvement in the training of teachers and assistant teachers, and give them access to a range of appropriate resources, such as textbooks, software tools and artefacts that motivate learners with special needs to attend the inclusive classroom regularly (Office for Standards in Education, 2008; Pearson, 2009). In the UK, the educational practice of inclusion had changed over the year – in that it lost the radical aspects that rejected the psychological and medical description of educational deficiencies (Slee, 2008). Inclusive classrooms face social and emotional difficulties, particularly in situations with historically mainstream classrooms (Scottish Executive, 2006b). These difficulties rise from irrelevant curricula, inappropriate systems of assessment and examination, and insufficient training of teachers (Forlin, 2001; Adetoro, 2014). In addition, in the UK, there are many criticisms as regards the educational approaches of educators of special needs learners (Florian & Rouse, 2009). Some of the approaches used by teachers in inclusive classrooms are ineffective for learners with SEN (Scottish Executive, 2006a). In the UK, for effective inclusion, teachers are required to receive in-service training that enforces effective education for all learners with and without SEN (Makoelle, 2014). In addition, learners with learning disabilities, especially those with dyslexia, are taught in mainstream settings with a highly variable level of individual support (McPhillips & Shevlin, 2009). However, there are some efforts to regularly train teachers regarding how to make the curriculum accessible to every learner (Everatt, Reid & Elbeheri, 2013). This creates a need for specialist teachers who are able to build one-on-one support for small groups of learners (McPhillips & Shevlin, 2009). Such teachers are also encouraged to provide appropriate and up-to-date support for learners by regularly updating and improving their pedagogical skills through training (Bell et al., 2011).

The Scottish educational programme underwent a series of vital changes in response to concerns about the relevance and balance of the curriculum (Hart et al., 2004; Florian & Rouse, 2009). Current educational ethics and practices are dedicated to improving the standard for the inclusion of all learners in mainstream schools (Hardman, 2009). However, concerns have been raised over issues of ethics and so-called “greater inclusion” and the fact that these may be discordant policy goals (Scottish Executive, 2004; Scottish Executive, 2005). Coupled with this is the fact that

most schools struggle to effectively enforce integration whilst upholding standards of equity and excellence in education (Florian & Rouse, 2009; Florian & Black-Hawkins, 2011). Nonetheless, there are also indications that various schools have been able to be both equally inclusive and highly successful (Scottish Executive, 2006a; Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, 2007). Such schools have pro-inclusion philosophies that are managed by teachers whose pedagogical practice is grounded in the opinion that all learners can learn, and who accept the responsibility for educating all learners in mainstream classes (Jones, 2006). In such mainstream schools, educators help teachers to think about diverse problems learners face with regards to learning (Jordan, 2007; Florian, 2015). In most mainstream Scottish schools, inclusive practice embraces views of shared socio-cultural influences that create distinct causes of learning disabilities, rather than taking the view that there is only one particular cause (Black-Hawkins et al., 2009).

In Belgium, despite international developments towards inclusive practice, many learners with SEN are deprived of or excluded from adequate education in mainstream schools (UNESCO, 2006). Although many European countries have changed their opinions regarding inclusion, Belgium still has many obstacles to effective inclusion, such as a lack of classroom support, teacher training, assessment, and preparation (Lebeer, 2006; Florian & Rouse 2009). 85% of learners receiving special education are in mainstream schools, but in separate special classrooms, despite the fact that Belgian educational philosophies state that learners with SEN have a right to attend mainstream schools (Spiteri et al., 2005). This is not enforced because mainstream schools retain the right to refuse or accept these learners (Van Rompu et al., 2008). Learners with SEN who are fortunate enough to attend mainstream schools receive educational support of two to four hours per week (Van Rompu et al., 2008). Furthermore, despite financial incentives to keep these learners in mainstream schools, an increasing number of learners with SEN have transferred to special schools over the last few years (Van Rompu et al., 2008). In 2004, 1-6% of learners enrolled in mainstream schools are those with special needs (Florian & Rouse, 2009).

In New Zealand, the implementation of inclusion faces major difficulties, because teachers are not ready to shift from a special education ideology to an inclusion ideology (Kane, 2005). The educational system of New Zealand predominantly takes

the exclusionary “special education” view in thinking, policy, and practice (Poon-McBayer, 2004; New Zealand Teachers Council, 2005). Here the inclusion of learners with SEN is not compulsory (O’Neill, 2009), and teachers have the right to refuse the attendance of these learners (Morton & Gordon, 2006). This means that learners with disabilities have a smaller chance of being educated in mainstream schools, or that they are often marginalized by teachers and fellow pupils and are excluded from school activities (Kearney, 2007). Such difficulties are aggravated by the absence of an unambiguous commitment to inclusive education by New Zealand’s Ministry of Education (Ministry of Education, 2005). Be that as it may, the Ministry has begun using the term “inclusive education” in some government declarations and texts; however, it is still used in conjunction with the term “special education” (Ministry of Education, 2008). Nevertheless, there is increasing evidence that they attempted to reorient the focus of educators on helping learners meet their educational needs in heterogeneous school settings (Ministry of Education, 2005; New Zealand Teachers Council, 2007). This strategy aims to improve the quality of pedagogical skills and strategies teachers acquire that will make it easier for them to create inclusive classroom environments (Kearney, 2007; Ministry of Education, 2008). Overall, the integration of inclusive education in New Zealand within pre-service teacher education programmes still remains contentious in conception and problematic in its implementation (O’Neill, 2009).

In Finland, inclusion is not only considered as providing equal educational opportunities for all learners with and without SEN, but also as encompassing the strategies, structures, and operating procedures that guarantee successful learning for all learners (Halinen & Jaarvinen, 2008). Here, educational philosophies frame special needs education as important, but not of paramount focus (United Nations Development Programme, 2005; Arnesen & Lundahl, 2006). These educational philosophies ensure the use of both human and economic resources for effective inclusion, and all learners despite gender or disability attend inclusive schools (National Board of Education, 2004; Takala, Pirttimaa & Törmänen, 2009; Jahnukainen, 2011). In Finland, learners with mild difficulties relating to reading, writing, mathematics, and temporary behavioural problems are integrated into inclusive mainstream schools without any kind of formal referrals (National Board of Education, 2007). Learners with minor difficulties in learning receive part-time special education,

but those with major learning disabilities, emotional disturbances, disabilities, retarded development, or illness receive full-time education in special schools (Ministry of Education, 2004). Learners with special needs receive remedial teaching immediately after class from their own subject teachers (Moberg & Savolainen, 2008), and the schools implement measures designed for special and general support, such as working closely with parents or guardians, providing counselling, and instruction tailored to individual needs (National Board of Education, 2007). In addition, interpretation services are available along with supplementary materials and equipment (Koivula, 2008), and all learners are entitled to counselling and guidance to develop their study skills, as well as to make good choices in their studies and careers (National Board of Education, 2004).

For a long time, the number of learners with learning disabilities in special classrooms of Finland remained moderately low (Kivirauma & Ruoho, 2007). Health and psychosocial support are provided by social workers, school nurses, and psychologists to strengthen the learning capacity of learners and empower them to take responsibility for their own studies (Ministry of Education, 2008). With regard to common support, pedagogical diversity allows teachers to meet the various needs of learners by arranging teaching methods, lesson topics, learning materials, working techniques, learner assessment, feedback, supple grouping, as well as flexible psychological and physical learning settings (Ministry of Education, 2005).

Due to these current Finnish ethics of inclusion, the rate of basic education drop-out is only 0.3% compared with other European countries such as France (42%), Luxembourg (40%), Portugal (34%), Spain (32%), and the Netherlands (31%), amongst others (UNESCO, 2008). In brief, inclusive education in Finland is more successful compared to other European countries, as 96% of learners continue to upper-secondary education and achieve good results (Vislie, 2003).

In Cyprus, inclusion is perceived as the right of all learners to access to full participation in education (Symeonidou & Phtiaka, 2009). Here, children with disabilities have traditionally been educated in special schools, but since the 1990s, their education has been provided for by the passing of the 1999 Education of Children with Special Needs Act (N.113 (I) 99) (Symeonidou & Phtiaka, 2009). Despite this, education of learners with learning disabilities continues in a segregated manner (Avramidis, et al., 2017). In

many cases, children with SEN are not actively educated in mainstream schools, but are transferred to special schools where they – at least – receive individual support (Sideri & Vlachou, 2006). Inclusive practices are not yet recognized in Cyprus and the transition from integration into inclusion is expected to be a long process (Symeonidou & Phtiaka, 2009). This is due to the fact that the majority of teachers in Cyprus have a superficial opinion of inclusive education and are reluctant to respond to an inclusive education philosophy (Phtiaka et al., 2005; Symeonidou, 2017).

In Norway, learners with cognitive and physical impairment were not permitted to study in mainstream schools in the past, even whilst having full access to educational care (European Agency for Special Needs in Education (EADSNE), 2003). From 1977 onward, inclusion was established and every learner with SEN was allowed to become part of the mainstream classrooms, with the crucial goal of giving equal opportunities to all (Lebeer et al., 2010). The current inclusion policy of Norway makes provision for a myriad of support systems that could improve the education of all learners within the mainstream school system (Germeijs et al., 2003). Teachers and educators who have experience with learners with SEN receive daily intervention and support in their assessments (Tzuriel, 2005; Grimes, 2009).

In Sweden, inclusion has been a prominent issue on the Swedish political agenda for several years (Isaksson, Lindqvist, & Bergstrom, 2010). The core objective of the Swedish educational reform is to provide mainstream education for all learners irrespective of their disabilities (Lebeer et al., 2011). From the 1970s onward, educational policy in Sweden laid the foundation for inclusive schooling and has favoured a democratic participatory interpretation of social justice (Persson, 2008). This means that learners with SEN have the right to attend mainstream schools and receive support and adjustments according to their educational needs (Isaksson, Lindqvist, & Bergstrom, 2010). Nevertheless, learners with neuropsychiatric disabilities (autism, Asperger's, and Tourette's syndrome, attention deficit and hyperactivity disorder) still receive their education in a small, separate group with special teachers in the mainstream school (Isaksson, Lindqvist, & Bergstrom, 2010). These educational practices are called "educational clinics" or "observational classes". The segregated nature of these measures and the special teaching groups and remedial classes cause learners to feel isolated from their peers (Ljusberg, 2009). The rational underpinnings

of such practices were suggested to be for the learner's "own good" (Palmlblad, 2003; Persson, 2008). Moreover, learners with special educational needs, such as those with dyslexia, are forced to undergo a medicalization process before they can be accepted in the inclusive environment (Malacrida, 2004).

In Portugal, the constitution instructs that every learner has the right to education and equal prospects for educational success and access. For learners with SEN, the government has promoted educational support (Lebeer, et al., 2010). The policy refers to special education as a special modality of school education. It aims to create social educational integration and rehabilitation of individuals with SEN (Watkins, 2007). Nevertheless, the educational policy allows for a transfer to a special education system or institution (Lebeer, et al., 2011).

In Hungary, the educational rules state that a learner with a disability has the right to be included in a mainstream school, but in practice most learners with disabilities, especially all those with intellectual ones, are placed in special schools (Csépe, 2009). Learners with SEN are diagnosed and examined medically, psychologically, and pedagogically by a teach-abilities committee (Pameijer, 2006). The Educational Public Act of 2007 defines two types of provisional education categories for learners with SEN, namely: SEN-A and SEN-B. Learners under SEN-A are known as learners who have an "organic disability", and may only attend special schools where their education involves much funding and provision, because they require rehabilitative intervention. Learners with SEN-B, on the other hand, are those labelled as having a "non-organic disability" and are allowed to attend inclusive mainstream schools and receive remedial intervention (Lebeer et al., 2011).

3.3.4.2 Perspective on inclusion in African countries

Implementation of inclusion is a complex phenomenon and each country has its own challenges to full implementation (Pino & Mortari, 2014). While countries in Africa encounter their own unique challenges of inclusion, many of them are signatories of the Salamanca Statement (1994), the Dakar Framework for Action (2000), the CPRD (2006), and Incheon (2015). In this section, I use some African countries as examples to uncover the challenges they face with regard to inclusive education and the implementation thereof.

In Botswana, the first educational law was ratified in 1977 and the revised national policy on education was enacted in 1994 (Government of Botswana, 1997). The latter national legislation on education highlights the provision of quality and equality of educational opportunities for all learners with and without SEN in inclusive mainstream schools (Dart 2007). With the unpopularity of this inclusive model, Botswana's government signed several international declarations that have been mentioned, such as the Salamanca Framework (UNESCO, 1994), the Dakar Framework for Action (UNESCO, 2000), the CRPD (UNESCO, 2006) and Incheon (UNESCO, 2015). The ideology of inclusion in Botswana is not about segregating learners with special needs into special schools, but retrofitting schools to meet educational needs of all learners (Chhabra et al., 2010).

Learners with severe learning disabilities are taught in special units attached to mainstream schools, while those with mild learning disabilities, such as learners with dyslexia, are taught in the mainstream classroom (Wilkins & Ngietfeld, 2004; Lambe & Bones, 2006; Dart, 2007). Nevertheless, there is no effective implementation of inclusion in Botswana, because teachers lack the necessary skills to teach learners with learning disabilities. Talmor, Reiter and Feigin (2005) indicate that factors such as lack of skills, a dearth of teaching materials, overcrowded classrooms, inadequate specialist support, inadequate time for planning, and a lack of social support may negatively affect inclusion of learners. Brandon (2006) also indicates that for effective inclusion to take place in Botswana, teachers of mainstream schools require training on how to include learners with SEN in mainstream public classrooms.

In Ghana, inclusive education had been in theory initiated as integration into schools since 1951, but it was only practically implemented in 2003 with 60 schools selected for piloting from 11 districts located in the Eastern, Greater Accra regions, and the Central region (Opoku, Amponteng & Okyere, 2015). In 2011, the inclusion programme was extended from 60 to 429 schools in 46 districts in all the 10 regions of the country (Agbenyaga & Deku, 2011). The vision of the Ghanaian Ministry of Education is to include all learners with mild and moderate disabilities in all mainstream public schools located in 10 regions of Ghana (Kuyini & Desai, 2007; Danso, Ayarkwa & Donsoh, 2012). The government policy allows learners with SEN to access any public mainstream school without restriction and gives parents the right to choose a school

anywhere in the country (Hayford, 2013). In order to effectively monitor the accessibility of mainstream public schools to learners with disabilities, the government requests financial and technical assistance from international organizations to train teachers and to create suitable infrastructure for inclusion, thereby ensuring the promotion of constitutional and human rights to education for all (Ametepee & Anastasiou, 2015). In addition, for effective inclusion, the government of Ghana needed to allocate enough funds that will train teachers how to monitor, supervise and implement a smoothly inclusive programme for all learners in all districts of Ghana (Opuku et al., 2015). Gadagbui (2008) noted that for ensuring effective access to inclusive education in Ghana, the following factors should be considered: teachers' positive attitude; learner-centred curriculum; flexible method of teaching; well supported teachers; school, community and parental involvement; appropriate teaching aids and equipment.

In Kenya, the Kenyan government has made education a priority and a key indicator of economic and social development (UNESCO, 2000). Its vision is to provide quality education for all learners irrespective of their psychological, physiological, or social conditions (Kenyatta University, 2014). Kenya's educational policy makes provision for two different schools for learners with SEN in public schools, such as special schools (with and without boarding or residential facilities) for learners with disabilities who are not allowed to interact with learners without disabilities; and special classrooms in mainstream schools where learners with disabilities are separately educated, but have opportunities to interact with their non-disabled peers (Gathumbi et al., 2015). Most special primary schools in Kenya only accept learners with visual, hearing, mental, and or physical challenges, but those with multiple disabilities, are on the autism spectrum disorder, have communication disorders or specific learning difficulties are left out (Republic of Kenya, 2009; Odongo & Davidson, 2016). For effective inclusion to occur in Kenya, teachers should design learning tasks equally distributed to all learners; teachers should work effectively in inclusive environments that develop a broad-based understanding and knowledge which meet the learning needs of individual learners; teachers should be encouraged to work in collaboration with professionals whose experiences and skills are relevant to teaching needs; teachers need to undergo periodic refresher training and courses that should develop attitudes, competence, skills, values and handle the heterogeneous nature of the inclusive classroom, while school principals and teachers should ensure that all learners are given equal

opportunities and attain corresponding educational goals irrespective of their social position, physical and mental disposition (Ministry of Education, 2008).

In Nigeria, the first educational provision for learners with SEN started during 1945-1970, but this was only granted to private individuals (Okwudire, & Okechukwu, 2008). In 1993, the Nigerian government did intend to make provision for inclusive education with complete and lawful protection and security support, hitherto lacking due to governmental policies and cultural pressures; however, this proposal never made headway (Ajuwon, 2008). Nonetheless, section 8 of the National Policy on Education of 1998 clearly states that all learners, despite their emotional, mental, and physical disabilities, have the right to be provided with equal educational opportunities (National Policy on Education, 1998; Adetoro, 2014).

Inclusive education in Nigeria failed due to inadequate educational welfare, planning programmes, inadequate funding, insufficient inclusive education material and equipment, a lack of inclusive training for teachers, insufficient plans for identification of learners with special learning disabilities, minimal parental guidance and information on special education services, scanty proper facilities, and, finally, a lack of a definitive inclusive strategy from the government (Huda, 2008; Eskay & Oboegbulem, 2013). In Nigeria, the inclusion of learners with SEN and in particular learners with dyslexia has not extensively gained recognition due to neglectful governmental policies (Adetoro, 2014). In Nigeria, learners with SEN, especially those with learning disabilities such as dyslexia, are prevented from attending ordinary or public primary schools, because the country requires intensive human and physical resources and information propagation (Ajuwon, 2008; Okeke, 2008; Eskay et al., 2012).

In South Africa, Section 29 of the constitution permits education for everyone, and is the result of a national shift towards inclusion in all forms and away from the segregated education system of the apartheid era (Landsberg, 2005; Department of Basic Education, 2011a). South Africa traditionally possessed mainstream schools and special schools for learners with SEN (Dalton, Mckenzie & Kahonde, 2012). The current educational reform (Education White Paper 6, South African Schools Act, Assessment Policy Statements) recognizes the right to basic education as an immediately achievable right (DoE 2001; Wildeman & Nomdo, 2007; Murungi, 2015). The view of White Paper 6 acknowledges and values the inclusion of learners with

diverse learning needs in mainstream schools. White Paper 6 promotes inclusive education and preparation as essential for ensuring the participation of all learners and to develop their discrete strengths to empower them to partake extensively in the course of learning (Howell, & Lazarus, 2008). Finally, the paper also makes provision for learners with disabilities and ensures that they are accepted into mainstream schools and receive educational support (Donohue & Bornman, 2015). The schools are classified into the following categories of special needs: schools for learners with learning disabilities, schools for the Deaf and schools for the blind (Dalton, Mckenzie & Kahonde, 2012). The inclusive education system of South Africa plans a two track system like the one used in the US and the UK, and the government's inclusive education plan states that learners who require low-intensive support are to receive it in mainstream schools, those who entail moderate support receive such support in full-service schools, while those who require high-intensive support receive such support in special schools (Rea et al, 2002; Department of Education, 2007); nonetheless up until recently, an equal and inclusive basic education system in South Africa remains inaccessible to all and the implementation of inclusive education is slow and half-baked (Murungi, 2015).

In Senegal, the shift to inclusion was declared in 2010 by its parliament (African Child Policy Forum, 2011b). The shift to inclusion calls for free education and the right to education of all learners with SEN in a mainstream school environment located close to their respective neighbourhoods (Fortier, 2012). This requires learners with SEN and their non-SEN peers to be educated in a single inclusive school setting, with hopes of creating a positive shift in societal and community attitudes in mainstream classrooms (Dram & Kamphoff, 2014). The government pledged to create an increase in opportunities as regards inclusive education for learners with SEN by 2015, but Senegal has a long way to go before growth in inclusion and equality is achieved for these learners (Anastasiou & Keller, 2011), because the country is dealing with the issues of poverty, community and social opinions regarding individuals with disabilities, and teacher training that affects inclusion (Drame & Kamphoff, 2014). In order to implement effective inclusion enshrined by international human rights standards, the government must improve access to education through physical openness and devolution, generate community alertness campaigns that increase awareness of

disabilities and advance teacher preparation that promotes a learner-focused teaching approach (Dram & Kamphoff, 2014).

In Tanzania, in November 2009, Parliament promulgated “the Law of the Children Act 2009”. This law ensured that all children could be taken up into the inclusive education system. Implementation of the law, however, has proven to be a challenge (Tanzania Human Rights Report 2010 & 2011), because there is insufficient teaching material, a clear lack of inclusive education knowledge and training for teachers, practical strategies, financial assets, and collaboration between parents and teachers (Tungaraza, 2010).

In Zimbabwe, inclusion has definitely been considered since 1994, but there is a great deal of uncertainty and scepticism over its implementation (UNESCO, 1994; Nyagura, 1999). Zimbabwe does not have definite and clear specific legislation for inclusion (Mutepfa, Mpofu & Chataika, 2007; Mafa, 2012). However, there are a number of consistent government policy issues such as Zimbabwe Education Act (Education Act, 1996), the Disabled Persons Act (Disabled Persons Act, 1996), and various Ministry of Education circulars (e.g., the Education Secretary’s Policy Circular No P36, 1990) that require inclusion of all learners in mainstream primary schools, regardless of their disability, race, gender, culture, ideology, or religion (Mpofu et al., 2006). The Secretary for Education urges schools to offer equal, inclusive education access to all learners with disabilities. Any school that refuses to admit a learner on grounds of disability is in violation of the Disabled Persons Act (1996) and faces disciplinary action from the educational district office (Mutepfa, Mpofu & Chataika, 2007). There are four types of curriculum that support access of learners with disabilities in Zimbabwean schools: locational inclusion, inclusion with partial withdrawal from mainstream classroom environments, inclusion with clinical remedial instruction, and unplanned inclusion (Mnakandla & Mataruse, 2002; Mutepfa, Mpofu & Chataika, 2007). Locational inclusion groups learners with severe disabilities, deafness, blindness, moderate mental retardation, and significant neuromuscular disorders (Mpofu, 2000). These learners are taught the national curriculum in a separated space inside mainstream schools; this type of inclusion is offered by less than 1% of primary schools in Zimbabwe and refers to residential special needs education schools (Oakland et al., 2003). Learners in locational inclusion do not take the national examination at the end of their primary

school phase (Mutepfa et al., 2007). However, inclusion with partial withdrawal from a mainstream classroom setting groups together learners with hearing impairment, mild to moderate mental retardation, and mild to moderate visual impairment; learners in this group of inclusion are taught the core subjects of mathematics, and reading in separate rooms, but they are taught science, social studies, moral education and religious studies together with other peers in mainstream classrooms (Mpofu, 2004). A minority of those learners takes the national schools achievement exams at the end of their primary school (Mpofu et al., 2006).

Learners include in clinical remediation are those who are eligible for access to a full curriculum in mainstream classrooms and receive clinical remedial instruction as needed (Education Secretary's Policy Circular No. 12, 1987; Mpofu, 2001). In inclusion with clinical remedial instruction, learners with mild to moderate learning disabilities tend to receive clinical remedial instruction in reading and arithmetic for two hours a week in mainstream classrooms (Mnkandla, & Mataruse, 2002; Mpofu, 2004). Learners in inclusion with partial withdrawal are learners with mild to moderate visual impairment, hearing impairment, and mild to moderate mental retardation who are selected for curriculum instruction with partial support following a full assessment by a multidisciplinary team of speech and language pathologists, school psychologists, school teachers and parents (Mpofu, 2001; Mpofu et al., 2006). Nevertheless, effective inclusion still has a long way to go, because teachers lack adequate confidence, knowledge and appropriate training to teach learners with SEN and learners with dyslexia in particular (Mpofu & Chitsa, 2016).

In DRC, education of learners with disabilities in general and learners with cognitive disability such as learners with dyslexia in particular has seldom been taken into consideration since the colonial period, and learners with disabilities have been usually subject to discrimination in the mainstream school settings (Association Congolaise de Personnes Handicapees, 2013). Additionally, they are subject to the same requirements – of age and ability – as those without learning disabilities, except in rare cases where the regulations allowed for exemptions (Ministere de EPS-INC, 2011). This situation has worsened since the country gained independence in 1960 (Mukau, 2008). This silence contributes to sustained marginalization of people with disabilities in society. Despite this, in recent years there have been two small constitutional

acknowledgments of the existence of people with disabilities in national policy (BBC, 2013). The first was in Article 52 of the Transitional Government's Constitution, adopted in Sun City in 2003. This article acknowledged the specific rights of people with disabilities to protection and support in line with their physical, intellectual, or moral needs (Synergie 2010). Furthermore, the constitutions of 2000 and 2006 state that learners with disabilities have a right to be educated, but in practice most of them do not access to an educational environment, especially disabled learners living in rural areas of the country (Constitution of 2000; Constitution of 2006; Sylla, 2009; Presidence de la Republique, 2014). Many children with disabilities are not in school. The statistics for 2016 and 2017 indicate that there are only 8427 (48,9% boys and 51, 1% girls) disabled children who attend public special schools, and the majority of these learners who attend such schools are learners with physical impairment, visual impairment, and or hearing impairment (Mena, 2018).

With the enactment of the 2006 United Nations CRPD, governments around the world have increasingly related national policies to promote and ensure such rights (BBC, 2013). Compared with other countries, the DRC is lagging in its progression toward the rights of people with disabilities in general, and learners with dyslexia in particular (Aldersey, 2013).

People with disabilities in general are supported and cared for by their parents in private special schools (Tshiunza, Bina, & Kapinga, 2018). Nevertheless, learners with disabilities who come from poor families are out of school, because their parents are unable to pay their fees in private special schools (World Bank, 2005; Association Congolaise de Personnes Handicapees, 2013). Often those who have access to mainstream schools by default, do not benefit from access to quality education because their teachers lack inclusive training, financial resources, material, and an appropriate system that could aid the education of such learners (Lukombo, 2008; Nkhoma, 2012). In mainstream schools, such learners are often the target of bullying and stigma and are labelled as "kizengi", which means "idiot", or "zoba", which means "someone who does not know anything", or "ndoki", which means "witch or witches" (Mukau, Roeyers & Develieger, 2010; Mukau, 2008).

Even though inclusion in the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) is seen as a crucial situation, of national urgency (Ministere de L'EPSP, 2009), the DRC has a long way to

go as regards the concrete implementation of the inclusion of learners with SEN in general, especially for learners with a learning disability such as dyslexia (Association Congolaise de Personnes Handicapees, 2013; Ministere de L'EPSP, 2009). This is the case even though, as mentioned, the DRC is among many countries of the world that has signed and agreed to a number of inclusion policy steps.

In the DRC, inclusion is grouped into three categories: specialized, integrated, and full inclusion (Tshiunza, Bina & Kapinga, 2018). Specialized inclusion deals with learners with motor and mental disabilities by placing them in exclusive and special classrooms across the country. Integrated inclusion is known as an intermediate type of inclusion where learners with disabilities are provided with specialized institutions and access to mainstream schooling (Tshiunza, Bina & Kapinga, 2018). This second form of inclusion is supported by the framework Law no 14/004 of 11 February 2014 for national education. Full inclusion exists where all learners with and without disabilities are educated in the same classroom within the mainstream education system while maintaining suitable services and support (Mbiyavanga, 2016).

The project for full inclusion was begun in 2007 in two mainstream schools of Kinshasa by Handicap International (Association Congolaise de Personnes Handicapees, 2013). In 2009, the pilot project was expanded to twelve other mainstream primary schools in Kinshasa. In 2010 and 2011, the project further extended to a total of fourteen schools where a combined number of 1069 learners with disabilities were enrolled. Nevertheless, out of 1167 mainstream primary schools in Kinshasa, there are only a total of 14 schools located in one district of Kinshasa called "Mont Amba" which have rigorously applied and implemented inclusion. These schools are only available to learners with physical, visual, and hearing impairments (World Bank, 2008; Ministere de L'EPSP, 2009); though most learners with learning disability have access by default to most mainstream primary schools, but they don't have access to quality education, because the schools lacks material and financial resources that can empower their education effectively (Masiala, 2008; Matti, 2010).

In the eager desire to build an inclusive system in the country and to reduce educational inequalities and other forms of discrimination that learners with dyslexia face, some NGOs have provided some technical support and a formal curriculum for learners with cognitive disability, such as dyslexia, in the mainstream school (Sylla,

2008; Ministere de EPS-INC, 2011; Mbiyavanga, 2016). In summation, in order to fully implement inclusion in the country, Handicap International and the government are working together to promote inclusion in the education system (Presidence de la Republique, 2014).

3.3.5 Inclusion of Learners with Dyslexia

Educating learners with dyslexia is challenging and involves a great many resources and much support from both the teachers and the parents (Canton et al., 2007). In other words, the inclusion of learners with dyslexia in mainstream schools is demanding, challenging, and involves many strategies (Mullins & Preyde, 2013; Walsh, 2012; Thompson, 2013; Walsh, 2015). In inclusive classrooms, teachers are confronted with challenges in dealing with learners with dyslexia on a regular basis (Wadlington & Wadlington, 2005; Gwerman-Jones & Burden, 2010). Teachers need to recognize the dominant obligation of all learners and cultivate a collective philosophy that values everyone in class, as well as their learning styles, and makes use of learners as assets for learning (Reid, 2009; Reid, 2013). In addition, teachers need to use activities and a range of modalities to understand that every learner with dyslexia is different (Shaywitz & Shaywitz, 2005; Washburn, Joshi, & Binks-Cantrell, 2011). Teachers need to understand that learners with dyslexia need support to be able to discover their strengths, and the latter can often be factors in helping them to overcome different educational barriers (Reid, 2015; Deluca, Tramontano, & Kett, 2014). Furthermore, teachers need to observe their own educational needs by recognizing their strengths and the areas where they need further development and drawing on the full repertoire of the factors that influence their educational needs in the mainstream school environment (De Beco, 2014). These factors include family history, financial background, educational background, career experience, competency, teaching style, patience, creativity, ability to develop, self-efficacy in teaching, awareness of inclusive practices, and so forth (Deluca et al., 2015). Teachers must gain an awareness about inclusive practices, because this is the first prerequisite regarding such practices (De Boer, Jan Pijl & Minnaert, 2011). This is because the success or failure of a policy of inclusion of learners with dyslexia in particular hinges on how teachers understand and interpret the concept and implementation of inclusion (Croft, 2013). Secondly, teachers should have more awareness about inclusion, and should take better care in ensuring

they have established an inclusive environment for the learners with dyslexia in particular (Yeo et al., 2014).

Teachers also require appropriate knowledge to effectively implement inclusion practices (Mohammed, 2014). According to Thompson (2013), for effective inclusion of learners with dyslexia, teachers need ongoing, adequate pre- and in- service training in this field, despite having some knowledge of the disability. This because teachers who had been trained to teach learners with learning disabilities and dyslexia in particular expressed more favourable attitudes to learners with dyslexia that those who had not received such training (Florian & Rouse, 2010; Avramidis, Bayliss & Burden, 2014).

Hoskins (2015) indicates that in-service training assists teachers to understand the different challenges faced by learners with dyslexia and empowers the teacher to effectively provide these learners with an appropriate learning resource that will make learners with dyslexia effective in the inclusive classroom. In addition, teachers should have positive attitudes and beliefs in ensuring the success of inclusive practice (Nutter, 2011). This because the teacher is the cornerstone for effective inclusion (Jordan et al., 2009). It is thus crucial that teachers should have affirmative attitudes regarding inclusion of learners with dyslexia, as the success of inclusion hinges upon their cooperation as well as the commitment of and cooperation with other stakeholders (Avramidis, Bayliss, & Burden, 2014). Teachers with supportive attitudes towards inclusion are expected to welcome learners with dyslexia into their classes and take responsibility in generating an atmosphere conducive to learning (York-Barr, 2007).

In addition, for effective inclusion of learners with dyslexia, each teacher should understand his/her responsibilities very well in inclusive classrooms, because this links to beneficial outcomes, such as job commitment, performance and satisfaction (Dierdorff & Morgenson, 2007). This is because when boundaries and responsibilities are not clearly specified, the results will be uncertain and could reduce classroom efficiency (Howard & Ford, 2007).

Inclusion of learners with dyslexia requires collaboration (Mosia, 2014). It is necessary to probe into the collaborative relationships that teachers create with the parents of learners as well as relevant professionals (Núñez et al., 2015). Teachers should work

hand-in-hand with all available support staff to help learners with dyslexia realize their full potential. When teachers and support staff collaborate, problems linked with the severity of the learning difficulty and the relevance of the curriculum are diminished (Rose et al., 2013).

Collaboration enables successful inclusion, even if other teachers lack the expertise to meet the special educational needs of each learner (Brown & Bell, 2014). Effective collaboration also allows parents to be updated about what is happening in school (Martin, 2003). Teachers and parents should develop a collaborative relationship, with the aim of meeting the needs of the learner (Vulliamy & Webb, 2003). Lastly, inclusion of learners requires school support (Bines & Lei, 2007).

3.3.5.1 Screening and assessment intervention prior to inclusion of learners with dyslexia

In mainstream inclusive schools, teachers are responsible for making appropriate adjustments for the accommodation of all children (Mullins & Preyde, 2013). Nevertheless, before this can be done, it is vital for learners with dyslexia to undergo assessment and screening in reading and writing difficulties so that a prompt intervention can occur (Isaacs, 2012). However, in some mainstream schools in certain countries, especially under-developed ones, learners with dyslexia are admitted into mainstream schools by default without any form of assessment (Rose, 2009).

In a study by Mitiku, Alemu, and Mengsitu (2014) in primary schools in the North Gondar Zone of Ethiopia, it was found that learners with learning disabilities and dyslexia are admitted by default into primary schools, because Ethiopian primary schools lack eligible assessment criteria or, at least, a scientific way of conducting assessment and identification of learners with dyslexia prior to their admission. Agono (2012) affirms that it is vital to do a screening and assessment before admitting learners with dyslexia in mainstream schools to discover problems as early as possible (before the age of seven), thereby ensuring a timely intervention.

Vellutino and co-workers (2006) added that screening and assessment intervention should take place before grade two, in other words between the ages of seven and eight, before learners are discouraged and dissuaded by their failure in school. Prior to the admission of a dyslexic child, parents who already know the medical and

psychological reports pertaining to their children should inform teachers as this will enable schools to arrange for more appropriate support (Rose, 2009).

3.3.5.2 Factors influencing the success of inclusive practices of learners with dyslexia

In order to achieve effective inclusion, government and educational stakeholders should take into account the following factors: monetary support, sufficient training, sufficient time, a flexible inclusive curriculum, a small sized classroom, and parental involvement (Sizani, 2012).

- **Monetary Support**

According to the US Department of Education (2012), education of learners with dyslexia depends on the availability of technical and physical educational resources. Monetary support is vital to the success of inclusion of learners with dyslexia, because their educational needs require additional resources (Gyorfi, 2010; Ebersold & Meijer, 2016). Governments are responsible for making the inclusion of learners with dyslexia possible by putting needed resources in place (Tlustosova, 2006). For effective and quality inclusion, the necessary resources should be available for both learners and teachers (Kerney & Kane, 2006; Anderson, Klassen & Georgiou, 2007) because resources play a fundamental part in a school's management, and lack of resources effectively abolishes the policy or makes it hard to interpret and translate (Reiser, 2006; Ballard, 2007).

- **Sufficient training**

Teaching learners with dyslexia in an inclusive classroom environment demands significant knowledge and skill on the part of the teacher (Rose, 2009). For inclusion to be positive, it is imperative for teachers to receive training that will equip them intellectually (Lampton, 2012). In an analogous interpretation, Thwala (2015) points out that the lack of training essentially disqualifies teachers from handling teaching and learning in an inclusive environment where learners with dyslexia are schooled. Many findings reveal that teachers need definite training to productively include all learners with disabilities in mainstream schools (Gama & Thwala, 2016). Complete training in learning disability enables a teacher to gain the confidence that qualifies him or her to teach learners with dyslexia effectively in mainstream classrooms (Kirkland, 2009).

- **Sufficient Time**

Time is an important factor that influences the success of the inclusion of learners with dyslexia in mainstream schools (Gama & Thwala, 2016). For full inclusion of such learners with dyslexia, teachers need extra time to meet the special educational needs of dyslexic learners without disrupting or encroaching on normal classroom time (Kearney & Kane, 2006). During the exams and oral assessments, teachers are required to give extra test time to learners with dyslexia in order to afford them a chance to turn in a good performance (Pico & Morari, 2014).

- **Flexible Inclusive Curriculum**

Teachers experience challenges resulting from the structure of inclusive curricula (Gama & Thwala, 2016). Lamport (2012) indicates that teachers felt that learners with dyslexia needed extra time to comprehend language theories, but most curricula do not make provision for such. Therefore, teachers often have to compromise in order to ensure effective teaching and meeting the needs of most students, hence risking the inclusiveness of the classroom (Pottas, 2004; New Zealand Government, 2008). The inclusive curriculum must cater for the educational needs of all learners, regardless of their disability (Loreman, Deeper & Harvey, 2005).

- **Small Size of Mainstream Classroom**

Teaching learners with dyslexia in overcrowded classrooms may well render teaching less effective. Inclusion of learners with dyslexia will only be effective in normal classes or classes with few learners (Gama & Thwala, 2016). Mainstream classes usually comprise 35 learners (Landbrook, 2001); a class that contains more pupils than this complicates the outcomes of learning, especially for those that have dyslexia. Nevertheless, in many African classrooms, learner number between 50 to 80 learners per class, which creates obstacles to teaching and learning for both teachers and learners (Gama & Thwala, 2016). Brooks (2007) and Landbrook (2001) added that teaching learners with dyslexia should be done individually or in small classes that can engage about 10 learners. For reading and writing assessments, it is suggested that learners should receive one-on-one lessons in a small group classroom, and that the reading and writing session should not exceed 30-60 minutes per lesson (Bowyer-Crane et al., 2008).

- **Parental Involvement**

According to Lindsay, Proulx, Scott, and Thomson (2013), parental involvement is a key factor in the success of inclusive education for learners with dyslexia in the mainstream classroom settings. Parents play a crucial role in the learning progression, and behavioural and emotional development of their children with dyslexia (Sheldon, 2007; Estes et al., 2018). In other studies, teachers indicate that uninvolved parents pose a great challenge (Gama & Thwala, 2016). Effective learning and teaching is achieved when the collaboration between parents and schools is positive and proactive. Learners that are motivated by their parents are more likely to score high marks on tests or exams (Smith, 2004).

For effective inclusion, parents and teachers have an obligation to discuss the progress of a learner and agree on the form of help which both of them can offer the learner (Sira, Maine & McNeil, 2018). Brown & Bell (2014) in their study on supporting young people with dyslexia in schools in Asia indicated that trustful collaboration is needed between teachers and parents of learners with dyslexia in inclusive education, because it enforces good practice and improves the learning outcomes of a dyslexic learner.

3.4 CHAPTER SUMMARY

Chapter three discusses the existing literature on dyslexia and inclusion of learners with dyslexia in relation to the study research questions. The discussion commenced with a conceptualization of dyslexia, dyslexia theories, dyslexia as an obstacle to education, major educational obstacles faced by learners with dyslexia and global prevalence of dyslexia. This was followed by a discussion of teaching approaches for learners with dyslexia, inclusive education as a global agenda, international conventions on inclusion of learners with disabilities, international perspective on inclusion, perspective on inclusion in African countries and inclusion of learners with dyslexia. The following chapter focuses on the research methodology of the study.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

This chapter focuses on the research design and methodology of the study. I used qualitative strategies to explore how teachers include learners with dyslexia in mainstream primary schools in Kinshasa. Here research methods and methodology, research paradigms, design, approach, instrumentation, population, sampling procedures, data collection and analysis, and ethical considerations are discussed.

4.2 Research Design

The terms “approach”, “design” and “strategy” are often used interchangeably in the literature. In this study, research design refers to the overall strategy used to integrate different components of the study in a coherent and logical way, thereby ensuring that the research problem is effectively addressed (Creswell, 2013; MacMillan & Schumacher, 2010; Maree, 2015).

For Burns and Grove (2003), research design is a blueprint that aids the researcher in retaining maximum control over features that may affect the validity of the results. It is a detailed plan that the researcher undertakes and designates how, when, and where data are to be collected and analysed.

Research design is a step where the researcher answered the overall research question and test the hypothesis of the study. It is determines the sampling method, data collection method and analysis approach (Creswell, 2004; Denzin & Lincoln, 2005; Creswell, 2009).

In the next section, the design of the study pertaining to the paradigm, as well as the approach and method, are discussed.

4.2.1 Research Paradigm: Interpretivism

In Social Science, paradigms play a vital role as it describes systems of thinking in a particular discipline (Newman, 2011). According Creswell (2007), a “paradigm is a rudimentary set of beliefs that guide action, it could be seen as a framework or model

for understanding and observation”. Creswell (2007) suggests that paradigms are “theories that guide researchers into action in order to address fundamental assumptions taken on faith, for example, beliefs about the nature of reality and relationship among knower and known (epistemology)”.

The use of the concept paradigm is figurative compared to Natural Sciences (Creswell, 2009). These paradigms affect the practice of research and it mainly focus in research work (Creswell, 2009). There are four main philosophical research paradigms, namely positivism, post-positivism, constructivism (interpretivism), and critical theory (Neuman, 2006; Flick, 2007; Wisker, 2008; Muijs, 2011; Blumberg *et al.*, 2011; Bellamy, 2012).

As discussed in 1.8 of this study, interpretivism/constructivism was used to explore and answer the main- and sub-questions of this investigation. This paradigm is appropriate because it is concerned about understanding a phenomenon from the perspective of participants, exploring the interface between individuals as well as the historical and cultural settings which these individuals inhabit (Creswell, 2009). Through the interpretivist research paradigm, I seek to understand the experiences of each participant related to the inclusion of learners with dyslexia in mainstream primary schools of Kinshasa. This paradigm, thus, also defines the researcher’s nature of enquiry along the dimensions of ontology, epistemology, axiology and methodology.

4.2.1.1 Ontological orientation

Ontology defines the nature of reality to be studied and what can be known about it (Terre Blanche, Durrheim, & Kelly, 2006). In Crotty’s (2003) terms, it is concerned with “what kind of world we are investigating, with the nature of existence, with the structure of reality as such”. Ontological assumptions respond to the question “what there can be known or what the nature of reality is” (Borg, Gall & Gall, 2005).

In this study, the notion of a perspectival reality was embraced where the crux of the ontological interest comprises the feelings, motives, and perceptions of teachers and principals in the DRC primary school context. Accordingly, the ontological sphere is restricted to teachers and principals’ experiences and knowledge as regards inclusion of learners with dyslexia, which are critical to this study. These ontological assumptions are therefore congruent with the research paradigm employed.

4.2.1.2 Epistemological orientation

The interpretive epistemology is concerned with providing a philosophical grounding for deciding what kinds of knowledge are conceivable and how we can ensure that they are both acceptable and authentic (Creswell, Hanson, Clark, Vicki, & Morales, 2007). Knowledge is accumulated from interaction between the researcher and the participant, and knowledge is constructed not discovered (Crotty, 2003). The knowledge is viewed as a subscription to humanistic sciences and it is advanced by exploring the phenomena in many ways in social science, and that knowledge is diverse from natural science and their analysis result many interpretation (Berard, 2005; Bryman, 2001).

Epistemology describes the nature of the relationship between the knower and the known and thus establishes the research questions (Guba & Lincoln, 2005). From the researcher's epistemological perspective, he perceived the study as a human activity in which he was central to the investigation and where the researcher and that which was investigated became inextricably linked (Creswell & Poth, 2018). I became a passionate, active participant in the study (Marshall & Rossman, 2011). Because this research paradigm allowed me to interpret and construct participants' experiences, it was compatible with the study's epistemological assumptions.

4.2.1.3 Axiological orientation

The axiology orientation comes from 'axios' and 'logos', the Greek word which means "theory of value", this type of assumption deals with the nature of values that is intrinsically meaningful (Heron & Reason, 1997). Axiological orientation in interpretivism believes that researchers have values, which may help to determine what is recognized as facts (Creswell, 2009).

Within the interpretivist paradigm, the subjective values and belief system of the researcher must be acknowledged and declared, because reality is co-constructed (Creswell, 2014). Hence, the researcher must be aware of my value system which plays a role when data is collected, analysed and interpreted; those values are subjective in nature (Trochim & Donnelly, 2006). The subjectivity which the researcher brings to the situation, and his belief system, will have an influence on the data collection and reporting of the findings (Walshman, 2011). Clearly, researchers and

participants have their own unique value systems (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). Sometimes these are congruent with each other but at other times they clash (Carnaghan, 2013). In this current study the influence of values is acknowledged, which has a direct impact on the trustworthiness of the study. In section 4.3.7, the axiological assumptions are discussed with reference to ethical consideration and trustworthiness of this study.

4.2.1.4 Methodological orientation

The methodological orientation reflects how a researcher has practically gone about a study, congruent with epistemological assumptions (what is believed that can be known) (Nel, 2007; Markula & Silk, 2011).

The researcher made use of his personal and scientific judgement and responsible methodological principles to guide the research by being reflective, open to new experiences, and sensitive to language (Van Maanen, 1997; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009), thus resulting in an evolutionary process of interaction, understanding, reconstruction, and interpretation (Terre Blanche, Durrheim & Kelly, 2006). Another important principle was not to be tempted into formulating general laws, but instead to focus on the experiences and understanding of teachers and principals within a predefined context (Creswell, 2014).

The researcher conducted the study by following Van Maanen's (1990) six hermeneutic phenomenological research activities:

- Uncovering phenomena that earnestly interest the researcher and link him to the world;
- Studying experiences of teachers and principals at the primary schools by living these rather than conceptualising them;
- Reflecting on key themes that characterize the phenomenon;
- Describing the phenomenon through writing and rewriting;
- Maintaining a strong and oriented relation to the phenomenon;
- Balancing the research context by considering the parts as well as the whole.

In the next section, the research approach will be discussed.

4.2.2 Research Approach

Research approaches are techniques, plans, and actions for study that encompass the phases from extensive assumptions to comprehensive approaches of data collection, analysis, and interpretation (Gruber, 2008; Punch, 2014). The choice of a research approach is grounded in the nature of the research problem, and the individual researcher's experiences of research (Cooper, 2010). Similarly, Bernard (2000) notes that the decision to select an exact research approach would be grounded in its fitness to respond the research questions. For Bryman (1988), there are three different approaches, namely quantitative, qualitative, and the mix method research approach (Creswell, 2014). The dissimilarity between these three researches approaches is a methodological issue of the suitability of answering the research question, comprising: their methodical objectives, sorts of questions posed, categories of data gathering methods used, kinds of data shaped, and degree of flexibility in research project (Mack, Woodsong, MacQueen, Guest & Namey, 2005).

The **quantitative research** approach focuses on the analysis and measurement of the causal relationships between variables, and aims to produce statistical data through the use of large-scale surveys – for example – and by exhausting methods such as questionnaires or structured interviews (Creswell, 2014). This kind of research has large population samples, but the researcher's interaction with those selected is not as in-depth as with those sampled in qualitative research (Fowler, 2001). In this approach, theories are objectively tested in order to examine the relationship that exist between variables, and these variables are measured, examined, numbered and analysed stereotypically and statistically (Creswell, 2014). This type of research approach, theories are built and protected deductively against all types of bias and data are controlled for alternative explanations in order to replicate and generalize the findings (Creswell, 2012).

This type of research comprises experimental research design and non-experimental research design such as surveys (Creswell, 2014). Experimental design consists of determining if a specific treatment influences outcomes of the research, for example. In an experimental study, the researcher assesses the data by providing an explicit conduct to one group and prohibiting it for another group (Field & Hole, 2003). This also includes so-called true experiments, with the random assignment of the subjects

to treatment conditions and quasi-experiments to non-randomized assignments (Keppel, 1991).

On the other hand, a non-experimental (survey) research design in a quantitative research approach that deals with numeric or quantitative description of movements, opinions, or attitudes of a population by learning a sample of that population (Fowler, 2008). It comprises longitudinal and cross-sectional studies using structured interviews or questionnaires for data collection with the aim of extrapolating a big picture from a small population (Creswell, 2012). In quantitative research approach, the researcher tests a theory by identifying constricted hypotheses and analyses and measures data statistically to either prove or disprove the hypotheses. In this approach, researchers often employ the post-Positivist paradigm, experimental design, and pre-test and post-test methods in order to assess the attitudes of participant before and after an experiment treatment (Berg, 2001).

Mixed methods are a research approach that involves the data collection methods and analysis of both quantitative and qualitative research approaches in a unique study (Creswell, 2012). By mixing methods, researchers collect data using diverse philosophical assumptions and theoretical framework (Teddlie & Tashakkari, 2009; Bryman, 2012).

There are three basic research designs in the mixed methods approach, namely: convergent parallel mixed methods design, explanatory sequential, and exploratory sequential (Greene, 2007).

The convergent mixed method is a form of mixed methods design in which the researcher combines quantitative data that have equal value in order to solve the research problem (Creswell, 2014). In this design, the investigator usually gathers both kinds of data at roughly the same time and mixes the information in the interpretation of the findings. Contrasting findings are further clarified and investigated in this research design (Creswell, 2008).

The explanatory sequential method is a form a research design in which the investigator conducts quantitative research. The researcher firstly analyses the findings and then shapes it in such a way that it explains a facet of the research

question or nuanced study area. The data is measured chronological because the preliminary quantitative stage is monitored by qualitative stage (Subedi, 2016). This type of design is common to studies which have a solid quantitative angle, but it often presents defies of detecting the quantitative findings to more search and the inadequate sample scopes for each phase of the study (Ritchie & Lewis, 2013).

In the exploratory sequential approach, the researcher starts by engaging with the qualitative research phase and explores the opinions and beliefs of the research participants (Wills, 2007). The data are then scrutinized, and information used to construct into quantitative phase (Flick, 2006). The qualitative phase may be also used to shape an apparatus that best fits the sample beneath study that identify suitable instruments to use in quantitative phase that identify variables that will be used in quantitative study (Klenke, 2016). Nevertheless, this particular research design has particular challenges which reside in converging in on the suitable qualitative findings to use and the sample choice for both phases of the study (Opie, 2004; Bryman, 2006).

This study employs a qualitative approach. This is because it is concerned with discovering and considering the meaning individuals assign to a human or social problem, and this study referred also to the concepts, symbols, meanings, definitions and metaphors of things (Corbin, 1998, Berg, 2001; Corbin & Strauss, 2007). For Charmaz (2006), qualitative research is a process of discovering how social meaning is stresses and constructs the association between the investigator and the area studied. Qualitative research is a vastly contextual research approach where data is collected over long periods in regular real-life environment and it can answer how and why question relatively than giving a brief opinion about the subject studied (Gray, 2004). In the qualitative research approach, often fewer persons take part in the research, but the contact with these persons last extended (Higgs, Armstrong and Horsfall, 2001).

In **qualitative research**, before collecting data, knowledge, and theory on topic of investigation, the problem is examined through a review of the literature (Charmaz, 2006 & Myers, 2008). Qualitative research accentuates the process of discerning how the social meaning is assembled and strains the association amongst the investigator and the focus considered (Creswell, 2012).

The qualitative research approach is generally sustained by diverse nature of information delivered by the research participant in the social environment through data collection techniques such as observation, documentary analysis, and single and focus group interviews (Berard, 2005). Qualitative research involves the development of questions and procedures for data collection and – thereafter – the analysis of data is built from essentials to global themes (Creswell, Hanson, Clark, & Morales, 2007). Qualitative research aims to understand and explore the meaning that people ascribe to a certain condition, environment, or social phenomenon (Wolcott, 2008).

For Creswell (2014), qualitative research encompasses narrative research design, phenomenology research design, grounded theory research design, ethnographies research design and case study research design.

In Narrative Research Design the researcher studies the lives of people and asks a sample to describe their lived experience (Riessman, 2008). This information is often chronological retold by the researcher in a narrative form, but ultimately the narrative combines opinions or interpretations coming from the life of participant with those of researcher in a collective narrative (Clandinin & Connelly, 2000).

In a Grounded Theory study, the researcher derives an abstract and general theory of an action, interaction, or a process grounded in the views of participants (Charmaz, 2006). Grounded Theory is a methodology that consists of developing theory grounded systematically in data gathering and analysis (Charmaz, 2006).

In an Ethnographic Research Design, the researcher studies the collective forms of compartments, morphological, and plans of an integral cultural group in a natural venue over an extended length of time and often data collection involves observations and interviews (Creswell, 2014).

In the Case Studies Research Design, the researcher employs an in-depth investigation of a case, frequently an event, process, activity, program, or one or more individuals. Cases are constrained by time and activity, and researchers collect detailed information using a variety of data collection procedures over a sustained period of time (Stake, 1995; Yin, 2009, 2012).

For this study, the Phenomenological Research Design was followed. This design is derived from the Greek word 'Phainein' which means 'to appear', and it was firstly used by Kant in 1964, and by psychology and philosophy researchers (Eagleton, 1983; Kruger, 1988; Groenewald, 2004). Phenomenology emphasises human experience arises on specific topic that seeks reality in person's narratives of their lived experiences on phenomena (Husserl, 1970; Moustakas, 1994; Cilesiz, 2009; Giorgi, 2009). Phenomenology is conscious knowledge linked with saying what is sensed, observed and known from the individual's experience (Moustakas, 1994).

In the phenomenological opinion, the substance knows what it constructs (in the form of consciousness), but in the constructionist opinion, the substance constructs what it knows (Rockmore, 2011). The phenomenological assumption consists of transcendental phenomenology, hermeneutic phenomenology, and existential phenomenology assumption that seek to understand human experience and the live world as it is lived in order to develop an accurate, clear, and complete description of a particular human experience (Hein & Austin, 2001; Todres & Wheeler, 2001; Laverty, 2003, Cilesiz, 2010).

Transcendental phenomenology is a logical investigation originating from the conceptualized phenomenological philosophy of Edmund Husserl (1859). This type of phenomenological school believes that the phenomenon should be described and discovered objectively from individuals who experiments the phenomenon and personal opinion should be suspended in order to arrive to a single and descriptive presentation of a phenomenon (Wilberg, 2006). The experience in this type of phenomenology assumption is to be transcended to discover reality and the epoche and bracketing are the terminologies associated with this process (Kafle, 2011).

Existential philosophy describes subjective experiences as it reflects individual's values, emotions, ideals, relationship, and intentions (Jun, 2008). Existential phenomenology concerns itself with the experiences and actions of the individual, rather than his or her behaviour and conformity (Laverty, 2003). In existential phenomenology an individual is seen as a creative subject, not as a merely reactive or passive subject that can interpret the meaning of his or her relationships and existence with others in a social world (Warthhall, 2006). An individual in existing phenomenology is inseparable to the social world, this means an individual has no existence apart from

the social world, and that world has no existence apart from individuals. In other words it would be implausible to think that an individual could exist without interrelating with the social in which he or she works (Kafle, 2011).

Hermeneutic phenomenology is interpretive philosophical assumption derived from Martin Heidegger (1889-1976), a disciple of Husserl who focuses on subjective experience of individuals and groups on a phenomenon through their life world stories (Lavery, 2003). This school believes that in order to generate, discover and describe a validated truth about a phenomenon, several interpretations are needed (Ihde, 1986; Langdrige, 2007). The phenomenological research aims to scope the essence of the individuals lived experience of the phenomenon through defining and ascertaining the phenomenon (Cilesix, 2010). Yüksel & Yildirm (2015) state that the general purpose of the phenomenological study is to describe and understand a detailed phenomenon in-depth and examine the key concepts of phenomenology that reach at the essence of lived experience of participants of the phenomenon.

For this study, the researcher followed a qualitative exploratory approach from a hermeneutic phenomenological perspective as discussed by Lindseth and Norberg (2004). This was in order to satisfy the researcher's curiosity and deep desire to better understand the lived work experiences of teachers and principals in the DRC school context. An exploratory approach was also appropriate because this was a relatively new study within the education context of the DRC. There is consequently a paucity of research in this specific area.

The advantage of using a qualitative research approach was that participants could provide thick descriptions of the phenomenon of the inclusion of learners with dyslexia in mainstream primary schools, and that the researcher could also uncover how these teachers include learners in a holistic and contextual manner (MacMillan & Schumacher, 2010). In this study, the qualitative research approach empowered the researcher to investigate the phenomenon of inclusion of learners with dyslexia in a more innovative and natural manner (Maree, 2007). Data was collected in the form of words; this allowed the researcher to understand how participants experience this social phenomenon from their point of view, creating an accurate portrayal of the participants' experiences (Creswell, 2009). The qualitative approach was needed in this study as it allowed the researcher to explore the topic as it emerged, and to

empower participants to alter the direction of the research by sharing their experiences freely (Cresswell, 2013).

4.2.3 Hermeneutic phenomenological design

For the purpose of this study, a phenomenological design was selected. Phenomenology describes the lived experiences of participants to uncover the meaning these experiences hold for them (Creswell, 2013; Nieuwenhuys, 2016). This design was most appropriate for this study as it employs a number of participants aimed at providing rich descriptions of common experiences to reveal the essence of their lived experience (MacMillan & Schumacher, 2010). The study focused on the lived experiences regarding the inclusion of learners with dyslexia in mainstream primary schools in Kinshasa in the DRC. This design was also appropriate because several interpretations are needed to generate, discover, and describe the validated truth of the above-mentioned phenomenon (Laverty, 2003 & 2007). This design provided the researcher with an understanding of the inclusive practices of selected educators through their lived experiences (Rockmore, 2011). Thus, the design allowed me to explore and then describe participants' reality from their own experiences, feelings, and perceptions as to how teachers include learners with dyslexia in mainstream primary schools.

Thus, for this study, the researcher placed himself within the tradition of phenomenological hermeneutics, which, as indicated, was founded by Martin Heidegger and developed by Hans-Georg Gadamer and Paul Ricoeur in France (Lindseth & Norberg, 2004). For Martin Heidegger, hermeneutic phenomenology absorbed itself in the subjective experience of individuals and groups as regards a particular phenomenon. This philosophical theory is concerned with human experience in the constructed world where we live (Kafle, 2011). Hence Hans-Georg Gadamer's theory on philosophical hermeneutics is a regular qualitative research interpretive method aiming to discover the implication of individual experiences in relation to understanding human interpretation (Regan, 2012). The key concepts of this theory are of particular concern for qualitative researchers who intend to use philosophical hermeneutics for interpreting research participants' narratives and the investigators' findings (Gadamer, 2004b). The phenomenology underpins the philosophy of

Gadamerian philosophical hermeneutics which demonstrated that phenomenology conceptualizes the word and what it signifies to the interpreter (Heidegger, 2003).

However, Paul Ricoeur in his theory of hermeneutic phenomenology clarifies that all historical studies are fundamentally narrative and are related to the inner life of humans and their collective living, which historically is understood from its relation to the narrative discourse (Moran, 2001). Ricoeur's thought relies on a twofold aspect, namely the accuracy of the text and the prerequisite of the phenomenon. The accuracy of the text demands loyalty to what the text truly says, whereas the requisite of the phenomenon is recognized (Joas, 2003). For Ricoeur, these two demands are interlaced insofar as there is a hermeneutic element of the phenomenological challenge to delve under the apparent nature of things to their deeper sense, just as there is a phenomenological element of the hermeneutic effort to create an acute space toward the world in which we fit (Moran, 2001). According to the theory of Ricoeur, there are back and forth movements between phenomenology and hermeneutics that occur in connection with numerous significant philosophical topics, containing the experience of personal identity, body, history, memory, intersubjectivity and language (Loja, 2018).

The choice of phenomenology as the research design underpinning this study was mostly driven by the phenomena under scrutiny: the exploration of individual experiences of teachers and principals in relation to the inclusion of learners with dyslexia in mainstream public schools of basic education of Kinshasa. This mode of investigation was also congruent with my curiosity about the phenomenon (inclusive practices) with respect to its characteristics and essence (Lindseth & Norberg, 2004), by setting aside (bracketing) personal presumptions and biases to see reality as it really is (Osborne, 1994). This interpretive process (hermeneutics) was also appropriate because it is aimed at discovering not only intended, but also expressed, meaning through language (Annells, 1996; Kvale, 1996; Laverly, 2003).

4.3 Research Methods and Strategy

From a strategic perspective, the researcher focused on exploring the lived work experiences of teachers and principals, pertaining to the topic.

In terms of the research method, the researcher will discuss the setting of the research, the entree to and establishment of my roles, sampling, data collection, and analysis of data and reporting.

4.3.1 Research Setting

This study took place at four selected mainstream primary schools under the jurisdiction of the Department of Basic Education of West District, Kinshasa; namely EPA1 Gom (*school names have been changed to protect the identity of participants*) primary school, EPA2 Gom primary school, EPA1 Ang, and EPA Tob.

EPA1 GOM

EPA1 Gom is one of the oldest mainstream primary schools located in the borough of Gombe, in the inner-city of Kinshasa. The school was created around 1965, after the Independence Day of DRC. The school has a current enrolment of 500 pupils (male and female) from Grade 1 to grade 6. The main teaching language in EPA1 Gom is French. The total number of learners in one classroom in this school is approximately 40. Staff comprise a principal, a deputy principal, and 17 teachers. The learners are largely drawn from Kinshasa's western areas. Varying numbers of learners originate from poor working families who sometimes cannot pay the tuition fees of their children.

EPA2 GOM

EPA2 Gom is another of the oldest mainstream public primary schools located in the same borough. Like EPA1 Gom, this school was created around 1969. This school at present has an enrolment of 600 learners (female and male) from grade 1 to grade 6. Their main teaching language is French. The school staff consists of a principal, two deputy principals and 19 teachers. The learners stem from working families with low incomes and or whose members are unemployed. The learners are learning in overcrowded classrooms where there are 35 or more in one classroom.

EPA1 ANG

EPA1 Ang is very oldest mainstream public primary schools located in the borough of Bandalungwa, in the inner city of Kinshasa. This school has existed since 1965. The school has currently an enrolment of 600 learners (male and female) from grade 1 to

grade 6. Staff members consist of the principal, two deputy principals and 18 teachers. Many children have parents who are unemployed and or draw low wages, who sometimes are unable to pay the fees of their children. Teaching is offered in French. The number of learners in one classroom in this school is approximately 35.

EPA TOB

EPA Tob is a Catholic mainstream public school located in the borough of Ngaliema, in the inner city of Kinshasa province. This school was created in approximately 1975. The school teaches 550 learners, from grade 1 to grade 6. Its staff consists of a principal, two deputy principals and 20 teachers. The learners of this school likewise come from impoverished parents who are not able to pay the tuition fees of their children. Teaching is in French. The total number of learners in one classroom is approximately 35.

The above schools were chosen because they are located in an education district where there is accessibility and security. However, other schools were not chosen because at the point when I collected data, many schools of other education districts were on strike, and it was difficult to access them. The only education district which was not on strike was Basic Education of Kinshasa West District. These schools are generally characterized by poor and inadequate resources in the form of poor infrastructure, educational materials and overcrowded classrooms.

4.3.2 Entrance to the Field

Before starting the field work in selected schools, meetings were set up between myself and the Basic Education Manager of the Department of Basic Education of West District in Kinshasa in order to obtain access. I first requested the proper permission by writing a letter to the Head of Department of Basic Education of Kinshasa West district, DRC; he subsequently granted this. His letter clearly specified at which schools the study would be conducted.

After obtaining this letter I organized meetings to meet each principal of the given schools at their school. During the first meeting with each principal, I presented the said permission letter. In the second meeting, I met with each of the four principals, again in their school setting, in order to communicate the selection criteria to them, and

requested each principal to choose teachers based on these criteria. This was an important step because the principals are familiar with the background and qualifications of their teachers.

The conversation between me and each school principal was conducted in compliance with ethical considerations, as specified in the ethical clearance document as well as the permission letter mentioned.

The final meeting was conducted again in each school setting. This meeting included the participants (teachers and principal) of each school in order to explain the objectives and aims of the study and mutually determine dates and venues for each interview. I ensured that participants were well informed concerning their participation in this study in terms of confidentiality and anonymity (use of pseudonyms) in order to protect participants' identities. In the same vein, I emphasized that the provided information would be kept safely and used only for academic purposes.

4.3.3 Population and Sampling

The target population for this study, as indicated, comprised teachers and principals of four selected mainstream primary schools under the jurisdiction of the Department of Basic Education of Kinshasa's West District. The primary reason for selecting these teachers and principals was that their schools have been reported as being sites which have high numbers of teachers with the maximum experience of teaching in the mainstream primary schools' environment of this district.

For the purpose of this study, a purposive sampling technique was adopted in order to select relevant participants (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005; Punch, 2014). In purposive sampling one identifies the distinctive characteristics of a population of interest and then attempts to locate persons who have those individualities in order to include them in the study (Johnson & Christensen, 2012). For Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2011) purposive sampling is the best qualitative technique that allows the researcher to handpick the participants on their judgement of their possession of the particular required characteristics.

Therefore, in this study this sampling technique led me to the selection of experienced teachers and principals who have experience in the inclusion of learners with dyslexia

in mainstream public primary schools. For this study, 24 teachers (9 women, 16 men) and 4 school principals (2 women, 2 men) were selected, because they had such experience and were prepared to share their lived experiences of inclusive education.

Thus, the following selection criteria were used:

- teachers and principals of mainstream primary school in Kinshasa's West District;
- a minimum of 10 years teaching experience in mainstream primary schools; and
- having attained at least a "*diplome-d'état*" in pedagogy (i.e. a higher secondary qualification in teaching, equivalent to matric or national senior certificate [NSC]) according to the Congolese Education System (all the holders of a "*diplome-d'état*" in pedagogy are qualified to teach in primary schools).

The above criteria were used because I wanted to make use of qualified people who have been in education for many years and have experience of teaching in the mainstream classroom. In my view, such teachers have a more positive self-image, self-esteem and self-confidence and more constructive attitude when they teach learners with a learning disability in the mainstream primary schools environment than those teachers who do not have much experience and low qualifications (Hsien, Brown & Bortoli, 2009; Corbett, Dumaresq & Tommasini, 2014).

As stated, there were two categories of participants, namely teachers and principals. Teachers participated in focus groups and principals were interviewed individually. The samples, in the form of focus group participants, are reflected in the tables below.

Table 4.1: Teachers of Focus Group 1

Name	Sex	Age	Years of Teaching Experience	Name of the School	Qualification	Code
A	F	40	10	EPA1 GOM	Matric (diplome-d'état)	1/GOM/F/A
B	F	45	15	EPA1 GOM	Matric (diplome-d'état)	1/GOM/F/B
C	M	42	14	EPA1 GOM	Matric (diplome-d'état)	1/GOM/F/C
D	M	43	16	EPA1 GOM	Matric (diplome-d'état)	1/GOM/M/D
E	M	39	14	EPA1 GOM	Matric (diplome-d'état)	1/GOM/ME
F	M	60	30	EPA1 GOM	Matric (diplome-d'état)	1/GOM/F/F

Table 4.2: Teachers of Focus Group 2

Name	Sex	Age	Years of Teaching Experience	Name of School	Qualification	Code
A1	M	45	14	EPA 2 GOM	Matric (diplome-d'état)	2/GOM/M/A
B1	F	41	15	EPA 2 GOM	Matric (diplome-d'état)	2/GOM/F/B
C1	F	44	17	EPA 2 GOM	Matric (diplome-d'état)	2/GOM/F/C
D1	M	39	13	EPA 2 GOM	Matric (diplome-d'état)	2/GOM/M/D
E1	F	39	14	EPA 2 GOM	Matric (Diploma in education)	2/GOM/F/E
F1	M	54	30	EPA 2 GOM	Matric (Diploma in education)	2/GOM/M/F

Table 4.3: Teachers of Focus Group 3

Name	Sex	Age	Years of Teaching Experience	Name of School	Qualification	Code
A3	M	41	15	EPA TOB	Matric (diplome-d'état)	3/TOB/M/A
B3	M	38	13	EPA TOB	Matric (diplome-d'état)	3/TOB/M/B
C3	M	47	19	EPA TOB	Matric (diplome-d'état)	3/TOB/M/C
D3	M	43	12	EPA TOB	Matric (diplome-d'état)	3/TOB/M/D
E3	F	44	15	EPA TOB	Matric (diplome-d'état)	3/TOB/F/E
F3	F	41	13	EPA TOB	Matric (diplome-d'état)	3/TOB/F/F

Table 4.4: Teachers of Focus Group 4

Name	Sex	Age	Years of Teaching Experience	Name of School	Qualification	Code
A3	M	36	11	EPA1 ANG	Matric (diplome-d'état)	4/ANG/M/A
B3	M	42	13	EPA1 ANG	Matric (diplome-d'état)	4/ANG/M/B
C3	M	56	22	EPA1 ANG	Matric (diplome-d'état)	4/ANG/M/C
D3	M	44	16	EPA1 ANG	Matric (diplome-d'état)	4/ANG/M/D
E3	F	54	19	EPA1 ANG	Matric (diplome-d'état)	4/ANG/F/E
F3	F	60	29	EPA1 ANG	Matric (diplome-d'état)	4/ANG/F/F

The second category of participants consisted of four principals (2 women and 2 men), one from each selected school. All took part in individual interviews. These principals were invited to participate in this study because they used to be teachers and have more than 10 years of experience in teaching in mainstream primary schools. The sample, in the form of participants, is reflected in the table below.

Table 4.5: Principals of Individual Interviews

Name	Sex	Age	Years of Teaching Experience (Year)	Name of school	Qualification	Code
A	Female	58	38	EPA1 GOM	Matric(diplome-d'état)	1/GOM/F
B	Male	64	40	EPA1 ANG	Matric (diplome-d'état)	2/ANG/M
C	Male	67	43	EPA2 GOM	Matric (diplome-d'état)	3/GOM/M
D	Female	40	12	EPA TOB	Degree in Education	4/TOB/F

4.3.5 Data collection

Data collection methods is an instrument and device that researchers used to collect data of a study (Creswell, 2012). In social science, interviews are considered as common types of instrument used to collect data, because it is a very productive methods that interviewer pursue specific concern issues that lead to constructive suggestions through oral quiz using a set of pre-planned basic questions (Genise, 2002; Shneiderman & Plaisant, 2005). Depending on the need and design of research, interviews can be structured, unstructured and semi-structured with individuals or focus-group interviews (Resnik, 2010).

Structured Interviews is a standardized interview in which all respondents are asked the identical questions (Bryman, 2001 & Corbetta, 2003). The goal of a structured interview is to ensure that the replies of interviewees can be grouped, and this can be done constantly only if those replies are in response to identical clues (Fontana & Frey 2005). In a structured interview, interviewers are supposed to read out questions accurately and in the same order as they are on the schedule (Gray, 2004), and questions are habitually very definite and often called closed, pre-coded, closed ended and fixed choice (David & Sutton, 2004). This strategy was not in line with the researcher's research paradigm as it restricts participants from sharing their views freely.

Unstructured interviews are random and non-directive interviews technique developed in the disciplines of sociology and anthropology to elicit social realities of people in which questions and answers are prearranged (Patton, 2002). For Punch (1998) and McCann & Clark (2005) labelled unstructured interviews as social

interaction between the researcher and the informant in order to understand the intricate behaviour of individuals without imposing any priori grouping, which might limit the field of inquiry. This type of interview is more informal than a structured interview in which questions are developed during the course of interview based on respondents' responses, but in some cases, questions are prepared in advance from everyday conversation and vary widely and it is opposed to structured interview because it lacks the reliability and precision (Briggs, 2000; Rubin & Rubin, 2011). Researchers who follow this strategy run the risk of collecting unfocused data, therefore the researcher did not find it appropriate for this study.

Semi-structured interviews were suitable for this study. They are generally organized around a set of prearranged open-ended questions with other questions emerging from discussions between the interviewer and the interviewee and usually organized in advance at a selected time and location outside of daily events (Bloom & Crabtree, 2006). For Russell (2002), the semi-structure interview is the best common category interviews applied in qualitative social research, and it helps the researcher to see explicit information associated and constricted during the phase of interview (Lawrence, 2006), and to stay flexible during interview phase, so that significant information can still arise (Hatch, 2002). This type of interviews is done in an atmosphere where the assessor asks for expansion with follow up questions (Patton, 2002). Semi-structured interviews can occur either with an individual or in groups and can takes 30 minutes to numerous hours to complete (Johnson, 2002). For the sake of this study, semi-structured interviews were conducted as follows:

4.3.5.1 Focus group interviews

A focus group interview is a group interview where multiple participants share their knowledge and experience about a specific topic (Owen, 2001). It is viewed as "a type of a group interview where a small group of individuals are gathered together for the purpose of discussing one or sometimes more topics of interest" (Masadeh et al., 2016). The interacting group has some common interests and characteristics brought together by a moderator in order to gain information about a focus topic (Marczak & Sewell, 2007). In a focus group, the moderator facilitates the discussion and encourages group members to interact with each other in line with the goal of the researcher; the number of participants is usually 6 to 15 (Prince & Davies, 2003). Each

focus group signifies a single entity within a sample of groups; data embraces the description of an observer in dynamics group and is integrated and analysed within each group (Duggleby, 2005; Bloom & Crabtree, 2006). The focus group is known as an effective tool that reveals how people converse and think about social issues, and that allows the researcher to drill more profoundly to achieve in-depth insight into the research topic (Russell, 2002; Masadeh et al., 2016). It is also a low-cost type of interview that does not require a lot of arrangement and preparation, compared with some other options that might be quite expensive (Davies, 2007). Be that as it may, it can be costly when adding up the following aspects: the time taken over question development, pre-testing, recruitment, screening processes, plus the costs of moderation fees, accommodation for participants if needed, meeting room, hotel rental, translation, transcription, tape and video equipment hiring, incentive costs, hospitality for respondents, travel and accommodation for the facilitator (Davies, 2007). Moreover, the focus group interview technique is impersonal, because group discussions do not lend themselves to individual revelations, so it is not appropriate for sensitive or debatable issues (Evmorfopoulou, 2007). Furthermore, a focus group could also become difficult to control, when discussions might get out of hand quickly, drifting from the original topic and getting lost in inadequate tangents (Greenbaum, 2003). Therefore, in this study, I used the focus group interview in order to designate the meaning of the study and to collect effective data that would help to analyse the social issue of inclusion of learners with dyslexia in the mainstream primary school. Through this type of interview, I delved deeply to achieve a more profound insight into this research topic and provide a social context that could stimulate discussion and generate new ideas, understanding and insight (Goulding, 2002). To reiterate: this interview technique was selected because it is recognized as an effective tool for revealing how people converse and think about social issues, and it allowed the researcher to attain insight into the phenomenon under investigation (Kowalczyk, 2016).

In this study, four focus group discussions were conducted. The first focus group interview with EPA1 GOM was conducted on a Saturday in the morning, while the second focus group interview with EPA2 GOM took place on the same Saturday, but in the afternoon; the third focus group interview with EPA1 ANG was held on a Friday afternoon, whereas the last focus group interview with EPA TOB took place on the

same Friday, but in the evening. Each focus group interview was held in the meeting hall of each respective school. Each session lasted for two hours. Participants of the focus groups and the individual semi-structured interviews responded to the same set of questions illustrated in Appendices XV (in English) and XVI (in French).

Prior to focus group interview

I arrived at the interview venue forty-five minutes before the agreed time for the interviews in order to arrange the table and the chairs for the groups, test the recording equipment, prepare pens and notebooks and bottles of water. Subsequently, there was a time for introductions and some informal conversation between myself and the participants. Thereafter I introduced and again explained the aim of the interviews and revealed how these could be beneficial to the participants. I once more highlighted some of the matters which were described in the consent letter, for example the assurance of confidentiality, anonymity, what would happen to the data, participants' freedom to withdraw from the interview and to speak in French. In addition, there was agreement on the ground rules such as there being no interruptions, nobody could leave the venue before the focus group was concluded, unless they wished to go to the toilet, while cell phones should be switched off or be in silent mode. These rules were established in order to avoid any kind of discussion and noise during the interview.

During interview periods

Before the actual starting time of the interview, I switched on the recording device. I led the discussion in the direction of the study subject; the questions of the interview were then discussed one by one ensuring that each participant reacted to the same questions. Impartiality was the key to the researcher's attitude throughout the interview process, and probing questions were used to seek illumination of unclear answers. Overall, all focus interviews progressed efficiently. During the interview, I made some notes to record the non-verbal information.

End of interview period

I stopped the recording device, expressed my thanks to all participants and left my phone number; I also collected the phone number of each principal of the school in

case they (or I) wished to follow up on any of the issues they had raised during the interview discussions. They were also advised to seek a published version of this thesis at Unisa online institutional repository if they wished to obtain one. Each focus group interview was transcribed, the total of these pages being 45.

4.3.5.2 Individual semi-structured interviews

This strategy, often called face-to-face interviews, frequently provides in-depth context, discussion and stories linked to one or more subjects that are relevant to essentials assessment (Mousa, 2012). An individual interview offers an occasion for the interviewee to become familiar with the essentials of the assessment and its objective (Patton, 2002). The individual interview allows more attentive chat and follow-up questions, and participants may propose facts that they would not be offered in a group context (Lawrence, 2006). This form can be a rich source for stories and perspective that can notice the non-verbal conducts of an interviewee (Bernard, Ruseell & Gerry, 2009), and it allows the interviewer to investigate social and personal matters deeply (Rubin & Rubin, 2005).

Individual semi-structured interviews are the most widely used technique used in qualitative research (Lawrence, 2006; Resnik, 2010). This type of interview offers an occasion for the investigator to become aware of the essentials of assessment and its objective(s) (Patton, 2002), it allows more attentive chat and follow-up questions, and participants may propose facts that they would not offer in a group context (Lawrence, 2006). The individual interview may provide an excellent source for stories and perspectives from which one is able to observe the non-verbal conduct of an interviewee (Bernard, Ruseell & Gerry, 2009), and it allows the interviewer to investigate social and personal matters deeply (Rubin & Rubin, 2011). Because this study is an in-depth hermeneutic phenomenological one, the participants were asked to describe, in detail, their experiences of the phenomenon of inclusion of learners with dyslexia in the mainstream primary schools of Kinshasa. Through individual interviews, data was collected in a relaxed atmosphere where I gently probed participants to provide more detail regarding the phenomenon (Creswell, 2014), by offering experiences, emotions, and narratives that they perhaps would not have given in a group context (Creswell, 2012). This provided more ideas, understanding, and insight into the phenomenon (Yin, 2012).

In this study individual interviews were held with four school principals coming from the four selected mainstream primary schools. The first individual interview with the principal of EPA1 GOM was conducted on a Monday afternoon, the second individual interview with the principal of EPA2 GOM was conducted on a Tuesday afternoon, while the third interview with the principal of EPA1 ANG was conducted on a Wednesday afternoon; the fourth interview with the principal of EPA TOB was conducted on a Thursday afternoon.

Prior to the individual interviews with each principal of each school, I arrived in her or his office 30 minutes before starting the interview process. Before the interview I explained the aim of the research to the principal and the different benefits that could be drawn from the study. I also again highlighted some items which were designated in the consent letter such as confidentiality, anonymity, freedom to withdraw from the study, and what would happen to the data. In addition, some rules were set up for the purpose of an effective interview, such as that the cell phone should be switched off or silenced during the duration of the session and that the interview would be conducted in French. Before the start of the interview, I switched on the recorder devices and led the interview process in the line of the study topic, ensuring that the principal would answer the same questions which were asked in the focus group, one by one. Probing questions were also used to clarify ambiguous answers. The aims of this interview was to help the principal to reveal all the information in relation to the topic. After obtaining the necessary answers in all interview sessions, I stopped the recording devices and gave to each principal my number and also acquired their numbers in case there were any other matters they (or I) might want to follow up. I also advised the principals about getting hold of a copy of the published thesis at Unisa online institutional repository. Each individual interview was transcribed, the total number of pages coming to 20. Each interview was conducted in the respective school office of each principal and each lasted for 55 minutes (approximately). The participants were asked the same interview questions which was posed in the focus group interview, as illustrated in Appendix XV (in English) and Appendix XVI (in French).

4.3.6 Data Analysis

The phenomenological research procedures start with identifying the phenomenon (epoche) throughout the investigation (Moustakas, 1994). The data are analyzed and

scrutinized by following phenomenological data analyzing procedure of Moustakas, through phenomenological interviews with participants who had experienced the phenomenon (Rockmore, 2011). The hermeneutic phenomenological analysis starts with bracketing the subjectivity of research which refers to elucidate presumption during the study by setting apart the biases and predispositions of researcher towards the phenomenon (Langdrige, 2007).

In order to analyse and interpret the data of this study, I followed the process detailed by Lindseth and Norberg (2004), which is based on Ricoeur's (1976) phenomenological hermeneutical interpretation theory. This involved three steps, namely naïve reading, structural analysis, and comprehensive understanding. The interviews were recorded and transcribed in French. The recorded and transcribed data were translated from French into English for the purpose of data analysis. All the data were analysed manually by following all the steps of hermeneutic phenomenological approaches detailed by Lindseth and Norberg.

Step 1: Naïve reading

I read all interview transcripts several times in order to grasp the whole meaning of the text and to validate or invalidate the data (Ashworth, Giorgi & De Koning, 1986). I then interpreted each focus group and individual interview transcript separately. The purpose of this was to become familiar with the data and to acquire a holistic sense of the latter.

Step 2: Structural analysis

During this step, I read the texts again to determine the natural meaning units as expressed by the teachers and principals (Kvale, 1996). The meaning units were then formulated into a more condensed form. This step allowed me to engage in a fruitful analytic reflection that might provide answers to the research questions (Wertz, 2011). Meaning units were then further sorted into categories, themes, and subthemes. I subsequently measured these categories, themes, and subthemes against the backdrop of my naïve understanding. Finally, I checked whether the categories, themes, subthemes, meaning units, and naïve understanding validated each other.

Step 3: Comprehensive understanding

In this step, I summarized and reflected upon each interview's categories, themes, subthemes, and meaning units in relation to the research question "how do teachers include learners with dyslexia in mainstream primary schools of Kinshasa?" (Lindseth & Norberg, 2004). This step consisted of making use of free creative associations to determine what the data said about the psychological phenomenon under scrutiny (Kvale, 1996). I thereafter composed a final initial interpretation of the text (Lindseth & Norberg, 2004). To arrive at a deeper analysis and interpretation, I viewed the text through the theoretical lenses of inclusive education, inclusive practices, and a human rights framework (Cunliffe, 2003).

I concluded this phase by interpreting the interviews as a structural whole by making use of a hermeneutic circle (Annells, 1996). This was subsequently formulated into a final statement in everyday language to closely reflect the lived experiences of teachers and principals.

4.3.7 Trustworthiness of the study

In qualitative research, trustworthiness is known as comprising credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability (Golafshani, 2003; Curtin & Fossey, 2007; Anney, 2014). Trustworthiness involves convincing audiences and oneself, as the researcher that the findings of an inquiry are worth paying attention to (Guba and Lincoln, 2005).

Credibility is defined as the assurance that can be placed on the accuracy of the research results (Holloway & Wheeler, 2002; Macnee & McCabe, 2008). It establishes whether or not the research results signify credible information gained from the participants' novel data and are an accurate analysis of the original opinions of the participants (Holloway & Wheeler, 2002; Graneheim & Lundman, 2004). In this study, credibility was established through adopting a qualitative approach, being congruent with hermeneutic phenomenological assumptions and by collecting detailed information through both focus groups and individual interviews at the selected mainstream primary schools of research interest for the purpose of data collection.

Transferability is the degree to which the results or findings of the study can be applied to other parallel contexts (Leedy & Omrod, 2014). In this study transferability was secured through detailed descriptions of methodological processes in section 4.3 to reflect the applicability of the phenomenon of inclusion of learners with dyslexia in mainstream primary schools.

Dependability concerns the extent to which the findings are consistent and reflect the views of the participants (Rolfe, G. 2006). This was achieved through management of research sites (I did not have control over the schools, because, as indicated, these were chosen by the Manager of Basic Education of Kinshasa West), field notes in the form of a reflective journal (I made notes of my thinking, the challenges and emotional responses in the journal) and being faithful to the use of a qualitative approach and the principles of a phenomenological study (discussed in section 4.3.5)

Confirmability refers to the degree of neutrality to which the research is free from study bias. This was realized through member checking and giving a thorough description of methods used for audit trail (Fossey, Harvey, & Davidson, 2009). Please refer to “comprehensive understanding” under section 4.3.5.

4.3.8 Ethical Considerations

According to Halai (2006), there are basic ethical principles involved in research relating to using humans in a research study. These ethical principles are the fundamental concepts of ethical research that assisted me to undertake the study in normal way (King, 2010). The present study followed required ethical clearance measures prior to the beginning of the study, and attention was paid to the following ethical issues while carrying out this study: informed and voluntary consent, confidentiality of information shared, no harm to participants, right to withdraw, and beneficence.

4.3.8.1 Ethical clearance

To lay the ethical foundation of the study, I obtained permission to conduct the investigation from the Research Ethics Committee (REC) at UNISA. The REC permission letter is attached in Appendix I and II. A letter was sent to the department of Basic Education in Kinshasa West district to request permission to conduct the study

in the primary schools; it is attached in Appendix III (in French) and appendix IV (translated into English). The letter granting permission to collect data from selected schools, obtained from the Manager of Basic Education of Kinshasa's West District, is attached in Appendix V (in French) and Appendix VI (translated into English).

4.3.8.2 Informed and voluntary consent

The prerequisite for informed consent instructs one to deliver acceptable information to research members on what the study is about, the dangers and the benefits of partaking in the study, while the information should be communicated in clear and modest language (King, 2010). In addition, the researcher should highlight matters and limits of confidentiality of the study in order to help the decision of the prospective participant to agree to participate in the study, or not (Bryman & Bell, 2007; Hays & Singh, 2012). However, in this study participants were informed that this study was intended for doctoral purposes and their experiences and opinions on inclusion of learners with dyslexia in their mainstream school would be communicated in the form of a thesis, research report, seminar presentation and journal publication. In this study the participants who were willing to participate in the interview were asked to sign a consent form indicating their willingness (see appendix VII for a sample of a consent form).

4.3.8.3 Confidentiality of information shared

Confidentiality is the protection of the identity of research participants so that their identities cannot be exposed in the research findings (Grinyer, 2002). Confidentiality was more critical in dealing with teachers and principals who felt that they could not express many views about the opinion of the government in relation to the inclusion of learners with dyslexia in mainstream primary schools, because they feared some of the information they might give concerning the said opinion of the government could put them in danger or result in imprisonment. But I once more reassured them that all the information which they would reveal was for my doctoral studies and had nothing to do with the government of the country. Therefore, to protect their confidentiality in this study, their names and the names of their schools were used as pseudonyms instead of the real names and I promised to keep discreet all the information received from them (participants) during the interview; hence all the information would be

confidential and would not be shared or revealed by any authority or any individual without their (research participants') permission.

4.3.8.4 No harm to participants

King (2010) pointed out that harm consists of exposing participants to situations or settings that might cause distress, humiliation, discouragement, physical hurt and discomfort. Therefore, it is advised that researchers abstain from increasing the anticipation of applicants by exaggerating the effect of the research (Walliman, 2005). For the purpose of this study, I ensured participants would not suffer any form of danger, because I adhered to certain issues of ethical clearance, namely their right to withdraw from the study and confidentiality.

4.3.8.5 Right to withdraw

During data collection through interviews, I had the obligation to explain to participants that they had the right to withdraw from the interview at any time they wished (King, 2010). In this study, the right to withdraw from the study altogether was explained to the participants at the session prior to the focus group and individual interview, discussed in section 4.3.4 of data collection, and informed and voluntary consent was given as discussed in section 4.3.8.2.

4.3.8.6 Beneficence

I explained to each participant who took part in this study several benefits of the study: The data collected would be useful in the field of inclusion of all learners with disabilities and learners with dyslexia in particular, because they will have access into mainstream primary schools. The outcomes of the present study would add to the limited literature on the inclusion of learners with dyslexia in the mainstream school system in Kinshasa and in the DRC in general. Teachers, staff and education stakeholders in mainstream schools of the DRC and other countries would benefit from the findings of this study. This study will also assist the Department to arrange in-service training and workshops. The Department of Education, as the policymaker, could also develop ways to provide effective inclusion for all learners with disabilities. For this reason, in this study the participants were not financially rewarded by taking part in it, because they were

encouraged to participate willingly owing to the communal benefit that would emerge from this study.

4.4 Challenges experienced in the field

The researcher experienced several challenges. Firstly, the head of Basic Education of Kinshasa's West District chose the schools where data were collected. Secondly, participants were chosen by principals of the schools. This did make it difficult for them to express openly and answer the questions without fear. Thirdly, during the data collection process most schools were on strike. This strike delayed the process of data collection for almost four months. In addition, most of the participants did not have an appropriate knowledge and experience in teaching learners with dyslexia. This implies that all these challenges could have affect the process of data collection. Fourthly, due to the political environment in the DRC and the fact that participants were chosen by their principals, Participants were afraid to voice their opinions freely in regards to the question related to government educational policies, this process could has make it difficult for the researcher to engage with key informant. All these challenges work against the scientific research project and rigor.

4.5 Chapter summary

The focus of this chapter was to detail the methodology used and the justification thereof. The chapter commenced by discussing the research design, the research paradigm, and the approach to the study. Then followed a comprehensive discussion on the research method, by referring to the research context, researcher roles, population and sampling, data collection and analysis. The chapter concludes by discussing the trustworthiness of the entire research project, the ethical considerations, which were adhered to, and by providing this chapter summary. In the next chapter, the findings of the study are presented and discussed.

CHAPTER 5

RESEARCH FINDINGS

5.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the findings of the empirical study are presented. These, based on the focus groups and the individual interviews, are offered in the form of themes and sub-themes along with a brief integrated literature discussion.

As a reminder to the reader, the four specific empirical objectives were formulated as follows (see section 1.5):

- Explore teachers' understanding of inclusion of learners with dyslexia in mainstream primary schools of Kinshasa.
- Describe how learners with dyslexia are included in the mainstream primary schools of Kinshasa
- Explain factors that influence teachers' practices on inclusion of learners with dyslexia in the mainstream primary schools of Kinshasa.
- Propose strategies for the inclusion of learners with dyslexia in ordinary primary school classrooms.

In the next section, the findings of the study are presented with reference to the selected paradigm. The themes and sub-themes emanated from the researcher's analysis and interpretation of the data.

For the benefit of the reader, the themes and sub-themes are presented in tabular form (Table 5.1) below. I have also decided to reflect the relevant empirical aims of the study to indicate to the reader that what has been investigated and what will be presented are congruent with the objectives of the study.

Table 5.1: Major themes and sub-themes

Teachers' understanding of learner inclusion	
Themes	Sub-themes
1. Perspective 1: Inclusive education as a concept	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sharing a similar classroom or school environment • Education as human right • Inclusive education as challenging integrative process • Accepting the "other"
2. Perspective 2: Inclusive education in practice	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Current limiting factors • Future enabling factors
Teachers' lived experiences of learner inclusion	
Themes	Sub-themes
1. Communication and engagement by school authorities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Silent dialogue • Limited communication • Inclusion by default
2. Inclusive classroom experiences	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Absence of integration • Inclusion as a demanding process • Absence of special training
Teachers' application of learner inclusive practices	
Themes	Sub-themes
1. Inclusive practices	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Inclusion through identification • Inclusion by coincidence
2. Collaborative efforts	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Teacher-principal and parent dialogue
3. Final recourse	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Submission of transfer report
Factors impacting teachers' inclusive practices	
Themes	Sub-themes
1. Impeding factors	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The lack of adequate specialist training • The reality of overcrowded schools • The demotivating effect of poor salaries • The lack of enabling resources • The absence of strong teaching teams • The lack of awareness campaigns • The impact of hostile school environment • The pressure of school fees on parents
Strategies to enhance the inclusion of learners	
Themes	Sub-themes
1. Enhancement Strategies	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Strategies at Micro level • Strategies at Meso level • Strategies at Macro level

Please note that all quotations from the interviews below are largely reproduced verbatim; however, some of the themes have been edited in line with the paradigm of the study (Crowther et al., 2016; Van Manen, 2014). The reader will also note that evidence from the participants is followed by a code. In accordance with the latest

trends in qualitative research, the researcher provided a code after each quotation so that the reader can discern which participant “speaks” as the phenomenological story unfolds. The code (e.g. 1/GOM/F/A) reflects the focus group, where the data was collected, the gender, and number of the participant.

5.2 Presentation of the Findings

In the next section, participants’ understandings regarding inclusion of learners with dyslexia are presented and discussed.

5.2.1 Empirical aim 1: Teachers’ understanding of learner inclusion

Participants (teachers and principals) seem to share a common understanding of the term “inclusive education”. However, there is little consensus on putting inclusive education into practice and on inclusion as a basic human right, which will be discussed later in this section. Participants generally understand inclusive education as the practice where all learners are accommodated in the same classroom setting, irrespective of their ability.

It is clear that teachers seem to share certain perspectives about inclusive education as a concept. However, there are also several differences in terms of how they perceive inclusive education.

5.2.1.1 Perspectives: Inclusive education as a concept

The following are some of the more pertinent perspectives that teachers and principals have shared within their context of primary education in the DRC.

A. Sharing a similar classroom or school environment

The predominant conceptualization of inclusive education seems to be that learners with dyslexia should be integrated into mainstream primary schools by sharing the same classroom, engaging in the same educational activities, and by being taught the same curriculum as their peers who do not suffer from dyslexia, or any other learning disability.

For example, thirteen (13) participants seem to stress the sharing of the same, physical classroom space. Participants who subscribe to this perception described inclusive education as follows:

For me inclusive education is a new term, here in DRC we don't have it yet, I believe inclusive education is a term that ask every children to be in the same classroom (1/GOM/F/B).

Another participant in the same focus group responded,

I do not really know, but I think inclusive education is to put all sex in one classroom (1/GOM/M/E).

Participants in another focus group shared

inclusive education means education for all in the same classroom”(2/GOM/M/A); This term means accommodating children in one classroom environment (2/GOM/M/D); For me inclusive education means teaching activities should be oriented in one classroom for all learners (2/GOM/F/E);

As well as

The term inclusive education means children should be included in the same classroom setting (2/GOM/M/F).

In line with this thinking, a participant in the third focus group shared:

Inclusive education means education for all children in the learning environment and in the same classroom setting (3/TOB/M/A).

Even some of the principals concurred with this type of thinking:

...the concept inclusive education means all learners have the right to be educated in the same classroom (2/ANG/M)

Finally,

According to my understanding, inclusive education is a concept that allow education of all learners in one classroom environment (4/TOB/F).

Some participants (3) seemed to focus on the sharing of the same learning environment, or the same school environment, which sounds slightly different from the sharing of just a physical classroom space.

For example:

I think inclusive education is about to include all children in the same learning environment (1/GOM/F/C);

And:

Inclusive education is a concept of allowing all children in same learning environment and in one school setting (1/GOM/F/F);

As well as:

Inclusive education means including all children in the same school environment (3/TOB/M/B).

In 3 participants' understanding, they highlighted the importance of being in the same mainstream schools, for example,

Inclusive education means that education authority should enroll all children in the same mainstream schools (3/TOB/F/E).

And

Inclusive education means that education authority should enroll all children in the same mainstream schools (4/ANG/F/E).

B. Education as a [human] right

A number of participants felt very strongly that inclusive education should not simply be seen as a privilege and that it should not be perceived as something that occurs by default. They view inclusive education as a basic human right that should be respected and encouraged.

Thus, these participants (8) perceived inclusive education as a (human) right and or a choice, for example:

Inclusive education means all children have the right to be educated in any schools of their choice... (3/TOB/F/F);

And:

For me inclusive education means all learners have the right to study in the same classroom setting (2/GOM/F/B).

Another participant stated:

...inclusive education means inclusion of all learners in a particular school of the choice of their parents (3/TOB/F/E);

With another adding:

...the concept inclusive education means all learners have the right to be educated in the same classroom (2/ANG/M).

Thus, inclusive education is conceptualized as a basic human rights issue and also that effective learning can only take place in an environment that is free from discriminatory practices. The separation of learners based on their learning ability is thus seen as a social and political issue and should be addressed with all available resources in these domains.

Finally, there was one participant who defined inclusive education as “an educational approach”.

He/she declared,

...inclusive education means an educational approach that allow teachers to use image, blackboard, photos during classroom activities (1/GOM/F).

What was surprising was that one participant suggested that learners with disabilities should be placed in different learning environments, as follows:

For me inclusive education means learners with learning disability should be schooled in different learning environment that is different to mainstream school environment (3/GOM/M).

Reflecting on the above conceptualisations, it appears that teachers' understanding seems to reflect several critical aspects of how learner inclusion is generally defined:

- What is perhaps problematic is the understanding of inclusive education as being limited to sharing (physical) space. The possible limitation is that students with disabilities could be physically present, but do not experience an integrated learning experience. Physical presence cannot be equated with inclusive education.
- What is to be welcomed is that some participants highlighted the importance of inclusive education as being a right/the exercise of a choice. Learners must lay claim to equitable access. It is a basic human right for all and not the privilege of the few. All learners have the right to achieve their full potential in pursuit of the best possible education.
- Inclusion does not simply imply integration. At the centre of inclusion lies the meaningful participation of ALL learners. Teachers have to realise that the student is directly affected by all the activities in the classroom. One of the factors that impact on learning efficiency comprises the conditions under which learning takes place. How teachers understand inclusive education is therefore relevant to how they are going to behave in the classroom situation.

C. Inclusive education as a challenging integrative process

It is not unreasonable to assume that inclusive education could be a difficult intervention to implement, given one's social, political and economic context. Four participants alluded to the perceived or actual difficulties, despite inclusive education being perceived as a human rights issue. Integration often poses its own challenges that should be acknowledged and addressed. Participants shared the following thoughts and perceptions:

*Me as a teacher, inclusion of learners with dyslexia in mainstream primary school is **not easy as people think**, because it involves teacher's knowledge about their inclusion and inclusive pedagogy...
(2/GOM/M/F)*

Another participant observed:

*For me, the idea of teaching children with dyslexia alongside with normal peers, it will be a **hard and difficult task** because there is only one teacher in one classroom, and most of our classrooms have 40 to 50 children. Mixing both categories of learners in the same classroom, it will disturb learning outcomes (1/GOM/F/A).*

Also:

*It is impossible to mix dyslexic learners and non-dyslexic learners in the same classroom; because learners with dyslexia will **need more attention** and this will affect the learning style of non-dyslexic learners. (1/GOM/M/E).*

Another participant expressed a similar sentiment:

***This idea is impossible**, it cannot be happen in DRC context, because there is no money to support the idea of putting learners with dyslexia and their colleague without dyslexia in the same classroom. (2/GOM/F/E).*

However, these difficulties should not deter policymakers from implementing what is required, as suggested by another participant:

Although educating learners with dyslexia in mainstream school is difficult task, but learners with dyslexia have the right to be educated with their peers ... (2/GOM/M/D).

The integration of learners with disabilities is to be expected and provision should be made for inevitable challenges. Special resources should be made available to learners as well as teachers on the basis of an appropriate educational programme.

D. Accepting the “other”

An important dimension of inclusive education emerged during this study; I believe this dimension should always be safeguarded. This relates to how those who are perceived as being “different” should not simply be included because it is a compliance issue. Those with learning disabilities should feel that they are welcomed with warmth, understanding, compassion, and a sense of being valued. Inclusive education will only

be fully realised when this is the case. In response to the reaching out to learners with disabilities, at least 5 participants directly indicated that they should be either accepted, welcomed or embraced.

This participant shared:

For me the answer on this question means both learners should be involved in educational activities... (1/GOM/F.C)

Another one said:

...Education authorities should welcome learners with dyslexia to learn in the same environment with their fellow peers without dyslexia (2/GOM/F/B).

Similarly, a further one responded:

...learners with dyslexia should be accepted to learn with their non-dyslexic peers... (3/TOB/M/A).

Another response was:

...learners with dyslexia must be welcomed in the same setup... (4/ANG/F/F).

While finally,

This question means learners with dyslexia are welcome ...without restrictions, but appropriate learning materials should be available (3/TOB/F/F).

As alluded to earlier in this discussion, inclusion goes beyond placement, or even integration. It implies meaningful participation and contribution by “welcoming” the other. When this happens, education will be reachable for all, a complete and comprehensive class pedagogy for all learners will be a reality and inclusive education will start “in the head” of the educator.

5.2.1.2 Perspectives: inclusive education in practice

Both teachers and principals appear to be divided on the matter of integrating learners with and those without dyslexia in the same classroom environment.

A. Current limiting factors

A significant number of participants (17) feel that inclusive education from a learning disability perspective is not a good move. The rest of the participants (11) simply indicated that it was not a bad idea.

From those who thought that inclusive education was not a sensible choice, six (6) participants thought that teachers are simply not equipped with the specialist skills and knowledge to respond to the needs of students with different learning styles. For example:

...the government and education stakeholders need to train teachers on regular basis on inclusion in general and inclusion of learners with dyslexia in particular (1/GOM/F/F).

Another participant echoed this sentiment:

...teachers need trainings on inclusive education, human right and inclusive pedagogy... (2/GOM/F/C).

A third also expressed this view:

...teachers will require special training on dyslexia and inclusive education (3/TOB/M/D).

Other participants (3) thought that the classroom sizes in terms of the number of learners are too big and that this would have to be addressed. For instance,

...it is a hard and difficult task because there is only one teacher in one classroom, and most of our classrooms have 40 to 50 children... (1/GOM/F/A).

Similarly, another participant stated:

...there are 40 or 50 learners in one classroom; the classroom should be reduced by 20 learners, and also in each classroom should have two or more teachers' supporters (2/GOM/M/D).

While, finally,

It is impossible to teach learners with dyslexia with their fellow learners without dyslexia in the same classroom because there are 40 to 50 with only one teacher... (3/TOB/F/E).

Some participants claimed that inclusive education was not a sound concept because there are not sufficient resources to support this effort.

For example:

... [it] is not going to be happen in my country because the government will never provide money for such inclusion... (2/GOM/M/A).

And:

This idea is impossible, it cannot be happen in DRC context, because there is no money to support the idea... (2/GOM/M/D).

Some participants (2) simply stated that it was “*just impossible*”, that it was a “*lose-lose situation*” (1), that dyslexic learners require “*too much time and attention*” (1) and that they must “*go to special schools*” (1).

Thus, from the above presentation teachers seem to suggest that inclusive education is not a sound concept because:

- The performance of both dyslexic and non-dyslexic learners will be adversely affected;
- Dyslexic learners need more attention and this will affect the learning style of non-dyslexic learners;
- There is a lack of political will and resources to implement inclusive education;
- Dyslexic learners will learn more effectively in a separate, specialist learning environment; and
- The government will never make financial resources available for the inclusion of this category of learners.

B. Future enabling factors

Some participants (11) felt that inclusive education is in fact a sound policy. Of these participants, seven (7) felt very strongly that certain things had to move into place to make this a reality. Thus, these participants are of the opinion that even though inclusive education is a daunting task, it can be achieved. It will, however, require all critical stakeholders to play their role not only on an ad hoc basis, but also in a consistent and proactive manner. It is suggested that several enabling factors need to be in place.

The first of these is the need for **consistent, specialist training for teachers**. This critical need was expressed by the following participants (6):

I believe that for effective inclusion, the government and education stakeholders need to train teachers on regular basis on inclusion in general and inclusion of learners with dyslexia in particular” (1/GOM/F/F)

In addition:

As teacher, the idea of teaching children with dyslexia alongside with their peer without dyslexia will demand firstly teachers’ trainings on inclusive education... (2/GOM/F/C); and the idea of teaching children with dyslexia with their peer without dyslexia in the same classroom, it is impossible because we as teachers we don’t have the skills of inclusion (1/GOM/F).

Similarly,

Teaching learners with dyslexia with non-dyslexic require teachers to receive special training on dyslexia and inclusive education. (3/TOB/M/D).

As well as,

The idea of having learners with dyslexia with their fellow learners in the same classroom is not bad, however, training on area of dyslexia, inclusive education and human rights education should be done (4/ANG/F/F).

Teachers cannot give what they do not have. Thus, they will be enabled by providing them with the necessary knowledge, skills and motivation to implement inclusive education. It is also important for them to know how to create a conducive, stimulating classroom environment. With the assistance of these skills, teachers should be able to nurture a new culture in the classroom and eventually throughout the school system.

Another enabling factor is for the **size of classes to be reduced significantly**. Students have unique needs and learning styles. The bigger the classroom, the more difficult it becomes to respond effectively to diverse student needs. A number of participants highlighted the importance of smaller classrooms (6). For example, as already mentioned:

It is impossible to teach learners with dyslexia with their fellow learners without dyslexia in the same classroom of size of 40 to 50 with only one teacher, unless the classroom should be reduce by 20... (4/ANG/F/E).

Another participant shared,

It is an impossible task to teach learners with dyslexia with their fellows without dyslexia in the same classroom with up to 50 learners... (3/TOB/M/D).

A further one added,

I think this type of inclusion will demand firstly reduction of six of learners in each classroom, instead of having 50 ... learners in one classroom; the classroom should be reduced by at least 20 learners... (2/GOM/M/D)

A similar feeling was shared by this participant,

for me the inclusion is not bad, but class size must be reduce to 10 or 15 children, and number of dyslexic learners in a classroom cannot be more than 3 (1/GOM/M/D).

The sentiment was also expressed that **teachers have to support** each other by forming teaching teams and that the **number of dyslexic learners per class** should be restricted.

Hence, inclusive education requires a different and more creative way of thinking about education. Teachers supporting each other also constitutes a critical skill. The teachers (4) who mentioned teacher support, expressed the following sentiments:

...instead of one teacher in one classroom, it will be preferred to have even 3 more supporter teachers in a classroom (1/GOM/F/B).

This participant advocated that,

Also... each classroom should have two or more teachers' supporters (2/GOM/M/D)

Another one concurred:

...and instead of one teacher in a classroom, should have two at least in one classroom, plus a supporter teacher (3/TOB/F/E).

And lastly,

...classrooms should be reduce by 20 and instead of one teacher in a classroom, should have two at least in one classroom... (4/ANG/F/E).

Other sentiments which were strongly advocated, were that **salaries of teachers** need to be revised in order to motivate them and that teachers, parents, and the government need to form a more effective **teaching and education partnership**. At least three (3) participants expressed the notion that better salaries could enhance the motivation of teachers. For instance:

...secondly, the government need to increase the salary of teachers in order to motivate them, because inclusion of such learners demand extra works from teachers (2/GOM/F/C).

Furthermore:

...but the government must increase the salary of teachers... (3/TOB/F/F)

And finally,

...government must however, increase the salary of teachers... (4/ANG/F/F)

One participant was adamant that all these efforts would be futile, unless there were to be a strong partnership between all critical stakeholders. This participant declared:

...secondly teachers, parents and government should work hand to hand for effective inclusion (2/GOM/F/F).

Thus, to summarise these enabling factors for effective inclusion, participants asserted that teachers must receive the necessary training on dyslexia and inclusive education; the size of classes must be reduced significantly; teachers will have to support each other, by forming teams of two to three teachers per classroom; the number of dyslexic learners per classroom must also be reduced or managed; teachers need to understand and embrace the notion that education in general (inclusive education in particular) is a basic human right; the salaries of teachers need to be revised in order to motivate them, as inclusive education will demand extra effort from them; and teachers, parents, and the government need to form a more effective partnership.

Many factors need to fall into place for inclusive education to succeed. By the same token, it is also clear that many educators want to make inclusive education successful.

Teachers seem to have a common understanding of the inclusion of learners with dyslexia. To recapitulate: The primary difference appears to be approaching inclusive education as a practice, or as a basic human right. Participants generally perceive inclusive education as the practice where all learners are accommodated in the same classroom setting, irrespective of their ability.

The one group of participants seemed to emphasize the inclusion of learners as “integration” whereas the other group appeared to focus on learner inclusion as a “human right”. Both approaches are limited, if one compares them with how the perception of inclusive education has evolved over the years. The variation seems to be the result of different approaches to inclusive education as a construct and as a lived phenomenological experience. Inclusive education stresses the framework where all learners (children) are equally valued, treated with respect, and given real learning opportunities (Mittler, 2000). Thus, inclusive education goes beyond simple placement

or repositioning. This reflects people's mind-sets and attitudes and how it is experienced from the point of view of participants.

It is reasonable to assume that one cannot understand the inclusion of dyslexic learners if one has no comprehension of the manifestations of this problem. In the next section, despite this topic not being an explicit research question, participants' experiences regarding the inclusion of learners with dyslexia are briefly presented and discussed.

5.2.2 Teachers' lived experiences of learner inclusion

In the following section, the lived experiences of participants pertaining to learner inclusion with dyslexia are discussed. This section deals specifically with how school authorities engage with the issue of inclusive education and the real, lived classroom experiences of teachers.

5.2.2.1 Communication and engagement by school authorities

Teachers' phenomenological experiences regarding the communication and engagement of school authorities with the topic of inclusive education vary greatly. The experiences of teachers ranged from complete silence on the topic to limited communication by school authorities, and, finally, to those who experienced inclusive education by default.

A. Silent dialogue

Most participants (20) reported the school authority's total silence on this matter. The rest of the participants (8) reported some form of announcement or engagement on the matter. However, for most of the participants there was a deafening silence on inclusive education. One claimed that:

...my school does not talk about inclusive education... 1/GOM/F/A).

Or from another participant,

In my opinion, since I have been here in this school, I never hear my school authority talking about having inclusive education in my school (1/GOM/F/B).

Participants from another focus group responded,

The term inclusive education has never being spoken [of] by our school authority at any time (2/GOM/M/A); and again This educational system has never being spoken by our school or by any school authority (2/GOM/F/B), and Inclusive education is not being discussed in our school, but I hear the minister of education spoke about it in the television” (2/GOM/F/C).

Even some principals (2) concurred with this experience:

The concept of inclusive education is not yet spoken officially in our school premise, but I explain my staff that in the year to come it may be officially implemented (3/GOM/M).

Another principal agreed:

The concept of inclusive education in our school is not explained officially to my school, but the government, especially the ministry of education is planning to effectively implement it in years to come (4/TOB/F).

Thus, some participants had never even heard about the term inclusive education, at school, either during staff meetings, or in the general informal school environment.

B. Limited communication

However, a minority of participants (8) reported that they had heard about inclusive education from either the school at a staff meeting, or directly from a school principal. One of these participants answered:

[Y]es, my school authority has spoken about it one or two times during staff meeting (3/TOB/M/A).

Another participant said:

[O]ur school master always express his feeling about the term inclusive education (3/TOB/M/C).

Two others remarked,

My school authority has tried to speak to all teachers that in some years to come DRC may have inclusive education (3/TOB/M/D); and informally the concept inclusion has been spoken in our school, but we have not yet come into a formal stage of implementing inclusion in our school (2/ANG/M).

It is encouraging to hear that in certain contexts, inclusive education is at least being spoken about, whether the message is conveyed by a school principal or other school authorities.

C. Inclusion by default

One participant expressed that, because of this total absence of communication on this matter by school authorities, in some cases inclusive education has occurred by default. This participant said:

My school does not speak about inclusive education, but learners with learning disabilities in general and learners with dyslexia are practically included by default (1/GOM/F/A).

It is, therefore, evident from the responses above, that school authorities seem to be generally silent on the critical topic of inclusive education, as experienced by teachers at mainstream schools in Kinshasa.

Interviews conducted with some principals at selected mainstream schools also yielded mixed reactions. Two responded that inclusive education is indeed a topic of discussion during pedagogical meetings, for example:

I tried to discuss the concept of inclusive education in my school, but this is an early phase, because the educational authority has not yet implemented it... (1/GOM/F);

While two responded, negatively, for instance, *the concept of inclusive education is not yet spoken officially in our school premises... (3/GOM/F).*

5.2.2.2 Inclusive classroom experiences

Teachers' phenomenological experiences ranged from those who have not had any learners with dyslexia in their classrooms whatsoever to those who have had some experiences of this learning phenomenon.

A. Absence of integration

Virtually all the teachers (24) and the principals (4) shared that they have had no formal experience of learners with dyslexia in a classroom situation. They could therefore not share any significant experiences or practices and strategies in this regard. One responded as follows:

[I] don't have any experience on the inclusion of dyslexic learners in mainstream primary schools, because there is not any form of inclusion in our mainstream primary schools (2/GOM/F/E).

Another one shared:

Inclusive education is not yet implemented in our school, so I don't have any experience on the inclusion of dyslexic learners in primary school (3/TOB/M/D).

A participant from a different region said:

I am sorry I don't have any experience, because I have never taught a child with dyslexia in my school and also we don't have inclusive education in my school (4/ANG/F/E).

Another one concurred:

For me I don't have experience on the inclusion of learners with dyslexia because I never have a child identified with severe barrier of reading and writing in my classroom (1/GOM/M/D).

A participant from another group noted:

Talking about experience on inclusion of learners with dyslexia, to be honest I don't have any experience, because in our school there is no inclusion (2/GOM/M/D).

It would appear that some principals are not always clear whether such learners have dyslexia, or if they are simply struggling to read and write. It is encouraging to note that these principals encourage their teachers to put their best foot forward by assisting such learners as best they can. The following extracts reflect these efforts by principals:

But my duties as principal is if there is any child with what appears to be dyslexia in my school and classrooms, I must oblige my teachers to bring the child with "dyslexia" to same level as his peer without "dyslexia" (1/GOM/F).

Another principal asserted:

...but if there is one or two children with reading and writing in some of my classroom, I tell my teachers to work hard to improve the reading and the writing of a child who has problem (2/ANG/F).

Similarly, a third principal declared:

...but I tell my teachers to work hard to improve the reading and writing of such learners (3/GOM/M).

Finally, the last principal remarked:

...often we have children with barriers in reading and writing. We as educators we put all our energy to improve their barriers (4/TOB/F).

B. Inclusion as a demanding process

At least two participants shared difficult experiences. They were described as "hard", "difficult", "painful", and "emotionally disturbing". One participant observed:

[I]nclusion of learners with dyslexia is not yet established officially in our school, so we only have inclusion by default of one or two children

detected with severe barriers in reading and writing (dyslexia) in my classroom, it is not always every year. But the little experience I have, I can say that inclusion is hard and difficult (1GOM/F/B).

Another participant with limited exposure responded:

[I]n my career as teacher, I met a daughter of a medical doctor who was dyslexic in my classroom...it was a very painful task, because she could not even write her own name properly or read a simple sentence. In the classroom, most of the times I used to help her, but often her peers without dyslexia would help her instead of me. But I used to go to their home to help her after school hours (1/GOM/F/F).

These challenging experiences caused one participant to suggest that

...teachers need to be skilled effectively on the inclusion before they embark on it. (1/GOM/M/C).

The principals who were interviewed did not appear to have any pedagogical experience when it comes to interacting with learners with this disability. However, one principal appeared to be in touch with the perceived difficulty of this work, as well as the critical human rights component of this task, when she answered:

[I]t is impossible to talk about my experience on the inclusion of learners with dyslexia, this is because I don't have any formal experience. However, my duties as teacher is if there is a child with dyslexia in my school and classrooms, I must bring the child with dyslexia at the same level with his peer without dyslexia (1/GOM/M/F).

C. Absence of special training

Teachers and principals agreed that they have never received any training on inclusive education in general, nor training to deal with learners suffering from dyslexia in particular. The special training that participants appeared to refer to revolved around three specific capacities:

- Training on how to effectively assist and support learners with learning disabilities

One participant responded as follows:

[T]he government of Congo, especially ministry of education does not send their teachers to further special training, for example, I never go to any special training since I finished my qualification as a teacher, and I never do any training in inclusive education. (3/TOB/M/A).

A second one remarked:

...I am sorry I never assist to any inclusive education training for learners with dyslexia in particular or learners with any type of learning disabilities, And I do not teach those learners in my classroom, this because it is not allowed in our education system. (3/TOB/F/F).

A third commented,

I do not have any special training on inclusive education for all types of learning disabilities in children (2/GOM/F/E).

- Training on how to go about creating an inclusive environment

One respondent acknowledged:

Since I have been a teacher, I never go to any special training whatsoever, especially training on how to create inclusive environment (3/TOB/M/C).

- Training on how to assist dyslexic learners

Two participants offered the following responses:

I am sorry I have never attended any inclusive education training for learners with dyslexia... (3/TOB/F/F).

And,

Since I have been a teacher I have never attended any form of training related ...to dyslexia in particular... (2/ANG/M).

5.2.3 Empirical aim 2: Teachers' Application of Learner Inclusive Practices

In the next section, participants' experiences regarding the practices they utilize to include learners with dyslexia in a classroom situation are presented and discussed. It will become evident how teachers reach out to learners in an ad hoc and informal manner in the absence of a formal, standard method of addressing dyslexic and other learning disability challenges.

5.2.3.1 Inclusive practices

A. Inclusion through identification

Participants appear to have very limited experiences when it comes to the application of inclusive practices in education. There seems to be a common response by teachers and principals pertaining to the question of how teachers include learners with dyslexia in primary schools. Since there is no formal way in which disabilities in general, and dyslexia in particular, are identified when a learner first goes to school, all learners are assumed to be free from any form of learning disability. It is only when the learner starts to present evidence of struggling to read and write that formal attention is paid and a more conscious intervention launched. One of the participants described this process as follows:

Teachers only identify them after seeing that they are incapable to read and write after many years being at school... (1/GOM/F/A).

B. Inclusion by coincidence

However, the general trend seems to be that learners with disability end up in the system by coincidence. There is no deliberate or formal integration of these learners. Teachers are then forced to improvise in an effort to aid these learners. A particular participant described his or her experiences as follows:

In our school, the inclusion of learners with dyslexia is done unconsciously, that means we never know if a child has dyslexia, but we discover it after some period when we see that the child is incapable of reading and writing as their peers in same classroom... (1/GOM/M/C).

Another participant remarked:

The inclusion of learners with dyslexia is done out of our control, because we don't know in beginning that a child is having dyslexia, but after being in classroom with the child, then we discover that the child is dyslexic, that means he or she having a barrier to read and write... (1/GOM/M/D).

1. Collaborative efforts

A. Teacher-principal and parent dialogue

Some teachers take a more interactive approach by involving some of the stakeholders to assist with the management of the learning disability. For example, the principal of the school and the parents of the learner are consulted when the progress of the latter is discussed. One participant provided this personal example:

Our school enrolls all learners without looking their learning barriers, but after spending some period with the child in the classroom, if I find that the child is incapable to read and write, and then I discuss education progress of that child with my school principal and the parent of the child... (1/GOM/F/B).

5.2.3.3 Final recourse

A. Submission of transfer request

Another participant shared that the situation was dealt with by simply requesting that learners be relocated to special schools. This participant described his experience as follows:

To be honest inclusion of learners with dyslexia in our primary schools never being done officially, but sometime during three or four months of child being in my classroom I discover that the child has a severe problem

in reading and writing compare with his or her peer, although he may receive extra hours for his or her reading and writing, then later we ask the parents to transfer the child in special school... (3/TOB/M/A).

Thus, this response appears to indicate that the teacher would try his or her best to assist the learner, without any form of specialist teaching skills or training; when the teacher fails to make any significant difference, he or she would then request the parents to transfer the child to a specialist institution. However, prior to making the request for a transfer, some principals also indicated that they are obliged to exert pressure on teachers to include learners with learning disabilities in their classroom, as reflected by the following principal:

*In our school, there is no formal inclusion of learners with dyslexia in our classrooms. Therefore, I do not have any form of practice toward them, but as a principal of my school if there are children with dyslexia by default in our classroom settings, **I will force teachers in my school** to work hard to bring their intellectual level at the same level of learners without dyslexia... (1/GOM/F).*

5.2.4 Empirical aim 3: Factors impacting teachers' inclusive practices

5.2.4.1 Impeding factors

It is evident from the above discussion that inclusive education is not being practiced (formally) in mainstream primary schools in the DRC. Certain factors are impeding these practices. The major ones, in terms of the number of times these factors have been mentioned, appear to be the following:

- **The lack of adequate specialist training**

Teachers do not seem to have received the necessary training, pedagogies, strategies, and other teaching resources to assist learners with learning disabilities, including dyslexia. They also do not appear to enjoy the support of critical stakeholders to facilitate the integration and inclusion process, which perhaps should be part of their training. However, their greatest challenge seems to be their personal thinking about the inclusion process. They seem to believe that equal access and full integration

would be a daunting task in that both groups of learners (dyslexic and non-dyslexic) would not receive full access to the type of education that they deserve. One of the fourteen (14) teachers who specifically highlighted the adverse impact of the lack of training responded as follows:

DRC government need to provide training on inclusive education to all teachers of mainstream classroom before implementation of inclusive education of all learners, dyslexic learners in particular (1/GOM/F/A).

Another one stated:

The DRC government should...train them [teachers] on inclusive education (1/GOM/F/F).

Participants from another focus group responded:

The training of teachers on inclusive education and learning disability should be priority... (2/GOM/M/A)

And,

Every teacher in mainstream schools should have training every three months (2/GOM/M/D).

Similarly, participants from other focus groups added:

...the government needs to train teachers on inclusive education first (3/TOB/M/A), and it should ...train teachers that will help them to teach simultaneously learners with and without disabilities in primary school settings (4/ANG/M/B).

- **The reality of overcrowded classrooms**

The reality of struggling in overcrowded classrooms, was another concern. Some teachers have to cope with up to 40 or even 50 learners in a classroom. Under these challenging conditions it is very easy for learners with disabilities to “get lost” in the system. At least eight (8) participants stressed the challenges associated with overcrowded classrooms. As one shared:

Education authorities and stakeholders should reduce the class size of learners in one classroom (1/GOM/F/C).

Another participant responded,

...the class size should be reduced to 20 children... (4/ANG/M/D).

One of the principals also concurred with this sentiment:

...the government has to create inclusive classroom that can afford not more than 20 learners in maximum in one classroom... (1/GOM/F).

- **The demotivating effect of poor salaries**

Some (8) participants also complained about poor remuneration practices, in the form of inadequate salaries. They felt that when teachers are better remunerated their motivation levels would be enhanced and they might be prepared to walk the proverbial extra mile.

These concerns were expressed as follows:

The DRC government should first increase the salary of teachers of mainstream schools... (1/GOM/F/F).

As well as,

The DRC government must value teachers by increasing their salaries (2/GOM/F/C).

And finally,

The government needs to motivate teachers by increasing their salaries (3/TOB/M/C).

Two out of the four principals also appeared to perceive the value of increasing the salaries of teachers:

... pay good salaries to teachers for their motivation... (3/GOM/M), and ... The government should first increase salary of teachers in order to motivate them, because they are not well paid (4/TOB/F).

- **The lack of enabling resources**

Another challenge seems to be the reluctance of stakeholders (especially the government) to make the necessary resources available, whether in the form of finance, infrastructure and or other materials. This is disappointing given the fact already emphasised, that the government of the DRC is signatory to several declarations on inclusive education for all. This approach is also rather short-sighted, given the perspective that learners with disabilities should still be allowed to live a full social and productive life after their mainstream schooling.

In the absence of equal access to education, it is likely that they will remain dependent on their families or other institutions for their socioeconomic survival. One of the participants reflected the doubt in the DRC government's inability to provide the necessary resources as follows:

For me it is a good idea, but inclusion of dyslexic learners is costly and would demand large amounts of money, knowing my country this cannot be done, because the government will never allocate money for the inclusion of this category of learners... (2/GOM/F/B).

Furthermore,

The government of DRC should provide enough material resources and finances to all education authorities that will help them to build inclusive classrooms and environments for all learners with special education need in general and dyslexic learners in particular (1/GOM/M/D).

Another one stated,

Education department need to provide inclusive education resources, equipment and materials (3/TOB/M/C).

Similarly, another one asserted,

...the government and education authorities need to provide educational resource and fund that easy the implementation of inclusive education (4/ANG/M/C).

- **The absence of strong teaching teams**

Another limiting factor which was mentioned was how difficult it was for a single teacher to manage an overcrowded classroom. One of the proposed solutions appeared to be the formation of teaching teams to support each other by taking responsibility for different tasks. At least (4) participants highlighted this specific factor. Examples follow:

The numbers of teachers have to be increase, instead of one teacher in a classroom; they should have 1 main teacher or 2 assistant teachers in a classroom (3/TOB/F/E).

Another one declared,

...each classroom should have two or three teachers instead of one (4/ANG/F/E).

This was supported by another teacher,

The numbers of teachers have to be increase, instead of one teacher in a classroom; they should have 2 or 3 teachers in a classroom (4/ANG/F/F).

Lastly,

...And in each classroom, they must be two assistant teachers and one main teacher (4/TOB/F).

- **The lack of effective awareness campaigns**

A rather interesting factor which was mentioned was the need for effective awareness campaigns to be launched. Three (3) participants stressed the importance of these campaigns; one emphasised this point as follows:

...The ministry of education should provide a campaign of inclusive education to all the sectors of education (1/GOM/F/A).

A participant in a different focus group stated:

The school authorities should organize an awareness campaign of inclusive education of learner with dyslexia, schools stakeholders, government, parent and communities must be involved (2/GOM/F/E).

This sentiment was supported by another participant,

...for effective inclusion in DRC, the government need to provide a campaign of inclusive education (2/ANG/M).

- **The adverse impact of a hostile school environment**

Perhaps “hostile” is a strong word, but one participant felt that the school environment is not friendly and conducive when it comes to dyslexia. This feeling was expressed as follows:

To create friendly environment ...especially for those with dyslexia (2/GOM/M/F).

- **The pressure of school fees on parents**

Finally, the issue of parents being responsible for school fees was also addressed. One participant made the following suggestion:

...let government to be in charge of schools fees of the learners, instead of parents” (3/GOM/M).

5.2.5 Empirical Aim 4: Proposed strategies for inclusion of learners with dyslexia

In this section, the fourth empirical aim of the study is addressed, namely, to propose strategies for the inclusion of learners with dyslexia in ordinary primary school

classrooms. This aim is addressed by identifying strategies at the micro, the meso, and macro level of the education system as a whole.

5.2.5.1 Strategies at Micro level

It was evident from participant responses that an optimal learning environment had to be created. This learning environment can be optimized through teacher empowerment in the form of relevant and ongoing training on inclusive education, appropriate pedagogical approaches and learning disabilities. In this regard, stakeholder involvement also plays a role, for example, the learner, fellow learners, teachers, and the parents. Considering the vast number of learners, classroom management could also be an issue. It was proposed that teaching staff should be increased per classroom. Participants offered the following experiences and suggestions regarding strategies at the meso level.

a. Increase the number of teachers

The numbers of teachers must be increase, instead of one teacher in a classroom; they should have 2 or 3 teachers in a classroom (4/ANG/F/F).

This was supported by another teacher,

...And in each classroom, they must be two assistant teachers and one main teacher (4/TOB/F).

b. Training of teachers on inclusive education and learning disability

In relation to training, the following was shared:

The DRC government need to provide training on inclusive education to all teachers of mainstream classroom before implementation of inclusive education of all learners, dyslexic learners in particular (1/GOM/F/A).

Another one said:

The DRC government should...train them [teachers] on inclusive education (1/GOM/F/F).

Participants from another focus group responded as follows:

The training of teachers on inclusive education and learning disability should be priority... (2/GOM/M/A)

And another one shared,

Every teacher in mainstream schools should have training every three months (2/GOM/M/D).

In relation to teacher practice on the inclusion of learners with dyslexia in primary school, the following was shared:

Inclusive education in mainstream primary schools of my country is not yet implemented, including the one of learners with dyslexia; therefore, I don't have any practice of the inclusion of learners with dyslexia in our school (2/GOM/M/F).

This sentiment was supported by a participant in a different focus group,

...our mainstream primary school lacks inclusion, therefore me as a teacher I never have a chance to practice inclusion of any child with learning disability in general and those with dyslexia in particular (3/TOB/F/F).

Participant from Another focus group stated that,

The implementation of Inclusive education does not exist in DRC mainstream schools, so the practice to inclusion cannot be done (1/GOM/F/F).

Another participant declared that,

I don't practice any inclusion, because there is no inclusive education in all mainstream primary schools in our country, even in our school, therefore I don't know any practice about the inclusion of learners with dyslexia (2/GOM/M/D).

This was supported by a principal at an individual interview,

it is impossible to talk about my experience on the inclusion of learners with dyslexia, this because I don't have any formal experience. But my duties as principal is if there is any child with dyslexia in my school and classrooms, I

must oblige my teachers to bring the child with dyslexia at the same level with his peer without dyslexia (1/GOM/F).

A participant in a different focus group stated:

I don't practice any inclusion, because there is no inclusive education in all mainstream primary schools in our country, even in our school, therefore I don't know any practice about the inclusion of learners with dyslexia (2/GOM/M/D).

Lastly,

I don't have any practice of inclusion of dyslexic learners in our school, because we don't have inclusive school (4/ANG/M/B).

5.2.5.2 Strategies at Meso level

At the meso level, participants offered the following suggestions: principals as well as the school leadership should ensure that learners with dyslexia feel welcome, govern schools in an inclusive manner, underpinned by a human rights framework. Leadership behaviours must be encouraged, which emanate from an inclusive mindset. Discriminatory practices must be addressed with the full might of the law. Stakeholders from all lifestyles must be enrolled; and allocated school resources must be managed in an effective and efficient manner. Participants shared the following experiences in support of the strategies above.

One participant said:

...Education authorities should welcome learners with dyslexia to learn in the same environment with their fellow peers without dyslexia (2/GOM/F/B).

Similarly, a further one responded:

...learners with dyslexia should be accepted to learn with their non-dyslexic peers... (3/TOB/M/A).

One Participants from individual interview responded as follows:

...Education authorities need to provide material and equipment resource that will ease the teaching (4/TOB/F).

Likewise, a further participant from one focus group added:

...In order to implement inclusive education in DRC primary school, firstly the educational authorities should put in place necessary educational material, fund and the class size should be reduce to 20 children, and in each classroom should have two or three teachers instead of one.” (4/ANG/M/D)

And another participant from individual interview shared,

...Education authorities should provide educational material in all mainstream school, reducing the size of classroom, instead of 50 or 60 learners per class, it should be reduced to 25 or 30.”(3/GOM/M).

Similarly, a further participant in individual interview added:

...For effective implementation of inclusive education, the educational authorities has to create inclusive classroom that can afford not more than 20 learners in maximum in one classroom. (1/GOM/F).

Likewise, another participant in a different individual interview stated:

...And lastly the class size must be decrease from 60 to 25. And in each classroom, they must be two assistant teachers and one main teacher” (4/TOB/F).

5.2.5.3 Strategies at Macro level

Several strategies were also suggested at the macro level. This includes policies and procedures, national resource allocation, research, the kind of citizenship required and the driving of a social justice agenda. Some participants alluded to the driving a national awareness campaign from the highest to the lowest level. The necessary resources must be made available, underpinned by effective policy formation and execution. More research should be done to inform inclusive education and what should be done to galvanize this agenda. The following suggestions were offered in

support of the strategies, as discussed above. Relating to national campaigns, the following participants shared:

...The ministry of education should provide a campaign of inclusive education to all the sectors of education (1/GOM/F/A).

And,

The school authorities should organize an awareness campaign of inclusive education of learner with dyslexia, schools stakeholders, government, parent and communities must be involved (2/GOM/F/E).

Furthermore, another one stated,

The government of DRC should provide enough material resources and finances to all education authorities that will help them to build inclusive classrooms and environments for all learners with special education need in general and dyslexic learners in particular (1/GOM/M/D).

Another one said,

The Education department need to provide inclusive education resources, equipment and materials (3/TOB/M/C).

Similarly, another one asserted,

...the government and education authorities need to provide educational resource and fund that easy the implementation of inclusive education (4/ANG/M/C).

5.3 Chapter Summary

In this chapter, the findings of the study were discussed by referring to relevant literature in the field of inclusive education and within the context of a human rights framework. These findings were constructed based on the focus groups and the individual interviews and presented in the form of themes and sub-themes. The quotations of the interviews were reproduced in form of verbatim and the code were provided for each quotation in order to differentiate and discern participants. The findings were presented into four specific empirical aims namely: teachers' understanding of learner inclusion, teachers' application of learner inclusive practices,

factors impacting teachers' inclusive practices and propose strategies for inclusion. The chapter then concluded with a summary. The following chapter provides a more in-depth discussion guided by the hermeneutic phenomenological approach.

CHAPTER 6

DISCUSSION

6.1 Introduction

The findings of this study are discussed in this chapter, primarily from a human rights perspective in relation to the literature reviewed. This chapter also critically discusses the findings on the current educational research context, by presenting a comprehensive understanding of the inclusion of learners with dyslexia.

6.2 Educational Research Context

Despite recent economic progress, showing sustained growth of approximately 8.9% (Mokime & Bamou, 2017), the DRC is characterised by poor infrastructure, serious socioeconomic inequalities, inadequate educational and health services and few job opportunities, particularly for young people (Mminele, 2014; Kanyurhi, 2016). However, economic growth is expected to rise, in both the public and private sectors, while infrastructure building programmes are expected to link regions and provinces (Mokime & Bamou, 2015). The dynamic interplay between the above-mentioned adverse conditions may well pose risks for organisations, particularly in the education sector, in the form of poor morale and the marginalisation of those with few resources. Organisations, particularly in the education sector, should harness the expected growth and positive economic momentum (Mitonga-Monga, Flotman & Cilliers, 2018).

To reiterate: The education of learners with learning disabilities (such as dyslexia) has never been prioritised, and many of them are subject to discrimination in the mainstream schools settings (Association Congolaise de Personnes Handicapees, 2013). The government has been inactive in the provision of public services such as education, healthcare, water, and sanitation (International Federation for Human Rights, 2009). This neglect has resulted in the sustained marginalization of people with disabilities in society (Mbiyavanga, 2016). Compared with other countries, the DRC is lagging behind in terms of promoting the rights of people with disabilities (Lusambila & Kinkela, 2010).

Accordingly, in this context, the education system in general and learners with disability in particular, are confronted with a number of challenges. Those with learning

disabilities such as dyslexia who have access to mainstream schools, nevertheless do not have access to quality education, because teachers seem to lack inclusive education training and inclusive pedagogical materials (Mukau, 2008). Learners with disabilities are bullied and victimised by their peers without disabilities, because they do not know how to read and write, and (as mentioned) they are labelled by their peers and teachers as “*kizengi*” (“idiot”), or “*zoba*” (“someone who does not know anything”), or “*ndoki*” (“witch or witches”) (Mukau, 2008; Mukau, Roeyers & Develieger, 2010). As a result of this abuse, many of these learners with disabilities drop out of school and end up being unemployed, turn to drug abuse, or become involved in other criminal activities (Aldersey, 2013; UNICEF, 2008; Mena, 2018).

6.3 Comprehensive Understanding of Inclusion of Learners with Dyslexia

The aim of this study was to investigate the inclusion of learners with dyslexia in Kinshasa primary schools, with the ultimate intention of making recommendations to enhance inclusive education practices in the DRC. This discussion details the comprehensive understanding that resulted from the analysis and includes a reflection on the way forward towards a more inclusive human rights-based educational system for the DRC.

Participants to this study appear to have a difference of opinion when it comes to their understanding of the concept of inclusion and inclusive education. The different opinions from the participants regarding inclusion stem from the fact that the DRC does not have a legal framework pertaining to inclusion at all, especially inclusion of learners with learning disability such as learners with dyslexia. If a legal framework for inclusion had already been established in the country, this could assist teachers and principals to follow it in order to acquire the same understanding of inclusion in the DRC context. The absence of such a framework or policy on inclusion, seems to result in each teacher and principal behaving differently. Although the DRC is a signatory to numerous international treaties on education and inclusion, the country is still far behind the full implementation of inclusion, compared with countries who have already implemented the concept of inclusion (MINEPS-INC, 2011). Consequently, because of lack of implementation of international treaties on inclusion, the DRC is violating the educational human rights of learners with disability, and each teacher and principal of this study behaved differently in arriving at their understanding of the concept of

inclusion (Tshiunza, Bina & Kapinga, 2018). This finding appears to corroborate the findings of previous studies performed by Ametepée and Anastasiou (2015) and Opuku and co-workers (2015) stating that teachers require training for effective knowledge of the term “inclusion”. In addition, Zagrebu, Bukvić, and Obrazovanje (2015) and Al-Khamisy (2015) declared that there is not a single universal definition in defining and understanding the term “inclusion or inclusive education”. Therefore, “inclusion” appears to be a very complex phenomenon, because teachers and education stakeholders seem to have their own definition and understanding of the concept.

Inclusion has become a ruling principle in the 21st century that allows every learner to participate in the education system irrespective of differences in terms of disability, sex, religion, ethnicity, and so forth (Tsegaye & Moges, 2014). As noted, inclusion is the process of welcoming learners with different disabilities into mainstream schools (Benjamin, 2002), thereby becoming full participants in the school curriculum; in addition, it is the process of making the mainstream classroom a responsive environment capable of developing the capacities, needs and potential of *all learners* (The Salamanca Statement, 1994; Mitiku, Alemu & Mengsitu, 2014; Smith, 2004). Inclusion consequently requires an appropriate curriculum that empowers every learner to gain the essential basic cognitive expertise, which comprises crucial life skills that train learners to face the diverse challenges in life, conduct effective social relationships, advance their self-esteem and promote basic human rights values and morals (Bentaouet, 2006; Landsdown, Dina, & Mialy, 2007; Smith, 2004).

It can be concluded that “inclusive education” implies a philosophical framework where all learners have the moral right to be equally valued. When learners are valued, they are respected, and real learning opportunities are made available to them. There is thus a significant shift from merely accommodating and absorbing learners with disabilities to inclusion and valuing all learners. Thus, a human right is a moral right over against others, that is, a natural duty that ought to be taken into account by morally responsible decision makers, regardless of context (Metz, 2011).

Another significant finding is that most participants had never heard the term “inclusive education”, at school, during school meetings, or in the general informal school environment. A minority of participants reported that they had heard about inclusive

education from either the school at a staff meeting, or directly from a school principal. These findings confirm the outcome of a previous study by Tshiunza, Bina, and Kapinga (2018) in that inclusion is a mere slogan, there is little awareness and it is therefore not effectively practiced in the DRC.

In relation to communication and engagement by school authorities regarding inclusive education, the findings reveal that the experiences of teachers ranged from complete silence on the topic of inclusion to limited communication from school authorities. This finding corroborates the result of previous studies by Sónia (2012) and Rose (2009), indicating that education stakeholders should provide information, awareness, training and skills to teachers before embarking on inclusive education, since lack of awareness on inclusion has a deleterious impact on the effective inclusion of learners with dyslexia in the mainstream schoolroom.

In some cases, inclusive education has happened by default, without any screening and early assessment, because the school authorities in Kinshasa seem to be generally silent on this critical topic and there is a lack of full implementation of inclusion in the country, while, as noted, the government does not really have a full legal framework and regulation that is able to enforce early assessment of all learners in general and dyslexia in particular prior to achieving an efficient educational output. This finding confirms the result of previous research reported on by Agono (2012) and Vellutino, Scanlon, and Fanuelle (2006): that for effective inclusion to happen, early screening and assessment should be carried out, preferably before grade two (at the ages of 7 and 8 years).

Regarding the application of inclusive practices, participants appear to have limited experience of inclusive practices in mainstream primary schools. There seems to be a common response by teachers and principals pertaining to the question of how teachers include learners with dyslexia in primary schools. As the study has found above, since there is no formal manner in which disabilities, and dyslexia in particular, are identified at an early stage of schooling, all learners are assumed to be free from any form of learning disability. It is only when the learner starts to present evidence of struggling with reading and writing that a more conscious intervention is launched. However, the general trend seems to be that learners with dyslexia end up in the system by default (coincidence), because there is no deliberate or formal identification

and inclusion of them. Therefore, teachers are forced to decide how they will assist the learner “in their own way”. This implies that the majority of teachers are unable to carry out screening and assessment prior to inclusion, lacking training and inclusive skills to teach effectively these learners in mainstream school simultaneously with their peers without dyslexia. There is a dearth of policy that determines the criteria for how inclusion can be organized effectively in the country. This finding confirms the outcome of a study by Mitiku, Alemu, and Mengsitu (2014) which established that in many schools of under-developed countries there is a lack of assessments and eligible criteria to admit learners with learning disability and dyslexia into their mainstream primary schools.

A disappointing part of the empirical study was that, in the sampled schools, there was no formal inclusion process for learners with dyslexia. This finding confirms the research of Isaac (2012) which, as indicated, revealed that learners with dyslexia enter many mainstream schools in some under-developed countries by default – without any form of assessment. Teachers could therefore not share any significant experiences in this regard, though a few participants could communicate some of their experiences on inclusion of learners with dyslexia in their mainstream classrooms.

In these cases, their experiences on inclusion of learners with dyslexia were traumatic and difficult, because inclusion demanded extra hours and new approaches from them (Soukakou, 2012). This finding confirms the previous studies carried out by Brooks (2007) and Tlustosova (2006) in that education of learners with dyslexia should be done individually or in small classes that engage about 10 learners because in overcrowded classrooms teachers will face many challenges. It is hard for teachers themselves to assist learners with dyslexia because these learners need personal attention to practice their reading and writing tasks.

The continuous training of teachers therefore becomes crucial. However, the study revealed that there is a total absence of training in relation to inclusion in general and inclusion of learners with dyslexia in particular. This reality was confirmed by previous investigations carried out by Mpofu and Chitsa (2016) in Zimbabwe and Tungaraza (2010) in Tanzania who declared that teachers face many challenges to teach learners with dyslexia in their mainstream classrooms, because they do not have any form of training to handle the SEN of such learners in mainstream classrooms.

Pertaining to the involvement of parents in discussing the educational needs of their children with dyslexia, the findings of this study demonstrate that some teachers adopt a more interactive approach by involving parents to assist with the education of their dyslexic learners. The research by Lindsay, Proulx, Scott, and Thomson (2013) affirms that parental involvement is key to making inclusion a reality. Parental support is always necessary and critical in terms of successful completion of learner education (Bowen & Lee, 2006). For effective inclusion, parents and teachers have an obligation to discuss the progress of a learner and agree on the kind of assistance needed for effective inclusive education (Gama & Thwala, 2016; Landbrook, 2001).

In the absence of effective training and support by stakeholders, learners with dyslexia are forced to be transferred to special schools. This finding confirms the previous studies carried out by Nugent (2008), UNESCO (2010) and UNICEF (2008) indicating that the lack of appropriate training and pedagogical methods on inclusion may hinder the education of learners with dyslexia. This often obliges many of these learners to be transferred to special schools to continue their education. This type of exclusion constitutes a violation of human rights and international treaties on education, because learners with dyslexia, as human beings, have the right to access to any education setting, be respected in the learning environment, and deserve the right to a quality education (Jonson, 2003; Lawrence, 2004). Their education is regarded as a universal and inalienable right despite their disability (Jonsson, 2003). The above findings of this study indicated that the DRC government violates the international treaties of human rights in education in general and inclusive education in particular. Instead of transferring learners with dyslexia to special schools, the government should put in place a legislative framework that has sufficient resources able to provide accessible learning prospects with competent teachers, adequate resources and equipment (Urban, 2003; Spaul & Taylor, 2014).

Despite inclusion being perceived as a basic human rights issue, teachers were also of the opinion that this form of integration poses its own challenges that should be addressed and acknowledged. However, these difficulties should not deter policymakers from implementing what is required. Although many issues are involved in implementing full inclusion, such as monetary support, sufficient training, sufficient time, flexible inclusive curriculum, small sized mainstream classrooms and parental

involvement (Gama & Thwala, 2016), nevertheless each country of the globe should have its own legal inclusive education framework that will enforce inclusion in its context (Florian & Rouse, 2009). These policies should align with those of international treaties and human right convention. Although implementation of inclusion is a complex phenomenon, which demands that each country has its own way of implementing it (Pino & Mortari, 2014), each implementation should have a set of values and policies that aim to promote education of all children according to human rights international treaties (Landsdown, Dina, & Mialy, 2007). The promulgation of these values and policies should be given equal consideration for every learner, without any form of discrimination stemming from disability, colour, religion, sex and race. All learners should be respected and their human rights as regards education accorded them, without any form of violation, because effective inclusive education is a way out from poverty and a wonderful tool for the consolidation of a country (Mariga, McConkey, & Myezwa, 2014; Eren et al., 2017). Without effective implementation being in place, many learners with disability will remain un-educated, jobless and a burden for their family, community and society.

Some participants believed learners with dyslexia must be welcomed with compassion into mainstream primary schools and education stakeholders should value their presence in all educational institutions. This finding confirms many declarations and international treaties already alluded to, which state that education is a human right, every child has the right to be educated and receive quality education, while teachers and other stakeholders in mainstream school environments are obliged to equally accept and value the education of learners with disability and dyslexia in mainstream schools by giving them enough time and support to enhance their education (Salamanca Statement, 1994; Tomaševski, 2006; Incheon declaration, 2015; Degener, 2016).

However, teachers and principals appear to be divided on the matter of integrating learners with and those without dyslexia in the same classroom environment. A significant number of participants felt that inclusive education from a learning disability perspective is undesirable because (i) the performance of both dyslexic and non-dyslexic learners will be adversely affected, (ii) dyslexic learners need more attention and this requirement will affect the learning style of non-dyslexic learners, (iii) there is

a lack of political will and resources, (iv) dyslexic learners will learn more effectively in a separate, specialist learning environment, (v) and the government will never make financial resources available for the inclusion of this category of learners. Previous studies seem to endorse these challenges. For example, most teachers in Cyprus have a negative opinion on the inclusion of learners with disability (Phtiaka, Michaelidou, Tsouris & Vlami, 2005). In other studies, teachers indicated that the inclusion of learners with learning disability in general and dyslexia in particular is doomed to fail, since full integration is an impossible task because such learners' behaviour is distracting in inclusive classroom situations, and teachers often fail to achieve their daily goals because of their disruptive behaviour (Symeonidou & Phtiaka, 2009; Bhatnagar & DAS, 2014). Another study revealed that the education of learners with dyslexia involves money and extra time (Canton, Gonzalez, Mariscal, & Ruiz, 2006), while a further one reported that often governments are silent and do not provide money and educational resources to support inclusive education (Gama & Thwala, 2016).

What is encouraging about this study is that most participants seem to believe that, even though inclusive education is a daunting task, it can be achieved. However, it will require the involvement of all critical stakeholders to play their role not only on an ad hoc basis, but also in a consistent and proactive manner.

The participants suggested a number of enabling factors that need to be in place: (i) all teachers must receive the necessary training on dyslexia and the nature of inclusive education, (ii) the sizes of classes have to be reduced significantly, (iii) teachers will have to support each other by forming teams of two or three teachers per classroom, (iv) the number of dyslexic learners per classroom also has to be lessened, (v) teachers need to understand and embrace the notion that education in general and inclusive education in particular, is a basic human right, (vi) the salaries of teachers need to be revised in order to motivate them, as inclusive education will demand extra effort from teachers, while (vii) teachers, parents and the government need to form a more effective partnership. This finding confirms the results of previous studies carried out by Slee (2008) and Black- Hawkins, Florian and Rouse (2007) which revealed that effective inclusion is dependent on continuous teacher training, such as seminars, because the lack of adequate training is a stumbling block to success. The same

finding also confirms the previous study performed by Gama and Thwala (2016) which found that teachers experience many challenges to effective implementation of inclusion in mainstream primary schools. These difficulties arise from the absence of a grounded understanding of inclusion, the confusion between integration and inclusion, the lack of knowledge and financial support from government, insufficient time, overcrowded classrooms, and the lack of parental involvement. This same finding also confirms other previous studies by Kerney and Kane (2006), Anderson, Klassen and Georgion (2007), Lampton (2012) and Sizani (2012) which indicated that effective inclusion of learners with dyslexia requires monetary support, sufficient training, sufficient time, a flexible inclusive curriculum, small classrooms, and parental and government involvement.

The challenges of inclusive education thus call for a new way of thinking about learning and behavioural challenges. Authorities and other stakeholders often unconsciously project incompetence, failure, and a deficit kind of mentality onto learners with learning disabilities, the marginalized, and the economically disadvantaged. These learners are not necessarily *deficient*, but simply learn in a *different* way. By adopting a human rights framework, the civil, political, economic, social and cultural rights of all learners, irrespective of their learning style, will be protected. There are certain basic principles that should be adhered to at all times. These include – **Universality**: human rights must be afforded to everyone, without exception; **Indivisibility**: human rights are indivisible and interdependent; **Participation**: people have a right to participate in how decisions are made regarding protection of their rights; **Accountability**: governments and other educational institutions must create mechanisms of accountability for the enforcement of rights, since it is not enough that rights are recognized in policy rhetoric; **Transparency**: where governments and other stakeholders must be open about all information and decision-making processes; and **Non-Discrimination**: human rights must be guaranteed without discrimination of any kind (UNFPA, 2018).

This implies firstly that the differences between learners should be welcomed and met by an appreciation for different learning styles. A second implication is that the school as a system should be more responsive to learners' needs through a willingness to change the structures, processes, and philosophical assumptions that it has become used to. The school functions as a system within many systems. Thus, systemic

changes are required. The broader issue of marginalization also needs to be addressed. It is within this context that inclusive education becomes a human rights issue and a moral imperative with a social agenda. Learners with learning disabilities often become objects of curiosity, blame, and prejudice (Hahn, Tollman, Garenne, & Gear, 1999; Sadiki, Radzilani-Makatu, & Zikhali, 2018). They are then looked down upon (Watermeyer *et al.*, 2006), which results in poor social outcomes (Mdikana, Phasha, & Ntshangase, 2018). It is only when learners become full members of the school that they will become full members of society (Mittler, 2000).

Despite the obvious value of adopting a human rights framework, it has come under various criticisms over the last few years. Critiques have been raised against the claimed universality of rights, inherent discriminatory practices, the inability of the framework to take account of practicalities and limitations (De Man, 2018). However, despite the numerous critiques examined, the human rights framework offers a solid, and the most accepted, foundation for educational equality, providing a number of obvious benefits (Cornwall & Nyamu-Musembi, 2004). Human rights cannot be analyzed as an abstract concept. Their deep connection with human experiences and well-being must always be considered. A human rights framework might be difficult to enforce; however, it is essential to highlight the following:

[T]he purpose of human rights is to avert, as far as possible, the social conditions and practices that history teaches us inevitably lead to human suffering and misery ... and to create as far as possible the social conditions that are most conducive to human well-being, happiness, and flourishing. The doctrine of human rights must be considered as an evolving whole in relation to the changing political and economic conditions of human society, and, in this light, the idea of human rights can be understood as a description of a political ideal; it is a partial blueprint for the building of just and peaceful human societies and for creating a stable world order in which all persons may lead fulfilling and dignified human lives (Winston, 1989).

Despite the difficulties involved in ensuring that learners with, for instance, learning disabilities are afforded equal access and opportunities, the daily human rights violations, particularly in the DRC, call for a continuous battle to afford everyone the possibility to have their human rights respected, protected and fulfilled (de Man, 2018).

6.4 Chapter Summary

In this chapter, the findings of the study were critically discussed based on the current educational research context in the field of inclusive education and within the context of a human rights framework by presenting a comprehensive understanding of the inclusion of learners with dyslexia. Finally, the researcher concluded the chapter with a summary. In the following chapter, the conclusions and limitations of the study are presented. Recommendations are made based on the conclusions and limitations of the research.

CHAPTER 7

CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 Introduction

In this chapter, conclusions, and limitations pertaining to the results of the study are considered. Recommendations for future research based on these conclusions and limitations of the study are then given. The fourth empirical aim of the study is therefore addressed.

7.2 Conclusions

In the following section, conclusions drawn from both the literature review and the empirical study are discussed. These conclusions were drawn based on the findings and the researcher's reflections on the study.

7.2.1 Aim 1

Specific empirical aim 1 was articulated as follows:

1. To explore teachers' understanding of inclusion of learners with dyslexia in mainstream primary schools of Kinshasa

This aim was achieved in Chapter 5 of this study. To recapitulate: Participants appear to have a difference of opinion pertaining to their understanding of inclusion and inclusive education. This finding corroborates the findings of a study by Zagrebu, Bukvić, and Obrazovanje (2015) and Al-Khamisy (2015). These studies affirm that there is not a single universal definition and understanding of the term "inclusion or inclusive education", because teachers and education stakeholders seem to have their own grasp of this phenomenon. Inclusion has taken centre stage in the 21st century. Inclusion requires an appropriate curriculum that enables every learner to gain the essential basic cognitive expertise, which includes crucial life skills that train learners to face the diverse challenges in life, forge effective social relationships, and promote basic human rights values and morals (Bentaouet, 2006; Landsdown, Dina & Mialy, 2007). Thus, "inclusive education" implies a legal and philosophical framework where all learners are equally valued. There is consequently a significant shift from merely accommodating and absorbing learners with disabilities to including and valuing them.

7.2.2 Aim 2

Specific empirical aim 2 was articulated in these words:

2. To describe how learners with dyslexia are included in the mainstream primary schools of Kinshasa

This aim was achieved in Chapter 5 of this study. Most participants had never heard the term “inclusive education”. It should not be a surprise, then, that inclusion is a mere platitude and is not effectively practiced in the DRC. In some cases, inclusive education has occurred by default, without any screening or early assessment, because the school authorities in Kinshasa seem to be mute about the vital topic of inclusive education.

Regarding the application of inclusive practices, participants appear to have limited experience of inclusive practices in mainstream primary schools. Since there is no formal method by means of which disabilities (dyslexia in particular) are identified when the child enters school, all learners are assumed to be free from any form of learning disability.

7.2.3 Aim 3

Specific empirical aim 3 was expressed as follows:

3. To explain factors that influence teachers’ practices on inclusion of learners with dyslexia in the mainstream primary schools of Kinshasa

This aim was achieved in Chapter 5 of this study. There are many factors that hinder the implementation of inclusion, but countries should commit to a set of inclusive values and policies that will efficiently promote the implementation of inclusive education across the globe (Landsdown, Dina & Mialy, 2007; Florian & Rouse, 2009). Some participants believed learners with dyslexia must be welcomed with compassion into mainstream primary schools and education stakeholders must value their presence in all educational institutions. This finding confirms previous studies which indicated that teachers and other stakeholders in mainstream school environments are obliged to equally accept and value education of learners with dyslexia in mainstream school by giving them enough time and support to enhance their education (Scottish Executive, 2006a; Bell, McPhillips & Doweston, 2011). Participants appear to be divided on the

matter of integrating learners with or without dyslexia in the same classroom environment.

Participants felt that the following negative factors impede the implementation of inclusive education:

- the inclusion of *all learners* in the same classroom despite their varying abilities would negatively impact on the performance of both dyslexic and non-dyslexic learners;
- dyslexic learners need more attention and this requirement will affect the learning style of non-dyslexic learners;
- there is a lack of political will and resources to implement inclusive education;
- dyslexic learners will learn more effectively in a separate, specialist learning environment; and
- Government will never make financial resources available for the inclusion of this category of learners.

7.2.4 Aim 4

Specific empirical aim 4 was articulated in these words:

4. To propose strategies for enhancing the inclusion of learners with dyslexia in ordinary primary school classrooms

This aim was achieved in Chapter 5 of this study. Strategies emanating from the literature and the empirical study were devised.

Introducing and embedding inclusive education as an immediate, unconditional, and inalienable human right

In many countries across the globe, the right to basic education has been recognized as an unconditional right (Wildeman & Nomdo, 2007). Educational stakeholders must therefore ensure that learners with disabilities receive educational support in mainstream primary schools (Donohue & Bornman, 2015).

Address the axis of success – teacher beliefs and assumptions:

Often teachers believe that the inclusion of learners with special needs is a doomed policy (Stanovich & Jordan, 2000). O'Brien (2001) affirms this point by saying that: "The inside of a teacher's head is the key resource for inclusion of learners with disability because the starting point for inclusive learning begins when teachers reflect upon how they create educational realities." Teachers' attitudes and perceptions play an important role in contributing to the success of inclusion practices, since they are the people who are responsible for the execution of inclusive education (Nutter, 2011).

Effective, continuous training:

Effective inclusion depends upon teachers receiving ongoing training, workshops, and seminars (Capel, 2001). Through training, teachers will gain the knowledge, skills and attitudes required for effective classroom management (Nutter, 2011). Training nurtures positive awareness and a positive attitude in inclusive classrooms (Florian & Rouse, 2001).

Develop unique customized inclusive pedagogical models:

It is essential to develop inclusive models that take into consideration the distinct needs of the learner, the context of the school and the available resources of the host country (Isaacs, 2012; Wearmout, Soler & Reid, 2002).

Early identification of learning disabilities:

It is critical for learners with dyslexia to be assessed in reading and writing, if prompt interventions are to be designed and implemented (Mohammed, 2014). It is vital to discover the learning challenges for effective remedial intervention. Early identification will enable the school to arrange for appropriate support to the child (Rose, 2009).

Embedding a school culture of dignity and the valuing of different learning styles:

All learners should feel that they are welcome, valued and respected. They should also feel and know that different learning styles, including theirs, are welcomed and valued. Teachers should use activities and a range of creative modalities that all learners find

meaningful (Shaywitz, 2005). Learners with dyslexia enjoy practical tasks and are visual learners (Mortimore, 2006).

Forge collaborative relationships:

At the core of inclusive education lies collaboration (Friend & Cook, 2010). Collaboration creates a direct impact on the success of inclusive practices (Turnbull et al., 2011), and includes involvement of support staff, parents and school support (Day, 2016). In the inclusive classroom teachers are required to work closely with support staff and ensure that responsibilities are clear and that boundaries are well managed (Azatyan, 2015). The inclusion of parents will ensure that there is a clear flow of information to create a deep sense of security for the parent and the learner (UNICEF, 2014).

Inclusive education housed in a human rights framework:

Inclusive education must be driven from the principle of a human rights framework. When such education is positioned as a human rights issue, it is firmly entrenched as a strategic item on the socio-political change agenda.

Teacher enrolment, enablement and empowerment:

Teachers are at the centre of inclusive education. They need to be enabled to take up their role effectively. One way of empowering them is through training, the early identification of learners with dyslexia, motivation through monetary and non-monetary incentives, and effective classroom management in the form of the size of the classroom, adequate support staff, and limited numbers of dyslexic learners per classroom.

Authorization by principals and district authorities:

Principals and district authorities have the capacity to authorize teachers through effective resource allocation and management, effective consequence management (for example, if teachers are found guilty of abuse of dyslexic learners) and effective stakeholder engagement in the form of parents, other teachers, government and the private sector.

Government intervention:

Government, particularly in the context of the research setting of this study (the DRC), can play a critical role in the realization of inclusive education. One powerful way would be by extending a human rights culture through modelling social justice, effective policy formulation and execution and by creating awareness, conducting action research and enabling corporate citizenship.

In the DRC, for example, Handicap International and the government are working together to enhance inclusive practices in schools throughout the DRC. Such initiatives should be welcomed and sustained, in the interest of creating an inclusive and basic human rights culture (Aldersey, 2013; Mbiyavanga, 2016).

7.3 Limitations of the Study

This section presents some of the limitations of the study by reflecting on the literature review, as well as the empirical component of the study.

7.3.1 Limitations of the literature review

There is a vast amount of literature on the subject of the constructs of “inclusion”, “inclusive education”, and “dyslexia”. However, there is a paucity of research on inclusive education in the DRC, especially regarding learners with disabilities. I could, therefore, not draw on previous studies to inform the empirical study from a DRC perspective. The closest alternative was to compare the findings of this study with previous studies from other African and global studies.

Another notable limitation was the scantiness of research on learning disabilities in general and dyslexia in particular in the DRC. The DRC does not seem to be the only country which experiences serious challenges in the implementation of inclusive education. Constructs like “dyslexia” and “inclusive education” are also defined differently in the literature. One of the challenges of a common definition is that it could create confusion, in that it is perceived and studied from different perspectives.

In this study, I defined dyslexia as a neurological disorder that affects the reading and writing abilities of learners despite their economic or cultural differences. This reading

and writing impairment is not linked to linguistic differences but stems from genetic factors.

The notion of “inclusive education” has also evolved in the literature. I adopted a human rights framework to study inclusive education as a moral imperative. In doing this, I might have excluded other, relevant conceptualizations.

7.3.2 Limitations of the Empirical Study

Like any research endeavour, this study was subject to several limitations pertaining to the empirical component of research. The principal limitations are as follows:

The researcher’s struggle to gain access to schools to participate in this study, but more importantly, schools where the implementation of inclusive education has already started, was a prominent limitation. Permission was granted to me to carry out the study in four schools chosen by the Manager of Department of Basic Education in Kinshasa’s West District. In the letter of permission, it was clearly specified at which schools the study should be conducted.

Another challenge comprised the postponements of meetings on several occasions. This delay broke the researcher’s momentum and interfered with the planning of the study. He also detected a reluctance by authorities to provide access to the schools. This perceived reluctance could also have influenced participants’ responses to the questions.

During data collection, it became evident that participants had different understandings of the terms “dyslexia” and “inclusive education”. The researcher had to work hard to ensure that the study remained faithful to its core constructs.

Participants’ lack of special training with respect to inclusion and dyslexia was another limitation of the study. Sometimes some participants would confuse dyslexia with a general struggle to read and write. Some students do struggle in this regard, but this struggle is not necessarily attributed to dyslexia.

Despite these limitations, the integrity of the findings was not affected, and the findings hold promise for further exploration into the dynamic relationship between the

constructs of inclusion, inclusive education, and learning disabilities in the form of dyslexia.

7.4 Delimitation

The study was conducted at four mainstream primary schools under the jurisdiction of the Department of Basic Education of West District, Kinshasa province of the Democratic Republic of Congo.

7.5 Recommendations

The following recommendations are made to inform future research based on the findings, conclusions, and limitations of the study:

7.5.1 Recommendations for the Department of Education (DRC)

In order to raise awareness and to ensure that inclusive education is implemented in a more structured and systematic fashion, I propose a framework, which emanates from the literature and the empirical study. This framework situates inclusion within a human rights philosophy. Below, this framework is presented and discussed as a recommendation to the Department of Education of the DRC.

7.5.1.1 Learners and inclusive education: a proposed human rights framework

One of the consistent themes that emanated from the analysis of the data is that education should be viewed as a basic human right for all (Degener, 2016; Pantic & Florian, 2015; Tarc, 2013). This right is encapsulated in the concept of inclusive education. Participants emphasized the crux of this principle repeatedly when they said:

“[E]very person is right to be educated, irrespective of the learning barriers that he/she may have, but in DRC is not the case because if your parent does not have money to pay the school fees of a child, the child cannot go to school...” (1/GOM/F/A); it was implied that: “...a child coming from a poor family does not deserve to go to school, because parents cannot afford to pay the school fees...” (1/GOM/F/B); because “...here in DRC education is only for rich people, not for poor people...” (2/GOM/F/E). Another participant expressed the view that: “It is

impossible to apply inclusive education because the government does not have a practical commitment to allow it...” (2/GOM/M/F).

The qualitative approach (Creswell, 2014) and the research paradigm (Collins, 2010; Yanow & Schwartz-Shea, 2006) provided me with a lens to phenomenologically explore how teachers understand and include learners with dyslexia in mainstream primary schools in the DRC.

What follows is a conceptual framework, based on an interpretation of the data and the suggestions by participants. It outlines how inclusive education should be understood and implemented in mainstream primary schools in the DRC. This framework will serve to conceptualize inclusive education and its underlying constructs in order to form the basis for further development of theory. It will be conceptualized and referred to as a **Human Rights Framework for Inclusive Education** (see Figure 7.1).

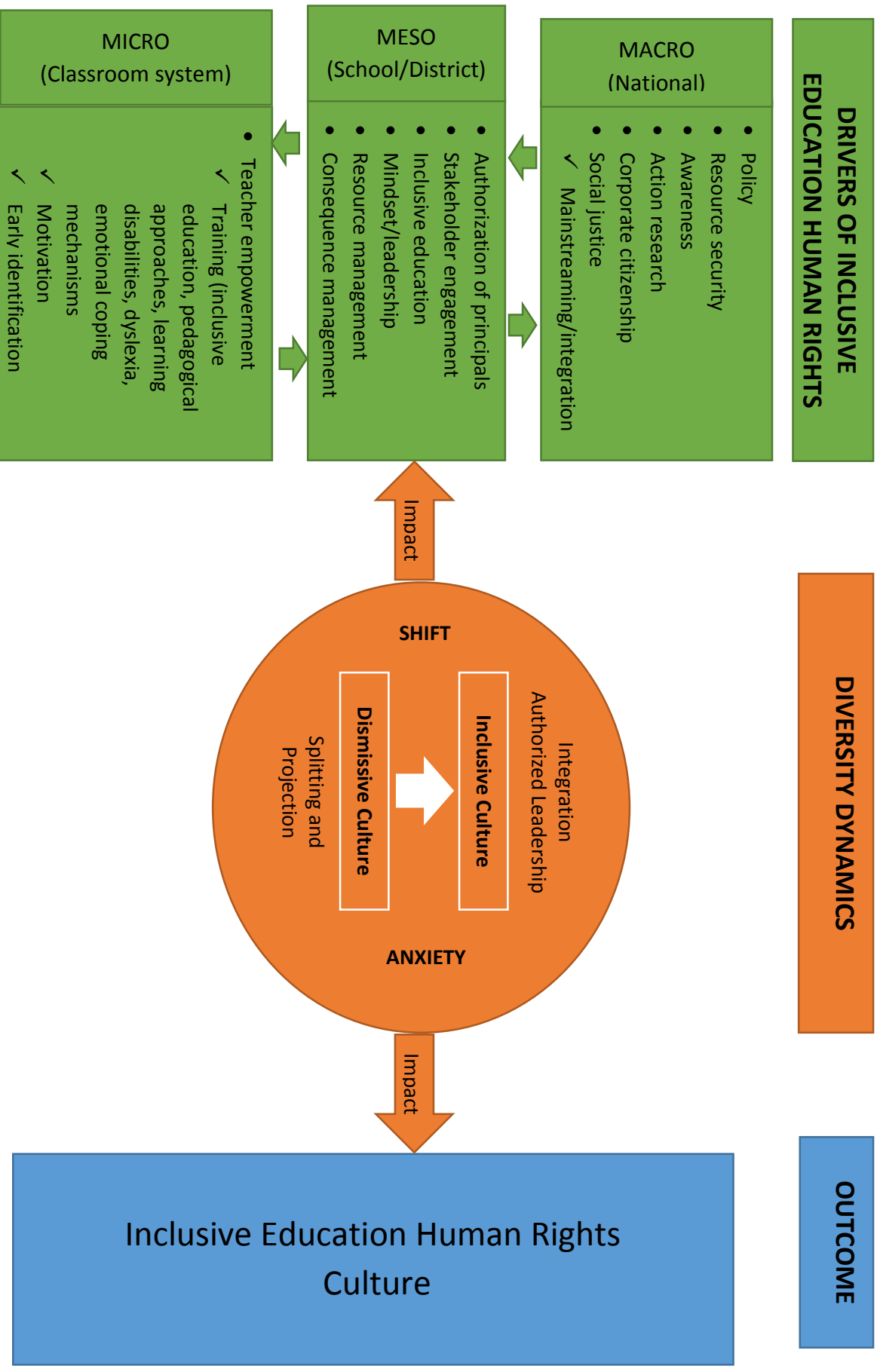


Figure 7.1 : Human Rights framework for Inclusive Education

A. Drivers of A Human Rights Culture for Inclusive Education

The human rights model of inclusive education within the context of disability is more comprehensive and does not approach impairment as something to be fixed (medical model), nor does it simply view impairment as the result of oppression (social model) (Degener, 2014). It is evident from participants' responses that there are several drivers which should be unleashed simultaneously to nurture an inclusive education human rights culture. These drivers are located at the micro level (for example, the classroom system), the meso level (for example, the school and or district within which schools are located) and the macro level (for example, national governmental level).

At the *micro level* an optimal learning environment for learners can be nurtured through:

1. Teacher empowerment: This firstly includes training in the form of inclusive education, appropriate pedagogical approaches to learning disabilities in general and dyslexia in particular. Secondly, methods of coping emotionally with the potential strains in an inclusive education environment, should also be part of the training to be provided to teachers. Thirdly, the motivational levels of teachers will also have to be addressed. It will be useful if some form of early mechanism to identify learning disabilities could be initiated.

2. Stakeholder engagement: There are many role-players within the classroom system that need to be encouraged and activated. These include the learner with the disability, fellow learners, teachers and support teachers, the principal and the rest of the school leadership, parents and guardians.

3. Classroom management: The optimal number of learners within the classroom and the teaching staff per classroom should also be considered.

Drivers at the *meso level* are the following:

- Principals and the school leadership should be empowered to focus on their task of governing the school in an inclusive manner, underpinned by human rights values.

- Stakeholders need to be identified, enrolled, and activated to play an active role in the nurturing of an inclusive education human rights culture.
- An inclusive education mindset must be nurtured that is reflected in the right kind of leadership behaviours.
- Resources that have been allocated to the school, no matter how few, must be managed and used effectively.
- Wherever discriminatory practices are identified, these should be addressed, and consequence management applied so that the correct message is communicated to perpetrators.

Drivers at the *macro level* have been identified as follows:

- Policies aligned to the inclusive educational and human rights culture to be nurtured should be formulated and consistently applied.
- Resources need to be made available in support of the culture to be embedded.
- A comprehensive awareness campaign should be launched to communicate the vision of inclusive education to the lowest levels in the country.
- Specialists, researchers, and other scholars must be involved to conduct action research on challenges, barriers, and the kind of inclusive education that needs to be achieved.
- Corporate citizenship in the form of the private sector must be enrolled to play a much bigger part in the social, economic, cultural, and educational upliftment of the country.
- The most effective role-payers need to be identified to drive a social justice agenda in the form of mainstreaming (integration) and for all kinds of learning disabilities to become a more visible and normal part of society.

B. Disability Dynamics

It appears that “anxiety” is created whenever individuals are being confronted by people that are different to them (Kelvans, 1997; Barlow, 2002; Cooper, 2003). Anxiety is conceptualised as an emotional and/or physiological response to known and /or predominantly unknown or unconscious causes that may affect decision-making and impair functioning and/or affect quality of life (Noyes, Holt & Massie, 1998; Bush & Griffin-Sobel, 2002). In order to contain this anxiety, splitting and the projection of

uncomfortable thoughts and painful characteristics occur. Thus, instead of interacting with others (for example, those with learning disabilities) as valuable subjects with inalienable human rights, we interact with them as foreign, deficient objects. When this happens over time, a ***dismissive culture*** is created.

What is required is for a shift to be initiated from a dismissive, exclusive culture to an ***inclusive culture***. This human rights culture is created when the good and the bad are integrated, the potentials of all learners are identified, when there is a focus on learners' abilities, rather than their disabilities, and when leadership is authorised at all levels. The extent to which either of the cultures dominates will determine the impact on the *drivers* as well as the potential *outcome* of an inclusive education human rights culture.

C. Outcomes

When the identified drivers of such a culture are effectively engaged, and an inclusive culture is proactively nurtured, the outcome is an inclusive education culture where human, civil, socio-political, and cultural rights are embraced. Communities where this culture prevails will be characterized by social cohesion and social engagement (Putnam, 2001).

7.5.2 Recommendations for Future Research

Due to the scarceness of research, the topic of inclusive education could be explored from several perspectives, for example:

1. Inclusion and inclusive education could be studied, from both a qualitative and a quantitative perspective throughout the DRC;
2. More in-depth and longitudinal studies should be undertaken on learning disabilities, particularly dyslexia. Studies reveal that there is an increase in the number of learners that suffer from this disorder. Hence the need for this kind of research;
3. The attitudes and motivations of teachers pertaining to inclusion should be further explored;
4. Regions where inclusive education has been introduced more successfully should also be explored; rural areas are known to have been marginalized when

it comes to education. It is in these areas, which are often outside the focus of newspapers and TV cameras, that learners with disabilities are bullied, sexually assaulted and stigmatized (Mdikana, Phasha, & Ntshangase, 2018);

5. Studies should also be conducted into the impact of “exclusive education” on social participation;
6. I also propose that future studies adopt an even more multidisciplinary approach by taking recent developments in education, neuroscience and educational psychology into consideration.

7.6 Contributions of the Research

The study contributes on three levels to the field of inclusive education, educational leadership, and educational psychology, namely the theoretical, empirical, and practical levels. The personal contributions of this study in terms of my personal interest in this topic as well as my roles and experiences as the primary researcher are also explored.

7.6.1 Contribution on a Theoretical Level

This study contributes on a theoretical level in a number of ways. This study contributes to the literature on inclusive education by advancing the latter as a moral imperative (Robo, 2014). In doing this, inclusive education will become a permanent feature on the socio-political agenda across the globe. Inclusive education is positioned as a human rights issue, where all learners have the right to be valued equally (Rasmitadia, Tambunan & Rachmadtullah, 2018). This symbolizes a significant shift away from the “deficit model” towards the “difference model”. Accordingly, this calls for a radical transformation in the way in which inclusive education is conceptualized and the demand for real, responsive systemic changes to be made (Doriana, 2016).

This study also introduces a depth-psychological approach to inclusive education. Dynamic, unconscious scripts are at play at the interface where learners with learning disability and those without such a disability coalesce. It is through these unconscious scripts that the status quo is maintained and that learners with disabilities are perceived as a “burden to society”.

7.6.2 Contribution on an Empirical Level

On an empirical level, the study contributes by confirming the constructs of inclusion and dyslexia as complex phenomena. Inclusion embodies the principle that all learners can lay claim to equitable access to learning in pursuit of excellence in all aspects of their education. Inclusion is much more than integration and goes beyond compliant placement to meaningful active participation.

This study also confronts the broader issue of marginalization, which is associated with disability. The study affirms the view that "...societal perceptions and treatments of persons with disabilities from cross-cultural settings may be viewed as a kaleidoscope of varying hues that reflect tolerance, hatred, love, fear, awe, reverence and revulsion" (Munyi, 2012). Disability creates marginalization, isolation, and blame for both the affected and afflicted (Katz & Porath, 2012).

Furthermore, the study contributes by highlighting the psychological and social impact of disability. Disability is also a systemic phenomenon. Those within the social domain of the affected also experience psychological distress. It is only when "voice" is given to those with learning disabilities that sufficient traction will be achieved towards inclusive education (Jubran, 2015)

Finally, a human rights framework has been developed that draws from the literature and the empirical study. This framework will provide direction and impetus to stakeholders that are tasked with the implementation of this critical educational, social, and human agenda.

7.6.3 Contribution on a Personal Level

In the first chapter of this study, I revealed that I have two children with dyslexia. These beloved offspring have experienced difficulties with reading and writing during the early years of their education. These were painful times for me as a parent, because their mainstream teachers and peers without disabilities bullied them. Because of this abuse, they had to be transferred from one institution to the next in search of a school that could unconditionally welcome them and have compassion for their learning challenges.

Thus, the implications of dyslexia are far reaching. If it is not identified early and the learner provided with appropriate support in the mainstream, she or he may develop dysfunctional social behaviours, which could lead to poor self-esteem, criminal activity, and school dropout, as mentioned in 1.6. I therefore had a personal vested interest in this study. I devoted my life to raising awareness about learning disabilities (dyslexia in particular) and to ensure that learners with dyslexia achieve full membership in any school of their choice and later become full, active, and contributing members of society.

7.7 Chapter Summary

In this chapter, conclusions and limitations were discussed and recommendations for future research based on the findings of the study were presented. The chapter commenced by drawing conclusions as to the general aim and specific aims of the study. Thereafter, limitations of the literature review, the theoretical model, and the empirical research were discussed. Finally, recommendations for future research were made and the chapter concluded with the contributions of this study from a theoretical, empirical, practical, and personal perspective.

This concludes this study on the inclusion of learners with dyslexia in Kinshasa primary schools, with the ultimate intention of making recommendations to enhance inclusive education practices in the DRC. As outlined in Chapter 1 of this study, the research question as well as the general and specific aims (both literature and empirical) have been addressed.

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APPENDICES

Appendix I: Research ethics clearance certificate



UNISA COLLEGE OF EDUCATION ETHICS REVIEW COMMITTEE

Date: 2019/05/15

Ref: **2019/05/15/44487398/01/MC**

Dear Dr Ndombo

Name: Dr M Ndombo

Student: 44487398

Decision: Ethics Approval from
2019/05/15 to 2024/05/15

Researcher(s): Name: Dr M Ndombo
E-mail address: ndombodaniel@gmail.com
Telephone: +24 38 979 4138

Supervisor(s): Name: Prof N Phasha
E-mail address: phashnt@unisa.ac.za
Telephone: +27 12 481 2810

Title of research:

Inclusion of learners with Dyslexia in Primary Schools of Kinshasa, DRC

Qualification: PhD in Inclusive education

Thank you for the application for research ethics clearance by the UNISA College of Education Ethics Review Committee for the above mentioned research. Ethics approval is granted for the period 2019/05/15 to 2024/05/15.

*The **low risk** application was reviewed by the Ethics Review Committee on 2019/05/15 in compliance with the UNISA Policy on Research Ethics and the Standard Operating Procedure on Research Ethics Risk Assessment.*

The proposed research may now commence with the provisions that:

1. The researcher(s) will ensure that the research project adheres to the values and principles expressed in the UNISA Policy on Research Ethics.
2. Any adverse circumstance arising in the undertaking of the research project that is relevant to the ethicality of the study should be communicated in writing to the UNISA College of Education Ethics Review Committee.



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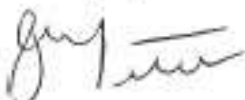
Appendix II: Research ethics clearance certificate (Continuation)

3. The researcher(s) will conduct the study according to the methods and procedures set out in the approved application.
4. Any changes that can affect the study-related risks for the research participants, particularly in terms of assurances made with regards to the protection of participants' privacy and the confidentiality of the data, should be reported to the Committee in writing.
5. The researcher will ensure that the research project adheres to any applicable national legislation, professional codes of conduct, institutional guidelines and scientific standards relevant to the specific field of study. Adherence to the following South African legislation is important, if applicable: Protection of Personal Information Act, no 4 of 2013; Children's act no 38 of 2005 and the National Health Act, no 61 of 2003.
6. Only de-identified research data may be used for secondary research purposes in future on condition that the research objectives are similar to those of the original research. Secondary use of identifiable human research data requires additional ethics clearance.
7. No field work activities may continue after the expiry date **2024/05/17**. Submission of a completed research ethics progress report will constitute an application for renewal of Ethics Research Committee approval.

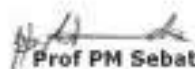
Note:

The reference number **2019/05/15/44487398/01/MC** should be clearly indicated on all forms of communication with the intended research participants, as well as with the Committee.

Kind regards,



Prof AT Motlhabane
CHAIRPERSON: CEDU RERC
motlhat@unisa.ac.za



Prof PM Sebate
ACTING EXECUTIVE DEAN
Sebatpm@unisa.ac.za

Approved - decision template – updated 16 Feb 2017

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Appendix III: Request permission to conduct research from Head of Basic Education Kinshasa-West (French Translation)



Lettre au chef de l'éducation de base de la RDC (Kin-West) pour demander une autorisation et appliquer une autorisation éthique

Titre de recherche : Inclusion des apprenants atteints de dyslexie dans les écoles primaires de Kinshasa, en République démocratique du Congo

À qui cela concerne :

Cher Monsieur / Madame,

Moi, Mpia Ndombo, je fais des recherches sous la supervision du professeur Phasha, chef du département de l'éducation inclusive pour un doctorat à l'Université d'Afrique du Sud. Nous vous demandons 26 enseignants et quatre directeurs de quatre écoles de votre choix qui ont l'expertise d'un minimum de 10 ans dans l'enseignement des écoles primaires ordinaires, pour participer à une étude intitulée : Inclusion des apprenants dyslexiques dans les écoles primaires de Kinshasa, en République Démocratique du Congo. Les participants répondront aux questions de l'entretien relatives à l'inclusion des apprenants atteints de dyslexie dans les écoles primaires ordinaires de Kinshasa. Cette étude devrait recueillir des informations importantes susceptibles d'aider les enseignants à comprendre comment inclure les apprenants présentant une dyslexie dans les écoles primaires. Dans cette étude, le chercheur posera des questions ouvertes en groupe de discussion et en entretien individuel. Chaque entrevue de groupe de discussion devrait durer deux heures et la séance d'entretiens individuels durera quarante-cinq minutes. Les avantages de cette étude sont de fournir au bureau ministériel du département de l'éducation un rapport bien documenté, heuristique et pragmatique, qui aidera à résoudre les problèmes liés à l'inclusion des apprenants atteints de dyslexie. Les résultats de cette étude pourront orienter les niveaux inférieurs de la hiérarchie scolaire et, dans ce cas, le département provincial de l'éducation. L'étude vise également à aider les parties prenantes, les programmes et les décideurs à revoir la constitution et le cadre et à s'assurer que toutes les écoles sont contrôlées afin de garantir l'inclusion des apprenants dyslexiques dans les écoles primaires de Kinshasa. La participation à cette étude est volontaire et les participants n'ont aucune obligation de consentir à la participation. S'ils décident de participer, ils recevront une fiche de renseignements à conserver et seront invités à signer un formulaire de consentement écrit. Les participants sont libres de se retirer à tout moment et sans donner de raison. Il n'y a pas de conséquences négatives, d'inconvénients, de risque ou d'inconfort. Il n'y a aucun incitatif, paiement ou récompense offert pour participer à cette étude. Si vous souhaitez être informé des résultats de la recherche finale, veuillez contacter M. Mpia Ndombo au 00243897941378 ou par courriel à ndombodaniel@gmail.com. Les résultats sont accessibles pendant cinq ans. Si vous avez besoin d'informations supplémentaires ou si vous souhaitez contacter le chercheur pour tout aspect de cette étude, veuillez contacter Mpia Ndombo au 00243897941378, Email: ndombodaniel@gmail.com.

Cordialement

Mpia Ndombo

Doctorant en éducation inclusive

Appendix IV: Request permission to conduct research from Head of Basic Education Kinshasa-West (Translated into English)



Letter to Head of DRC Basic Education (Kinshasa-West) to Seek Permission and Applying Ethical Clearance

Research Title: Inclusion of learners with dyslexia in primary schools of Kinshasa, Democratic Republic of Congo

To Whom It may concern

Dear Sir / Madam,

I, Mpia Ndombo, I am doctoral student at UNISA. My supervisor Prof Phasha in the Department of Inclusive Education at UNISA. I wish to request permission to interview 26 teachers and four principals of four schools of your choice who have the expertise of minimum of 10 years in teaching mainstream primary schools, to participate in a study entitled: Inclusion of learners with dyslexia in Primary Schools of Kinshasa, in Democratic Republic of Congo. The participants will respond to interview questions that relates to the inclusion of learners with Dyslexia in mainstream primary schools of Kinshasa.

This study will collect information that could assist teachers on how to include learners with dyslexia in primary schools. In this study, the researcher will ask open-ended questions in focus group and individual interview. Each focus group interview session is expected to last for an hour, and individual interview session will last for fifty-five minutes. The benefits of this study are providing the department of education's ministerial office with a report which will assist in handling issues related to inclusion of learners with dyslexia. The findings of this study will be able to give direction to the lower levels of the educational hierarchy and in this case the provincial department of education. If they do decide to take part, they will be given a summarized copy of the proposal and be asked to sign a written consent form. Participants are free to withdraw at any time and without giving a reason. There are no negative consequences, inconveniences, risk or discomfort. There is no incentive, payment or reward offered for participating in this study.

If you would like to be informed of the final research findings, please contact Mr Mpia Ndombo 00243897941378 or email ndombodaniel@gmail.com. The findings are accessible for five years. You should you require any further information or want to contact the researcher about any aspect of this study, please contact Mpia Ndombo on 00243897941378, Email: ndombodaniel@gmail.com .

Yours sincerely

Mpia Ndombo

PhD Student

Appendix V: Granted permission letter to conduct interview From Head of Basic Education of Kinshasa West



REPUBLIQUE DEMOCRATIQUE DU CONGO
MINISTRE DE L'ENSEIGNEMENT PRIMAIRE,
SECONDAIRE ET PROFESSIONNEL



PROVINCE EDUCATIONNELLE
KINSHASA-OUEST

L'Inspecteur Principal Provincial

AUTORISATION DE RECHERCHE ACADEMIQUE

N° MIN/EPSP/IG/KN3/800.013/0/A. KI/1552/2017

Je soussignée, Bernadette NDAYA MAYIBUNGI, Inspecteur Principal Provincial de l'Enseignement Primaire, Secondaire et Professionnel de Kinshasa-Ouest autorise par la présente :

- > Monsieur : MPYA NDOMBO DANIEL
- > N° carte d'étudiant : 4.487.398
- > Nom de l'institution : UNIVERSITE DE L'AFRIQUE DU SUD (UNISA).

D'effectuer ses recherches académiques dont le thème : « Inclusion des élèves dyslexiques dans les écoles primaires de Kinshasa »

Les écoles primaires concernées sont les suivantes :

1. E.P.A 1 GOMBE
2. E.P.A 2 GOMBE
3. EP TOBONGISA
4. E.P .A 1 ANGO ANGO.

Les autorités des ses écoles sont priées de lui porter assistance en cas de besoin.



Fait à Kinshasa, le 17 3 SEPT 2017

Bernadette NDAYA MAYIBUNGI

CROISEMENT DES AVENUES DES AMBASSADEURS ET BATETELA COMMUNE DE LA GOMBE.-
TELEPHONE : + 243 99 9 87 032, E-MAIL : igpkinouest@gmail. Com

Appendix VI: Response  letter from Kinshasa-West to
conduct research in four primary schools (Translated into English)

Republic Democratic of the Congo

Ministry of Primary, Secondary and Professional Studies

Educational Province of Kin-West

The head Provincial Inspector

The academic Research Certificate,

I undersigned, Bernadette Ndaya Mayebungi, the chief provincial inspector of primary, secondary and professional studies from Kinshasa-Ouest authorized through this document Mr Mpia Ndombo, student Card Number: 4447398, name of the institution : University of South Africa, to conduct his academic research under the topic: **Inclusion of learners with Dyslexia in Primary Schools of Kinshasa, Democratic Republic of Congo.** This survey will be conducted in the following primary schools listed below:

1. E.P.A.1 Gombe
2. E.P.A.2 Gombe
3. E.P Tobongisa
4. E.P.A.1 Ango-Ango

The authorities of these schools are called to help the surveyor to get information whenever need

Issued in Kinshasa, 13th September 2017

Bernadette Ndaya Mayibungi

Appendix VII: Participant information sheet: The letter for consent (in English)



PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET: THE LETTER FOR CONSENT

Title: Inclusion of learners with dyslexia in Primary Schools of Kinshasa, DRC

Dear Prospective participant?

My name is Mpia Ndombo. I am a doctoral candidate in the Department of Inclusive Education at UNISA. My supervisor is Prof Phasha. I wish to invite you to participate in a study entitled Inclusion of learners with dyslexia in Primary Schools of Kinshasa, in Democratic Republic of Congo.

What is the purpose of the study? HA

This study aims to collect information about the inclusion of learners with dyslexia in primary schools in DRC.

Why am I invited to participate in this study?

You are invited because you have the expertise of the topic studied. I obtained your contact details from the school principal. I have 28 participants (24 teachers and 4 principals) for this research.

What is the nature of my participation in this study?

The participants will respond to interview questions that relates to the inclusion of learners with Dyslexia in primary schools of Kinshasa. The researcher will ask open-ended questions in focus group and individual interview. Each focus group interview session is expected to last two hours, and individual interview session will last for forty minutes.

Can I withdraw from this study even after having agreed to participate?

Participating in this study is voluntary and you are under no obligation to consent to participation. If you do decide to take part, you will be given this information sheet to keep and be asked to sign a written consent form. You are free to withdraw at any time and without giving a reason.

What are the potential benefits for taking part in this study?

The benefits of this study are providing the department of education's ministerial office with a heuristic and pragmatic well researched report, which will assist in handling issues related to inclusion of learners with diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds. They will be able to give direction to the lower levels of the educational hierarchy and in this case the provincial department of education. The study also seeks to assist stakeholders, curriculum and policy makers to revisit the constitution and the framework and to make sure that all schools are monitored in order to ensure the inclusion of learners with dyslexia in primary schools in Kinshasa.

ARE THERE ANY NEGATIVE CONSEQUENCES FOR ME IF I PARTICIPATE IN THE RESEARCH PROJECT?

There are no negative consequences, inconveniences or discomfort.

**Appendix VIII: Participant information sheet: The letter for consent (in English)
(Continuation 1)**



Will the Information that I convey to the researcher and my Identity be kept confidential?

The information you share with me shall be kept confidential. You will be given a pseudonym, and your name will not be recorded anywhere and no one will be able to connect you to your responses. The pseudonym we give to you shall be used when reporting the research findings in publications, or other research reporting methods such as conference proceedings.

How will the researcher protect the data?

Hard copies of your answers will be stored for a period of five years in a locked cupboard/filing cabinet. Electronic information will be stored on a password protected computer. Future use of the stored data will be subject to further Research Ethics Review and approval if applicable. After five years, hard copies will be shredded and electronic copies will be permanently deleted from the hard drive of the computer through the use of a relevant software programme.

Payment for participation

There is no incentive, payment or reward offered for participating in this study.

Has the study been cleared for ethics by the relevant institution

This study has received written approval from the Research Ethics Review Committee of College of Education, Unisa. A copy of the approval letter can be made available to you if you wish so.

How will I be informed about the findings of the study?

Your institution will be given a hard copy of the research findings and you will be given the university link, where you can obtain an electronic copy of my thesis. If you wish to contact me, use the following contacts:

Office: 00243897941378

Email: ndombodaniel@gmail.com.

Mobile: 0027124812933

Thank you for taking time to read this information sheet and for participating in this study.

Regards, Mpia Ndombo (PhD Candidate)

**Appendix IX: Participant information sheet : The letter for consent (in English)
(Continuation 2)**



CONSENT/ASSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN THIS STUDY (Return slip)

I, _____ (participant name), confirm that the person asking my consent to take part in this research has told me about the nature, procedure, potential benefits and anticipated inconvenience of participation.

I have read (or had explained to me) and understood the study as explained in the information sheet.

I have had sufficient opportunity to ask questions and am prepared to participate in the study.

I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time without penalty (if applicable). I am aware that the findings of this study will be processed into a research report, journal publications and/or conference proceedings, but that my participation will be kept confidential unless otherwise specified.

I agree to the recording of the individual and focus group interview. I have received a signed copy of the informed consent agreement.

Participant Name & Surname :

Participant Signature

Date

Researcher's Name & Surname:

Researcher's signature

Date

Appendix X: Participant information sheet, the letter for consent (Translated into French)



Fiche D'information Aux Participants : La Lettre De Consentement

Titre : Inclusion des apprenants atteints de dyslexie dans les écoles primaires de Kinshasa, en République démocratique du Congo

CHER PARTICIPANT PROSPECTIF

Je m'appelle Mpia Ndombo, je fais des recherches sous la supervision du professeur Phasha, enseignante à l'Université d'Afrique du Sud. Nous vous invitons, vous et vos quatre enseignants de vos écoles, à participer à une étude intitulée : Inclusion des apprenants atteints de dyslexie dans les écoles primaires de Kinshasa, en République démocratique du Congo.

Quel est le but de l'étude ?

Cette étude devrait recueillir des informations importantes susceptibles d'aider les enseignants à comprendre comment inclure les apprenants présentant une dyslexie dans les écoles primaires.

Pourquoi suis-je invité à participer ?

Vous êtes invité parce que vous avez l'expertise du sujet examiné. J'ai obtenu vos coordonnées du directeur de l'école. J'ai 30 participants (26 enseignants et quatre directeurs) pour cette recherche.

Quelle est la nature de ma participation à cette étude ?

Les participants répondront aux questions de l'entretien concernant l'inclusion des apprenants atteints de dyslexie dans les écoles primaires de Kinshasa. Le chercheur posera des questions ouvertes en groupe de discussion et en entretien individuel. Chaque entrevue de groupe de discussion devrait durer deux heures et la séance d'entretiens individuels durera quarante minutes.

Puis-je me retirer de cette étude même après avoir accepté de participer ?

La participation à cette étude est volontaire et vous n'êtes pas obligé de consentir à la participation. Si vous décidez de participer, vous recevrez cette fiche de renseignements à conserver et vous serez invité à signer un formulaire de consentement écrit. Vous êtes libre de vous retirer à tout moment et sans donner de raison.

QUELS SONT LES AVANTAGES POTENTIELS DE PARTICIPER À CETTE ÉTUDE ?

Les avantages de cette étude sont de fournir au bureau ministériel du Ministère de l'éducation un rapport bien documenté, heuristique et pragmatique, qui aidera à traiter les questions liées à l'inclusion des apprenants d'origines linguistiques et culturelles diverses. Ils pourront orienter les niveaux inférieurs de la hiérarchie scolaire et, dans ce cas, le département provincial de l'éducation. L'étude vise également à aider les parties prenantes, les programmes et les décideurs à revoir la constitution et le cadre et à s'assurer que toutes les écoles sont contrôlées afin de garantir l'inclusion des apprenants dyslexiques dans les écoles primaires de Kinshasa.

Y-a-t-il des conséquences négatives pour moi si je participe au projet de recherche ?

Il n'y a pas de conséquences négatives, d'inconvénients ou d'inconfort.

Appendix XI: Participant information sheet, the letter for consent (Translated into French) (Continuation 1)



L'information que je transmets au chercheur et à mon identité sera-t-elle confidentielle ?

Les informations sont confidentielles et votre nom ne sera enregistré nulle part et personne ne pourra vous connecter aux réponses que vous avez données. Vos réponses se verront attribuer un numéro de code ou un pseudonyme et vous serez ainsi référés aux données, aux publications ou à d'autres méthodes de rapport de recherche telles que les actes de conférence. Vos données anonymes peuvent être utilisées à d'autres fins, telles qu'un rapport de recherche, des articles de revues et des actes de conférence. Mais les participants individuels ne seront pas identifiés dans ces rapports. Vos réponses peuvent être examinées par des personnes chargées de s'assurer que la recherche est effectuée correctement, y compris le transcripteur, le codeur externe et les membres du Comité d'évaluation de l'éthique de la recherche. Sinon, les enregistrements qui vous identifient ne seront disponibles que pour les personnes travaillant sur l'étude, à moins que vous n'autorisiez d'autres personnes à consulter les enregistrements. En bref, vos réponses seront protégées dans toute publication des informations afin de leur préserver la confidentialité. Lors des entretiens de groupe, il est déconseillé aux participants de ce type d'interview de divulguer des informations sensibles fournies par d'autres participants. Cela signifie que toutes les informations fournies par d'autres personnes lors de l'entretien de groupe de discussion seront traitées de manière confidentielle.

Comment le chercheur protégera-t-il la sécurité des données ?

Le chercheur conservera des copies papier de vos réponses pendant une période de cinq ans dans une armoire ou un classeur verrouillé à des fins de recherche ou à des fins universitaires ; les informations électroniques seront stockées sur un ordinateur protégé par mot de passe. L'utilisation future des données stockées fera l'objet d'une révision et d'une approbation de l'éthique de la recherche, le cas échéant. Les copies papier seront déchiquetées et les copies électroniques seront définitivement supprimées du disque dur de l'ordinateur grâce à l'utilisation d'un logiciel approprié.

Est-ce que je recevrai un paiement ou des incitations pour participer à cette étude ?

Il n'y a aucun incitatif, paiement ou récompense offert pour participer à cette étude.

L'étude a-t-elle reçu l'approbation de l'éthique ?

Cette étude a reçu l'approbation écrite du Comité d'évaluation de l'éthique de la recherche du College of Education, UNISA. Une copie de la lettre d'approbation peut être obtenue auprès du chercheur si vous le souhaitez.

Comment serai-je informé des résultats / résultats de la recherche ?

Si vous souhaitez être informé des résultats de la recherche finale, veuillez contacter M. Mpia Ndombo au 00243897941378 ou par courriel à ndombodaniel@gmail.com. Les résultats sont accessibles pendant cinq ans. Si vous avez besoin de plus amples informations ou si vous souhaitez contacter le chercheur pour tout aspect de cette étude, veuillez contacter Mpia Ndombo au 00243897941378, Email : ndombodaniel@gmail.com

Si vous avez des inquiétudes sur la manière dont la recherche a été menée, vous pouvez contacter le Pr Phasha, tél : 0027124812933, Email : phashnt@unisa.ac.za

Merci d'avoir pris le temps de lire cette fiche d'information et de participer à cette étude.
Je vous remercie.

Mpia Ndombo
Doctorant en éducation inclusive

Appendix XII: Participant information sheet: The letter for consent (Translated into French) (Continuation 2)



CONSENTEMENT / CONSENTEMENT À PARTICIPER À CETTE ÉTUDE

Je, _____ (nom du participant), confirme que la personne qui demande mon consentement à participer à cette recherche m'a parlé de la nature, de la procédure, des avantages potentiels et des inconvénients potentiels de la participation.

J'ai lu (ou m'avait expliqué) et compris l'étude comme expliqué dans la fiche d'information.

J'ai eu l'occasion de poser des questions et je suis prêt à participer à l'étude.

Je comprends que ma participation est volontaire et que je suis libre de me retirer à tout moment sans pénalité (le cas échéant).

Je suis conscient que les conclusions de cette étude seront traitées dans un rapport de recherche, des publications de revues et / ou des actes de conférence, mais que ma participation restera confidentielle, sauf indication contraire.

J'accepte l'enregistrement de l'interview individuelle et de groupe de discussion.

J'ai reçu une copie signée de l'accord de consentement éclairé.

Nom du participant et nom de famille :

Signature du participant :

Date :

Nom du chercheur et nom de famille : Mpia Ndombo

Signature du chercheur:

Date :

Appendix XIII: A cover letter for interview questions (in English)



A COVER LETTER FOR INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

Title of Interview question: Inclusion of learners with dyslexia

Dear Participant,

This questions form is part of my doctoral research entitled “Inclusion of learners with dyslexia in Primary Schools of Kinshasa, in Democratic Republic of Congo”. , for the degree Doctor in education (DEd) at the University of South Africa. Kin-West Basic education of the province of Kinshasa, DRC, has selected your school.

The aim of this study is to investigate inclusion of learners with dyslexia in primary schools. The findings of the study will add to the current literature on Inclusion and Disability, especially dyslexia. It will also inform teachers’ practice in the inclusion of learners with dyslexia.

You are kindly requested to take part in focus group or individual interview to answer interview questions, comprising 21 questions, as honestly and frankly as possible and according to your personal views and experience. No foreseeable risks are associated in participating in this study. The focus group interview will approximately hour and individual interview will take 50-60 minutes.

You are not required to indicate your name or organisation and your anonymity will be ensured. However, indication of your age, gender, occupation position etc will contribute to a more comprehensive analysis. All information obtained from this interview will be used for research purposes only and will remain confidential. Your participation in this study is voluntary and you have the right to omit any question if so desired, or to withdraw from answering this survey without penalty at any stage. After the completion of the study, an electronic summary of the findings of the research will be made available to you on request.

Permission to undertake this survey has been granted by the Kin-Ouest Educational Province, Kinshasa / DRC and the Ethics Committee of the College of Education, UNISA. If you have any research-related enquiries, they can be addressed directly to my supervisor or me. My contact details are: 00243897941378, e-mail: ndombodaniel@gmail.com.

Appendix XIV: A cover letter for interview questions (Translated into French)



Une Lettre De Couverture Pour Les Questions D'entrevue

Titre de la question de l'entrevue : inclusion des apprenants atteints de dyslexie

Cher répondant,

Ce formulaire de questions fait partie de ma recherche de doctorat intitulée Inclusion des apprenants atteints de dyslexie dans les écoles primaires de Kinshasa, en République démocratique du Congo, pour le diplôme de docteur en éducation (DEd) à l'Université d'Afrique du Sud. Kin-West L'éducation de base de la province de Kinshasa, en RDC, a sélectionné votre école.

L'objectif de cette étude est d'étudier des informations importantes susceptibles d'aider les enseignants à comprendre comment inclure les apprenants présentant une dyslexie dans les écoles primaires. Les conclusions de l'étude pourraient aider les parties prenantes, les programmes et les décideurs à revoir la constitution et le cadre et à s'assurer que toutes les écoles sont contrôlées afin de garantir l'inclusion des apprenants dyslexiques dans les écoles primaires de Kinshasa.

Vous êtes priés de participer à un groupe de discussion ou à un entretien individuel pour répondre aux questions de l'interview, comprenant 21 questions, le plus honnêtement et franchement possible et selon vos opinions et expériences personnelles. Aucun risque prévisible n'est associé à la participation à cette étude. L'interview du groupe de discussion durera environ trois heures et l'entretien individuel durera soixante minutes.

Vous n'êtes pas obligé d'indiquer votre nom ou votre organisation et votre anonymat sera assuré. Toutefois, l'indication de votre âge, de votre sexe, de votre position professionnelle, etc. contribuera à une analyse plus complète. Toutes les informations obtenues à partir de cet entretien seront utilisées à des fins de recherche uniquement et resteront confidentielles. Votre participation à cette étude est volontaire et vous avez le droit d'omettre toute question si vous le souhaitez ou de ne pas répondre à cette enquête sans pénalité à aucun moment. Après l'achèvement de l'étude, un résumé électronique des résultats de la recherche sera mis à votre disposition sur demande.

L'autorisation de mener cette enquête a été accordée par la province éducative de Kin-Ouest, Kinshasa / RDC et le comité d'éthique de la faculté d'éducation de l'UNISA. Si vous avez des questions liées à la recherche, elles peuvent être adressées directement à mon superviseur ou à moi-même. Mes coordonnées sont: 00243897941378, e-mail: ndombodaniel@gmail.com et mon superviseur peut être contacté au 0027124812933, Email: Département de l'éducation inclusive, College of Education, UNISA, e-mail: phashnt@unisa.ac.za

En remplissant le questionnaire, vous indiquez que vous avez accepté de participer à cette recherche.

Cordialement
Mpia Ndombo

Etudiant Chercheur

Appendix XV: Interview questions (In English)



Research Topic: Inclusion of learners with Dyslexia in Primary Schools of Kinshasa, Democratic Republic of Congo

1. How old are you and could you please share with me about your educational background?
2. How long have you been teaching?
3. How diverse are your learners?
4. Do you have learners with dyslexia in your class?
5. How does dyslexia manifest in the classroom, especially amongst primary school learners?
6. Share your experience of teaching such learners?
7. How do you understand the new practice and philosophy of inclusive education?
8. What educational background do you have on inclusive education?
9. What is your take about including learners with dyslexia in ordinary schools?
10. Explain how your training has prepared you for inclusion of learners with dyslexia?
11. What support is available to facilitate the inclusion of learners with dyslexia in primary schools?
12. How do you include learners with dyslexia in primary schools?
13. What best practices can you share regarding the inclusion of such learners in primary schools?
14. What factors facilitate the inclusion learners with dyslexia in primary school?
15. What training opportunities are available in your country to empower teachers to include learners with dyslexia?
16. What support you need in inclusion of learners with dyslexia?
17. What support should be put in place for inclusion of learners with dyslexia?
18. What suggestion can you put forth to enhance the inclusion of learners with dyslexia in primary schools?

Appendix XVI: Interview questions (Translated into French)



Thème de recherche : Inclusion des apprenants atteints de dyslexie dans les écoles primaires de Kinshasa, République démocratique du Congo

1. Quel âge avez-vous et pourriez-vous s'il vous plaît partager avec moi au sujet de votre formation?
2. Depuis combien de temps enseignez-vous
3. Quelle est la diversité de vos apprenants ?
4. Avez-vous des apprenants souffrant de dyslexie dans votre classe ?
5. Comment la dyslexie se manifeste-t-elle dans la classe, en particulier parmi les apprenants de l'école primaire ?
6. Partagez votre expérience de l'enseignement de ces apprenants
7. à votre avis, que comprenez-vous pour l'éducation pour tous et en avez-vous discuté à l'école?
8. Que comprenez-vous par le terme «éducation inclusive»?
9. Votre autorité scolaire parle-t-elle de l'éducation inclusive?
10. Comment faites-vous en tant qu'enseignant parmi les apprenants souffrant de dyslexie dans les écoles primaires?
11. Quelle est votre opinion sur l'enseignement des enfants souffrant de dyslexie aux côtés de leur pair sans dyslexie?
12. Comment les enseignants comprennent-ils l'inclusion des apprenants souffrant de dyslexie dans le primaire principal?
13. Comment les enseignants font-ils l'expérience de l'inclusion des apprenants souffrant de dyslexie dans les écoles primaires?
14. Comment les enseignants pratiquent-ils l'inclusion des apprenants souffrant de dyslexie dans les écoles primaires?
15. Quelle est votre expérience dans l'enseignement dans un tel environnement?
16. Le concept d'éducation inclusive est-il couramment mis en œuvre dans vos écoles?
17. Pouvez-vous m'expliquer si vous avez eu une formation spéciale avant d'enseigner dans un tel environnement de classe? Et sinon, comment faites-vous face?
18. En tant qu'enseignant, qu'est-ce que la RDC a besoin pour la mise en œuvre de l'éducation inclusive dans l'école ordinaire pour tous les apprenants souffrant de dyslexie?

Appendix XVII: Focus group 1 interview



Question 1: How old are you and could you please share with me about your educational background and how old are you?

[A]: I have 40 years old and I have my matric (Diplome-d'état" in pedagogy) qualification in teaching

[B]: I have 45 years old and I completed my secondary school in pedagogy, I was awarded with diplome-d'etat (matric) qualification

[C]: I have 42 years old and I have my Diplome-d'état" in pedagogy (matric) qualification in teaching

[D]: I have 43 years old and I have my teaching qualification (Diplome-d'état" in pedagogy) in education

[E]: I have 39 years old and I have matric (Diplome-d'état" in pedagogy) qualification in education

[F]: I have 60 years old and I only have a Diplome-d'état" in pedagogy (matric qualification in teaching),

Question 2: How have you been teaching?

[A]: I have been teaching in primary school for 10 years

[B]: My teaching experience in primary school is around 15 years

[C]: I have 14 years in teaching careers

[D]: I have 16 years of experience in teaching

[E]: I have 14 years old in teaching in primary school

[F]: I have 30 years of experience in teaching basic education

Question 3: How diverse are your learners?

[A]: My classroom comprise of boys and girls of 6 to 7 year old

[B]: I have a classroom of boys and girls of 8 years old

[C]: I teach a classroom of boys and girls of 8 years old

[D]: In my classroom, I teach children of 7 years

[E]: I have a classroom of 6 years old children

[F]: I have a classroom of 9 years old children (Boys and girls)

Question 4: do you have learners with dyslexia in your class?

[A]: I don't really what you talk about dyslexia, but in my classroom I have two girls with reading problem

[B]: I don't have learners with dyslexia in my classroom, but some years ago I have a boy with who had difficult in reading and writing his own name

[C]: Yes I have a four children with reading problem, I tried to help them but they still do not know how to read even their names

[D]: No, I don't have children with dyslexia in my classroom

Appendix XVIII: Focus group 1 interview (Continuation 1)



[E]: No, I don't have such children in my classroom, but I have some children in my classroom who have some problem to read and write

[F]: Yes, I have a girl with reading and writing barrier in my classroom

Question 5: In your opinion what do you understand by the term dyslexia?

[A]: "my understanding of the term is very poor, but believe that people or learners who have problem with reading are identified as having dyslexia"

[B]: "to be honest with you, I don't really know the term dyslexia, but I can try to say that having dyslexia means having difficult to read aloud"

[C]: " I don't know if I am right , but I believe that dyslexia is relating to reading and writing impairment, a person with dyslexia always fail to read and to writing"

[D]: "I always hear about the name from my colleague, but I don't know the real meaning of it "

[E]: "I don't know the meaning of dyslexia, but I hear my friend doctor who often speak about it, but I don't know the real meaning of it"

[F]: "For me, Dyslexia is a kind of learning disability that affect intelligence of an individual, that a child or an adult"

Question 6: How Dyslexia is manifested

[A]: "According to me, I point out that the manifestation of dyslexia if often occur in reading skills. This because in many times, learners with dyslexia have problem to read aloud even a word or a small sentence of a text"

[B] : "For me I don't know how dyslexia is manifested in educational live of a learner, but most often I discover that in the classroom when I teach I found some learners who cannot even read or write their name , if even he/ she comes from a rich or a poor family".

[C]: "In my classroom, I have to learners who struggle to write and read common word, but in other subject like Math, Geography and history, they perform well, but when it comes in reading or grammar, they cannot even read a sentence, although there in grade four of primary school, but these learners speak fluently".

[D]: "In my career as a teacher, every year I meet 2 or 3 learners who struggle in reading, especially in writing. I don't know if they have dyslexia or not"

[E]: "I found difficult to answer this question, because I never across any child with this severe reading impairment or writing, but I met 2 girls last year in my classroom who have problem in counting number, but I don't if they are also under criteria of dyslexic learners".

Appendix XIX: Focus group 1 interview (Continuation 2)



[F]: “In my career as a teacher, I always have one or two children who struggle with reading and writing in my classroom every year, often they cannot read and even a word with two syllabus, and later I discover that most children, who have dyslexia, always have a severe problem of reading and writing. According to my experience, I conclude that I child with dyslexia will always have problem in reading and writing compare with his or her peer of the same class”.

Question 7: In your opinion what do you understand for education for all and have you been discussing it in school?

[A]: “As a teacher, for me education for all means every person is right to be educated, but in DRC is not the case because if your parent does not have money to pay the school fees of a child, the child cannot go to school. In our school, we try to discuss it many times, but if parents do not have money to pay school fees the child will not go school”.

[B]: “For me I can give the same answer as my colleague gave, in our country the government does not care about education being a necessity need for all. A child coming from a poor family does not deserve to go to school, because parents cannot afford to pay the school fees”.

[C]: “Here in DRC education is only for rich people, not for poor people, especially if the parent of child cannot afford to pay the school fees”.

[E]: “I know education is primary need for everybody, but in our country is a contrary, because many children do not go to school, especially in rural area where parent do not have a higher income to pay the school fees of their children”.

[F]: “For me I believe education is for all, but because of lack of money many children here in DRC are left behind because their parents are incapable to pay their Tuition fees”.

Question 8: What do you understand by the term inclusive education?

[A]: “I think inclusive education means a school where all category of children are included”.

[B]: “For me inclusive education is a new term, here in DRC we don’t have it yet, I believe inclusive education is a term that ask every children to be in the same classroom”

[C]: “I think inclusive education is about to include all children in one classroom and in the same learning environment”.

[D]: “Inclusive education means all children should be include in one the teaching room”.

[E]: “I don’t really know, but I think inclusive education is to put all sex in one classroom”

[F]: “Inclusive education is a concept of allowing all children in same learning environment and in one school setting”

Appendix XX: Focus group 1 interview (Continuation 3)



Question 9: Has your schools authority has being talking about inclusive Education

[A]: “my school does not talk about inclusive education, but learners with learning disabilities are included by default”.

[B]: “In my opinion, since I have been here in this school, I never hear my school authority talking about having inclusive education in my school”.

[C]: “Inclusion is a new topic to me, because I don’t know how it is applied and this concept it never being spoken officially in my school by any school authority”.

[D]: “I never hear my school authority talking about inclusive education, but a year ago I had discussion with my colleague about the concept”.

[E]: “Since I have been as a teacher in this school, we never had any meeting regarding inclusive education”.

[F]: “Inclusive education never being told or spoke in our school meeting or outside our school meeting”.

Question 10: How do you as a teacher include learners with dyslexia in primary schools?

[A]: “Learners with dyslexia are included by default in our school; teachers only identify them after seeing that they are incapable to read and write after many years being at school”.

[B]: “Our school enrolls all learners without looking their learning barriers, but after spending some period with the child in the classroom, if I find that the child is incapable to read and write, and then I discuss education progress of that child with my school principal and the parent of the child”.

[C]: “in our school, the inclusion of learners with dyslexia is done unconsciously, that means we never know if a child has dyslexia, but we discover it after some period when we see that the child is incapable of reading and writing as their peers in same classroom”.

[D]: “The inclusion of learners with dyslexia is done out of our control, because we don’t know in beginning that a child is having dyslexia, but after being in classroom with the child, then we discover that the child is dyslexic, that means he or having barrier to read and write”.

[E]: “In the beginning, it is difficult to know that the child is dyslexic, but the problem is discovered after some period of discovering that the child having barrier to read and write”.

[F]: “As a teacher, I never known that a child is dyslexic, this because in our school we don’t have a reading and writing test for youngest learners before the child can be enroll in school, however after a child being in the class with their peer, I discover that he is having a severe read and writing barriers”.

Appendix XXI: Focus group 1 interview (Continuation 4)



Question 11: What is your opinion about teaching children with dyslexia alongside with their peer without dyslexia?

[A]: “For me, idea of teaching children with dyslexia alongside with normal peers, it will be a hard and difficult task because there is only one teacher in one classroom, and most of our classrooms have 40 to 60 children. Mixing both categories of learners in the same classroom, it will disturb learning outcomes”

[B]: “I don’t have any problem of not mixing dyslexic learners with their non-dyslexic learners in the same classroom, but it will be a good idea if all teachers receive firstly a training about dyslexia and inclusive education, and instead of one teacher in one classroom, it will preferred to have even 3 more supporter teachers in a classroom”

[C]: “For me I don’t think it is good idea, because the learning outcomes of dyslexic and non-dyslexic learners will not be achieved perfectly”

[D]: “for me the inclusion is not bad, but class size must be reduce to 10 or 15 children, and number of dyslexic learners in a classroom cannot be more than 3”

[E]: “It is impossible to mix dyslexic learners and non-dyslexic learners in the same classroom; because learners with dyslexia will need more attention and this will affect the learning style of non-dyslexic learners”.

[F]: “I believe that for effective inclusion, the government and education stakeholders need to train teachers on regular basis on inclusion in general and inclusion of learners with dyslexia in particular”.

Question 12: How do you as teachers understand inclusion of learners with dyslexia in mainstream primary?

[A]: “For me inclusion of learners with dyslexia in mainstream primary school mainly understand as putting learners with dyslexia in same classroom with their peer without dyslexia”.

[B]: “The inclusion of learners with dyslexia in mainstream primary schools mainly says that let children with dyslexia learn educational activities with their non-dyslexic learners in the same classroom environment”.

[C]: “For me the answer on this question means both learners should be involve in educational activities simultaneously in the same class room”.

[D]: “Let dyslexic learners and their peer without dyslexia be taught on the same curriculum in the same classroom mainstream primary school”.

[E]: “My understanding of inclusion of learners with dyslexia in mainstream primary school means dyslexic learners have the right to be educated with their fellow without dyslexia in the same classroom setting”.

Appendix XXII: Focus group 1 interview (Continuation 5)



[F]: “I mean learners with dyslexia should be educated in the same learning environment with their fellow without dyslexia, because I believe that dyslexic learners have the right to be educated in the same classroom environment with their fellow without dyslexia and both categories of learners must be taught on the same curriculum, but the government and educational stakeholders must provide much educational resource, equipment and funds”.

Question 13: How do you as teachers experience the inclusion of learners with dyslexia in primary schools?

[A]: “In our school, we don’t have any inclusion of learners with dyslexia up now, therefore it is difficult to experiment something that you don’t have a clue”

[B]: “Inclusion of learners with dyslexia is not yet establishes officially in our school, so we only have inclusion by default of one or two children detected with severe barrier in reading and writing (dyslexia) in my class room, it is not always every year. But the little experience I have, I can say that inclusion of learners with dyslexia in mainstream primary school is hard and difficult”.

[C]: “Although inclusion of learners with dyslexia is not yet being establishes officially in our mainstream schools , but the little experience I have with learners with dyslexia who have being by default included in the classroom which I teach, I can conclude that teachers need to be skilled effectively on the inclusion before they embark on it”.

[D]: “For me I don’t have experience on the inclusion of learners with dyslexia because I never have a child identified with severe barrier of reading and writing in my classroom”.

[E]: “I am sorry, I haven’t yet experience the inclusion of learners with dyslexia in my life as teacher, but I presumed that once it will be establish officially in my school, I will have my own experience. But for now I don’t have any experience”.

[F]: “Although, our schools does not have yet inclusive education school , But in my career as teacher, I meet a daughter of a medical doctor who was dyslexic in my classroom, it was a very painful task, because she could not even write her own name properly or read a simple sentence. In the classroom, most of the times I use to help her, but often her peer without dyslexia use to help her instead of me. But I used to go to their home to help her after school hours”.

Question 14: How do you as a teachers practice the inclusion of learners with dyslexia in primary schools.

[A]: “There is no implementation of inclusion in my school, and there is no practice of inclusion”

[B]: “In our school, we don’t practice inclusion because we don’t have inclusive education”

[C]: “There is no inclusive education in mainstream school in DRC, so there is nothing to practice”

[D]: “Inclusive education does not exist in our school to be practiced”

[E]: “we don’t have inclusion in our school, so we can’t practice something we don’t have”.

Appendix XXIII: Focus group 1 interview (Continuation 6)



[F]: “The implementation of Inclusive education does not exist in our school and in DRC mainstream schools, so the practice to inclusion cannot be done”.

Question 15: What is your experience in teaching in such an environment?

[A]: “I don’t have any experience yet, because we don’t have inclusive education”

[B]: “I can’t talk about my experience, because our school does not have inclusive education”.

[C]: “There is not inclusive education in my school, and in DRC, so I can’t have experience”.

[D]: “I don’t have experience because there is no inclusive environment in my country”.

[E]: “In our school and in mainstream primary school in DRC, there is no inclusive school”.

[F]: “I don’t really have much experience on inclusive education, because it is not yet established in my school, however from one or two experience which I had in teaching learners with dyslexia in my classroom, I can conclude that teaching in inclusive mainstream school environment is not easy task”.

Question 16: Is the concept inclusive education is commonly implemented in your schools?

[A]: “Not at all”

[B]: “Not yet”

[C]: “No, it is still a slogan”

[D]: “Not for now”

[E]: “No”

[F]: “No”

Question 17: Can you explained to me if you had special training before teaching in such a classroom environment? And if not how do you cope?

[A]: “in my school, there is no Inclusive education, so I never had the training in such classroom environment”

[B]: “I never had inclusive education training in my life”

[C]: “I never receive any training for inclusive education”

[D]: “I have been a teacher for many years; I never receive training for inclusive education, because we don’t have any inclusive education in our school and in DRC”

E1: I never done any training in inclusive education in our school

F1: In our country, the government does not really provide special of teachers after finishing their school. I can say that I never done any form of training in area of inclusive education

Appendix XXIV: Focus group 1 interview (Continuation 7)



Question 18: As teacher, what do think DRC need for the implementation of inclusive education in mainstream School for all learners with dyslexia?

[A]: “DRC government need to provide training on inclusive education to all teachers of mainstream classroom before implementation of inclusive education of all learners, Dyslexic learners in particular”

[B]: “In order to implement inclusive education in mainstream primary schools in DRC, The ministry of education should provide a campaign of inclusive education to all the sectors of education”.

[C]: “Education authorities and stakeholders should reduce the class size of learners in one classroom”.

[D]: “The government of DRC should provide enough material resources and finances to all education authorities that will help them to build inclusive classrooms and environments for all learners with special education need in general and dyslexic learners in particular”

[E]: “As a teacher, I thing that the government should train teachers and build school for inclusion”

[F]: “DRC government should first increase the salary of teachers of mainstream schools and train them on inclusive education”

Appendix XXV:
Focus group 1 interview (Translated into French)



Question 1 : quel âge avez-vous et pourriez-vous s'il vous plaît partager avec moi au sujet de votre formation et quel âge avez-vous?

[A]: J'ai 40 ans et j'ai mon diplôme en pédagogie (diplôme d'État) dans l'enseignement

[B]: J'ai 45 ans et j'ai complété mon école secondaire en pédagogie, j'ai reçu la qualification de diplôme d'État (matriciel)

[C]: J'ai 42 ans et j'ai mon diplôme d'État «en pédagogie (matricielle) de qualification dans l'enseignement.

[D]: J'ai 43 ans et j'ai mon diplôme d'enseignement (diplôme d'État en pédagogie) dans l'éducation

[E]: J'ai 39 ans et j'ai la qualification Matric (diplôme-d'État en pédagogie) dans l'éducation

[F]: J'ai 60 ans et je n'ai qu'un diplôme d'État en pédagogie (qualification matricielle dans l'enseignement).

Question 2 : Depuis combien de temps enseignez-vous

[A]: j'enseigne à l'école primaire depuis 10 ans

[B]: mon expérience d'enseignement à l'école primaire est d'environ 15 ans

[C]: J'ai 14 ans dans l'enseignement des carrières

[D]: J'ai 16 ans d'expérience dans l'enseignement

[E]: J'ai 14 ans dans l'enseignement à l'école primaire

[F]: J'ai 30 ans d'expérience dans l'enseignement de l'éducation de base

Question 3 : Quelle est la diversité de vos apprenants ?

[A]: ma classe comprend des garçons et des filles de 6 à 7 ans

[B]: J'ai une classe de garçons et de filles de 8 ans

[C]: j'enseigne une classe de garçons et de filles de 8 ans

[D]: dans ma classe, j'enseigne aux enfants de 7 ans

[E]: J'ai une classe d'enfants de 6 ans

[F]: J'ai une salle de classe d'enfants de 9 ans (garçons et filles)

**Appendix XXVI:
Focus group 1 interview (Translated into French)
(Continuation 1)**



Question 4 : Avez-vous des apprenants souffrant de dyslexie dans votre classe ?

[A]: je n'ai pas vraiment ce que vous parlez de dyslexie, mais dans ma classe j'ai deux filles avec un problème de lecture

[B]: je n'ai pas d'apprenants avec la dyslexie dans ma classe, mais il ya quelques années j'ai un garçon avec qui avait du mal à lire et à écrire son propre nom

[C]: Oui j'ai un quatre enfants avec le problème de lecture, j'ai essayé de les aider, mais ils ne savent toujours pas comment lire même leurs noms

[D]: non, je n'ai pas d'enfants souffrant de dyslexie dans ma classe

[E]: non, je n'ai pas de tels enfants dans ma classe, mais j'ai quelques enfants dans ma classe qui ont un problème à lire et à écrire

[F]: Oui, j'ai une fille avec la lecture et l'écriture barrière dans ma salle de classe

Question 5 : Comment la dyslexie se manifeste-t-elle dans la classe, en particulier parmi les apprenants de l'école primaire ?

[A]: «ma compréhension du terme est très médiocre, mais je crois que les personnes ou les apprenants qui ont un problème de lecture sont identifiés comme ayant la dyslexie»

[B]: "pour être honnête avec vous, je ne sais pas vraiment le terme dyslexie, mais je peux essayer de dire que la dyslexie signifie avoir du mal à lire à haute voix"

[C]: "je ne sais pas si j'ai raison, mais je crois que la dyslexie est liée à la lecture et l'écriture de déficience, une personne dyslexie toujours manquer de lire et d'écrire"

[D]: «j'entends toujours parler du nom de mon collègue, mais je ne connais pas le sens réel de celui-ci»

[E]: "je ne sais pas le sens de la dyslexie, mais j'entends mon ami médecin qui en parle souvent, mais je ne sais pas le sens réel de celui-ci"

[F]: «pour moi, la dyslexie est une sorte de handicap d'apprentissage qui affectent l'intelligence d'un individu, qu'un enfant ou un adulte»

Question 6 : Partagez votre expérience de l'enseignement de ces apprenants

[A]: «selon moi, je souligne que la manifestation de la dyslexie s'est souvent produite dans les compétences de lecture. Cela parce que dans de nombreuses fois, les apprenants souffrant de dyslexie ont un problème à lire à haute voix, même un mot ou une petite phrase d'un texte "

**Appendix XXVII:
Focus group 1 interview (Translated into French)
(Continuation 2)**



[B]: «pour moi, je ne sais pas comment la dyslexie se manifeste dans l'éducation en direct d'un apprenant, mais le plus souvent je découvre que dans la salle de classe quand j'enseigne, j'ai trouvé des apprenants qui ne peuvent même pas lire ou écrire leur nom, si même il/elle vient d'une famille riche ou pauvre».

[C]: «dans ma classe, je dois aux apprenants qui luttent pour écrire et lire le mot commun, mais dans d'autres matières comme les mathématiques, la géographie et l'histoire, ils fonctionnent bien, mais quand il s'agit de lecture ou de grammaire, ils ne peuvent même pas lire une phrase, bien qu'il y en quatrième année de l'école primaire, mais ces apprenants parlent couramment».

[D]: «dans ma carrière d'enseignant, je rencontre chaque année 2 ou 3 apprenants qui luttent en lecture, surtout par écrit. Je ne sais pas si ils ont la dyslexie ou non »

[E]: «J'ai trouvé difficile de répondre à cette question, parce que je n'ai jamais à travers n'importe quel enfant avec cette déficience de lecture sévère ou de l'écriture, mais j'ai rencontré 2 filles l'année dernière dans ma classe qui ont un problème dans le nombre de comptage, mais je ne suis pas si elles sont également sous des critères de dyslexique apprenants».

[F]: «dans ma carrière d'enseignante, j'ai toujours un ou deux enfants qui luttent avec la lecture et l'écriture dans ma salle de classe chaque année, souvent ils ne peuvent pas lire et même un mot avec deux syllabus, et plus tard, je découvre que la plupart des enfants, qui ont la dyslexie, ont toujours un grave problème de lecture et d'écriture. Selon mon expérience, je conclus que j'ai enfant avec la dyslexie aura toujours un problème dans la lecture et l'écriture de comparer avec son homologue de la même classe ».

Question 7: à votre avis, que comprenez-vous pour l'éducation pour tous et en avez-vous discuté à l'école?

[A]: «en tant qu'enseignante, pour moi, l'éducation pour tous signifie que chaque personne a raison d'être éduquée, mais en RDC n'est pas le cas parce que si votre parent n'a pas d'argent pour payer les frais de scolarité d'un enfant, l'enfant ne peut pas aller à l'école. Dans notre école, nous essayons d'en discuter plusieurs fois, mais si les parents n'ont pas d'argent pour payer les frais de scolarité, l'enfant ne va pas à l'école».

**Appendix XXVIII:
Focus group 1 interview (Translated into French) (Continuation 3)**



[B]: «pour moi, je peux donner la même réponse que mon collègue a donnée, dans notre pays, le gouvernement ne se soucie pas de l'éducation étant une nécessité nécessaire pour tous. Un enfant issu d'une famille pauvre ne mérite pas d'aller à l'école, parce que les parents ne peuvent pas se permettre de payer les frais de scolarité».

[C]: «ici, en RDC, l'éducation n'est que pour les personnes riches, pas pour les pauvres, surtout si le parent de l'enfant ne peut pas se permettre de payer les frais de scolarité».

[E]: «Je sais que l'éducation est un besoin primordial pour tout le monde, mais dans notre pays est un contraire, parce que de nombreux enfants ne vont pas à l'école, surtout dans les zones rurales où les parents n'ont pas un revenu plus élevé pour payer les frais de scolarité de leurs enfants».

[F]: «pour moi, je crois que l'éducation est pour tous, mais en raison du manque d'argent de nombreux enfants ici en RDC sont laissés pour compte parce que leurs parents sont incapables de payer leurs frais de scolarité».

Question 8: que comprenez-vous par le terme «éducation inclusive» ?

[A]: «l'éducation inclusive, c'est une école où toutes les catégories d'enfants sont incluses».

[B]: «pour moi, l'éducation inclusive est un nouveau terme, ici en RDC, nous ne l'avons pas encore, je crois que l'éducation inclusive est un terme qui demande à tous les enfants d'être dans la même salle de classe»

[C]: «Je pense que l'éducation inclusive est sur le fait d'inclure tous les enfants dans une classe et dans le même environnement d'apprentissage».

[D]: "l'éducation inclusive signifie que tous les enfants devraient être inclus dans une salle d'enseignement".

[E]: "je ne sais pas vraiment, mais je pense que l'éducation inclusive est de mettre tous les rapports sexuels dans une salle de classe"

[F]: "l'éducation inclusive est un concept de permettre à tous les enfants dans le même environnement d'apprentissage et dans un établissement scolaire"

Question 9: votre autorité scolaire parle-t-elle de l'éducation inclusive?

[A]: «mon école ne parle pas de l'éducation inclusive, mais les apprenants ayant des troubles d'apprentissage sont inclus par défaut».

**Appendix XXIX:
Focus group 1 interview (Translated into French)
(Continuation 4)**



[B]: «à mon avis, puisque je suis ici dans cette école, je n'entends jamais mon autorité scolaire parler de l'éducation inclusive dans mon école».

[C]: "l'inclusion est un nouveau sujet pour moi, parce que je ne sais pas comment il est appliqué et ce concept, il n'est jamais parlé officiellement dans mon école par une autorité scolaire".

[D]: «je n'entends jamais mon autorité scolaire parler de l'éducation inclusive, mais il y a un an, j'ai discuté avec mon collègue de ce concept».

[E]: «depuis que j'ai enseigné dans cette école, nous n'avons jamais eu de réunion sur l'éducation inclusive».

[F]: «l'éducation inclusive n'a jamais été racontée ni exprimée lors de notre réunion scolaire ou en dehors de notre réunion scolaire».

Question 10: Comment faites-vous en tant qu'enseignant parmi les apprenants souffrant de dyslexie dans les écoles primaires?

[A]: «les apprenants souffrant de dyslexie sont inclus par défaut dans notre école; les enseignants ne les identifient qu'après avoir vu qu'ils sont incapables de lire et d'écrire après de nombreuses années à l'école».

[B]: «notre école inscrit tous les apprenants sans regarder leurs barrières d'apprentissage, mais après avoir passé une certaine période avec l'enfant dans la salle de classe, si je trouve que l'enfant est incapable de lire et d'écrire, et puis je discute du progrès de l'éducation de cet enfant avec mon école principal et le parent de l'enfant».

[C]: "dans notre école, l'inclusion des apprenants souffrant de dyslexie se fait inconsciemment, cela signifie que nous ne savons jamais si un enfant a la dyslexie, mais nous le découvrons après une certaine période où nous voyons que l'enfant est incapable de lire et d'écrire comme leurs pairs dans la même salle de classe".

[D]: «l'inclusion des apprenants souffrant de dyslexie est faite hors de notre contrôle, parce que nous ne savons pas au début qu'un enfant souffre de dyslexie, mais après avoir été dans la salle de classe avec l'enfant, alors nous découvrons que l'enfant est dyslexique, cela signifie qu'il ou ayant barrière à lire et écrire ".

[E]: "au début, il est difficile de savoir que l'enfant est dyslexique, mais le problème est découvert après une certaine période de découverte que l'enfant ayant barrière à lire et à écrire".

**Appendix XXX:
Focus group 1 interview (Translated into French)
(Continuation 5)**



[F]: «en tant qu'enseignant, je n'ai jamais su qu'un enfant est dyslexique, parce que dans notre école, nous n'avons pas de test de lecture et d'écriture pour les plus jeunes apprenants avant que l'enfant puisse s'inscrire à l'école, mais après qu'un enfant soit dans la classe avec son homologue, Je découvre qu'il a des barrières de lecture et d'écriture sévères».

Question 11: quelle est votre opinion sur l'enseignement des enfants souffrant de dyslexie aux côtés de leur pair sans dyslexie?

[A]: «pour moi, l'idée d'enseigner aux enfants souffrant de dyslexie avec des pairs normaux, ce sera une tâche difficile et difficile parce qu'il n'y a qu'un seul enseignant dans une salle de classe, et la plupart de nos salles de classe ont 40 à 60 enfants. Mélanger les deux catégories d'apprenants dans la même salle de classe, cela perturbera les résultats d'apprentissage».

[B]: «je n'ai aucun problème de ne pas mélanger les apprenants dyslexiques avec leurs apprenants non dyslexiques dans la même salle de classe, mais ce sera une bonne idée si tous les enseignants reçoivent d'abord une formation sur la dyslexie et l'éducation inclusive, et au lieu d'un enseignant dans une classe, il préférera avoir encore 3 enseignants de supporteurs dans une dans une salle de classe »

[C]: "pour moi, je ne pense pas que c'est une bonne idée, parce que les résultats d'apprentissage des apprenants dyslexiques et non-dyslexiques ne seront pas atteints parfaitement"

[D]: "pour moi, l'inclusion n'est pas mauvaise, mais la taille de la classe doit être réduite à 10 ou 15 enfants, et le nombre d'apprenants dyslexiques dans une classe ne peut pas être plus de 3"

[E]: "il est impossible de mélanger les apprenants dyslexiques et les apprenants non dyslexiques dans la même salle de classe; parce que les apprenants souffrant de dyslexie auront besoin d'une plus grande attention, ce qui affectera le style d'apprentissage des apprenants non dyslexiques».

[F]: «je crois que pour une inclusion efficace, le gouvernement et les acteurs de l'éducation doivent former les enseignants sur une base régulière sur l'inclusion en général et l'inclusion des apprenants souffrant de dyslexie en particulier».

**Appendix XXXI:
Focus group 1 interview (Translated into French)
(Continuation 6)**



Question 12: comment les enseignants comprennent-ils l'inclusion des apprenants souffrant de dyslexie dans le primaire principal?

[A]: «pour moi l'inclusion des apprenants souffrant de dyslexie dans l'école primaire principale comprennent principalement que mettre les apprenants avec la dyslexie dans la même salle de classe avec leur pair sans dyslexie».

[B]: «l'inclusion des apprenants souffrant de dyslexie dans les écoles primaires ordinaires dit principalement que les enfants dyslexiques apprennent des activités éducatives avec leurs apprenants non dyslexique dans le même environnement de classe».

[C]: «pour moi, la réponse à cette question signifie que les deux apprenants doivent participer à des activités éducatives simultanément dans la même salle de classe».

[D]: «que les apprenants dyslexiques et leur homologue sans dyslexie soient enseignés sur le même curriculum dans la même école primaire ordinaire de la classe».

[E]: «ma compréhension de l'inclusion des apprenants souffrant de dyslexie dans l'école primaire principale signifie que les apprenants dyslexiques ont le droit d'être éduqués avec leur compatriote sans dyslexie dans le même milieu de classe».

[F]: "je veux dire que les apprenants souffrant de dyslexie devraient être éduqués dans le même environnement d'apprentissage avec leur camarade sans dyslexie, parce que je crois que les apprenants dyslexiques ont le droit d'être éduqués dans le même milieu de classe avec leur camarade sans dyslexie et les deux catégories d'apprenants doivent être enseignées sur le même curriculum, mais le gouvernement et les intervenants en éducation doivent fournir beaucoup de ressources éducatives, d'équipement et de fonds».

Question 13: comment les enseignants font-ils l'expérience de l'inclusion des apprenants souffrant de dyslexie dans les écoles primaires?

[A]: "dans notre école, nous n'avons pas d'inclusion des apprenants avec la dyslexie jusqu'à maintenant, il est donc difficile d'expérimenter quelque chose que vous n'avez pas un indice"

[B]: «l'inclusion des apprenants souffrant de dyslexie n'est pas encore établie officiellement dans notre école, donc nous n'avons que l'inclusion par défaut d'un ou deux enfants détectés avec une barrière sévère dans la lecture et l'écriture (dyslexie) dans ma salle de classe, ce n'est pas toujours chaque année. Mais la petite expérience que j'ai, je peux dire que l'inclusion des apprenants avec la dyslexie dans l'école primaire principale est difficile et difficile».

**Appendix XXXII:
Focus group 1 interview (Translated into French)
(Continuation 7)**



[C]: «bien que l'inclusion des apprenants souffrant de dyslexie ne soit pas encore établie officiellement dans nos écoles ordinaires, mais la petite expérience que j'ai avec les apprenants souffrant de dyslexie qui ont été par défaut inclus dans la salle de classe que j'enseigne, je peux conclure que les enseignants doivent être qualifiés efficacement sur l'inclusion avant qu'ils n'y embarquent».

[D]: «pour moi, je n'ai pas d'expérience sur l'inclusion des apprenants souffrant de dyslexie parce que je n'ai jamais un enfant identifié avec une sévère barrière de lecture et d'écriture dans ma classe».

[E]: «je suis désolé, je n'ai pas encore l'expérience de l'inclusion des apprenants souffrant de dyslexie dans ma vie comme enseignant, mais j'ai présumé qu'une fois qu'il sera établi officiellement dans mon école, je vais avoir ma propre expérience. Mais pour l'instant je n'ai pas d'expérience».

[F]: «bien que, nos écoles n'ont pas encore école d'éducation inclusive, mais dans ma carrière en tant que professeur, je rencontre une fille d'un médecin qui était dyslexique dans ma classe, c'était une tâche très douloureuse, parce qu'elle ne pouvait même pas écrire son propre nom correctement ou lire une simple phrase. Dans la salle de classe, la plupart du temps que j'utilise pour l'aider, mais souvent son homologue sans dyslexie utiliser pour l'aider au lieu de moi. Mais j'ai l'habitude d'aller à leur domicile pour l'aider après les heures d'école ».

Question 14: comment les enseignants pratiquent-ils l'inclusion des apprenants souffrant de dyslexie dans les écoles primaires?

[A]: «il n'y a pas de mise en œuvre de l'inclusion dans mon école, et il n'y a aucune pratique d'inclusion»

[B]: «dans notre école, nous ne pratiquons pas l'inclusion parce que nous n'avons pas d'éducation inclusive»

[C]: "il n'y a pas d'éducation inclusive dans l'école ordinaire en RDC, il n'y a donc rien à pratiquer"

[D]: «l'éducation inclusive n'existe pas dans notre école pour être pratiquée»

[E]: "nous n'avons pas d'inclusion dans notre école, donc nous ne pouvons pas pratiquer quelque chose que nous n'avons pas".

[F]: «la mise en œuvre de l'éducation inclusive n'existe pas dans notre école et dans les écoles ordinaires de la RDC, de sorte que la pratique à l'inclusion ne peut pas être fait».

**Appendix XXXIII:
Focus group 1 interview (Translated into French)
(Continuation 8)**



Question 15: quelle est votre expérience dans l'enseignement dans un tel environnement?

[A]: «je n'ai pas encore d'expérience, parce que nous n'avons pas d'éducation inclusive»

[B]: «je ne peux pas parler de mon expérience, parce que notre école n'a pas d'éducation inclusive».

[C]: «il n'y a pas d'éducation inclusive dans mon école, et en RDC, donc je ne peux pas avoir de l'expérience».

[D]: «je n'ai pas d'expérience parce qu'il n'y a pas d'environnement inclusif dans mon pays».

[E]: «dans notre école et dans l'école primaire ordinaire en RDC, il n'y a pas d'école inclusive».

[F]: «je n'ai pas vraiment beaucoup d'expérience sur l'éducation inclusive, parce qu'il n'est pas encore établi dans mon école, mais d'une ou deux expériences que j'ai eu dans l'enseignement des apprenants avec la dyslexie dans ma classe, je peux conclure que l'enseignement dans l'environnement scolaire publique n'est pas une tâche facile».

Question 16: le concept d'éducation inclusive est-il couramment mis en œuvre dans vos écoles?

[A]: "pas du tout"

[B]: "pas encore"

[C]: "non, c'est toujours un slogan"

[D]: "pas pour le moment"

[E]: "non"

[F]: "non"

Question 17: pouvez-vous m'expliquer si vous avez eu une formation spéciale avant d'enseigner dans un tel environnement de classe? Et sinon, comment faites-vous face?

[A]: "dans mon école, il n'y a pas d'éducation inclusive, donc je n'ai jamais eu la formation dans un tel environnement de classe".

[B]: «je n'ai jamais eu de formation inclusive dans ma vie»

[C]: «je ne reçois jamais de formation pour l'éducation inclusive»

**Appendix XXXIV:
Focus group 1 interview (Translated into French)
(Continuation 9)**



[D]: «je suis professeur depuis de nombreuses années; Je ne reçois jamais de formation pour l'éducation inclusive, parce que nous n'avons pas d'éducation inclusive dans notre école et en RDC »

E1: je n'ai jamais fait de formation en éducation inclusive dans notre école
F1: dans notre pays, le gouvernement ne fournit pas vraiment spécial des enseignants après avoir terminé leur école. Je peux dire que je n'ai jamais fait aucune forme de formation dans le domaine de l'éducation inclusive

Question 18: en tant qu'enseignant, qu'est-ce que la RDC a besoin pour la mise en œuvre de l'éducation inclusive dans l'école ordinaire pour tous les apprenants souffrant de dyslexie?

[A]: «le gouvernement de la RDC doit fournir une formation sur l'éducation inclusive à tous les enseignants de la classe principale avant la mise en œuvre de l'éducation inclusive de tous les apprenants, les apprenants dyslexiques en particulier»

[B]: «afin de mettre en œuvre une éducation inclusive dans les écoles primaires ordinaires en RDC, le ministère de l'éducation devrait fournir une campagne d'éducation inclusive à tous les secteurs de l'éducation».

[C]: "les autorités éducatives et les parties prenantes devraient réduire la taille des élèves dans une classe".

[D]: «le gouvernement de la RDC devrait fournir suffisamment de ressources matérielles et de finances à toutes les autorités éducatives qui les aideront à construire des salles de classe et des environnements inclusifs pour tous les apprenants ayant besoin d'une éducation spéciale en général et des apprenants dyslexiques dans particulier

[E]: «en tant qu'enseignante, j'ai l'idée que le gouvernement devrait former les enseignants et construire l'école pour l'inclusion»

[F]: «le gouvernement de la RDC devrait d'abord augmenter le salaire des enseignants des écoles ordinaires et les former à l'éducation inclusive»

Appendix XXXV: Individual interview 1 (Translated into French)



Question 1: How old are you and could you please share with me about your educational background?

[Pr1]: I have 58 years old, I hold a Diplome-d'état" in pedagogy (Matric qualification in education).

Question 2: How long have you been teaching?

[Pr1]: I have 38 years of experience in teaching in primary schools basic education

Question 3: How diverse are your learners

[Pr1]: My school is mixed schools (boys and girls) of 500 pupils coming from grade 1 to grade 6

Question 4: Do you have learners with dyslexia in your class?

[Pr1]: In my school I have some learners with reading and writing barriers

Question 5: In your opinion what do you understand by the term dyslexia?

[Pr1]: *"According to my understanding the term dyslexia is mostly related to a disability to read. This disability affect some children during their first year of study, most children with this type of this disability have a serious problem to read the letters of alphabet, especially when they are in the first year of their education"*.

Question 6: How Dyslexia is manifested

[Pr1]: *"I believe that a child with dyslexia will manifest fear, reading and writing problem and he always have shame to talk to others peers"*.

Question 7: In your opinion what do you understand for education for all and have you been discussing it in school?

[Pr1]: *"it is a type of education that allows every child to be educated simultaneously in the same classroom settings, this concept is discussed, but it is still a slogan, this because the country lack enthusiasms to implement it"*.

Question 8: What do you understand by the term inclusive education?

[Pr1]: *"inclusive education means an educational approach that allow teachers to use image, blackboard, photos during in classroom activities"*.

Question 9: Has your schools authority has being talking about inclusive Education

[Pr1]: *"I tried to discussed the concept of inclusive education in my school, but this is an early phase, because the educational authority has not yet implement it because lack of resource that can implement effectively inclusion in our school"*.

**Appendix XXXVI: Individual interview 1 (Translated into French)
(Continuation 1)**



Question 10: How do you as a teacher include learners with dyslexia in primary schools?

[Pr1]: *“in our primary schools, teachers do not have the methods of including learners with dyslexia in mainstream classroom settings, because we don’t have inclusive education in our schools in DRC, but all learners have access to our school without any form of assessment”.*

Question 11: What is your opinion about teaching children with dyslexia alongside with their peer without dyslexia?

[Pr1]: *“Idea of teaching children with dyslexia with their peer without dyslexia in the same classroom, it is impossible because we as teachers we don’t have the skills of inclusion”*

Question 12: How do you as teachers understand inclusion of learners with dyslexia in mainstream primary?

[Pr1]: *“The inclusion of learners with dyslexia in mainstream primary schools, it good idea if all the materials and finance resources are available in mainstream primary schools”.*

Question 13: How do you as teachers experience the inclusion of learners with dyslexia in primary schools?

[Pr1]: *“it is impossible to talk about my experience on the inclusion of learners with dyslexia, this because I don’t have any formal experience. But my duties as principal is if there is any child with dyslexia in my school and classrooms, I must oblige my teachers to bring the child with dyslexia at the same level with his peer without dyslexia”*

Question 14: How do you as a teachers practice the inclusion of learners with dyslexia in primary schools.

[Pr1]: *“in our school, there is no formal inclusion of learners with dyslexia in our classrooms. Therefore I don’t have any form of practice toward them, but as a principal of my school if there are children with dyslexia by default in our classroom settings, I will force teachers in my school to work hard to bring their intellectual level at the same level of learners without dyslexia”.*

**Appendix XXXVII: Individual interview 1 (Translated into French)
(Continuation 2)**



Question 15: What is your experience in teaching in such an environment?

[Pr1]: *"I don't have a formal experience in teaching at environment of inclusion of learners with dyslexia, however we always try to help their education in one way to another".*

Question 16: Is the concept inclusive education is commonly implemented in your schools?

[Pr1]: "inclusive education concept does not exist in our school, this because the government has not yet fully implement it in all mainstream school in DRC".

Question 17: Can you explained to me if you had special training before teaching in such a classroom environment? And if not how do you cope?

[Pr1]: *"no, i never had any training on inclusive education since i have been a teachers in primary school for 38 years".*

Question 18: As teacher, what do think DRC need for the implementation of inclusive education in mainstream School for all learners with dyslexia?

[Pr1]: "As a teacher and principal of my school, for effective implementation of inclusive education, the government has to create inclusive classroom that can afford not more than 20 learners in maximum in one classroom. Secondly the government must increase salary of teachers, and add 2 more teachers in a classroom , who will do the work of assistant teachers to help learners with dyslexia with their barrier in reading and writing, when another teachers explaining the lesson to entire classroom. Thirdly the government should train teachers on inclusive education of all learners in general and dyslexia in particular.

**Appendix XXXVIII: Individual interview 1 (Translated into French)
(Continuation 3)**



Question 1: quel âge avez-vous et pourriez-vous s'il vous plaît partager avec moi au sujet de votre éducation?

[PR1]: J'ai 58 ans, j'ai un diplôme- d'État en pédagogie (qualification Matrique en éducation).

Question 2: depuis combien de temps enseignez-vous?

[PR1]: J'ai 38 années d'expérience dans l'enseignement primaire dans les écoles primaires

Question 3: quelle est la diversité de vos apprenants

[PR1]: mon école est mixte écoles (garçons et filles) de 500 élèves en provenance de la première année primaire à la 6e année primaire

Question 4: avez-vous des apprenants souffrant de dyslexie dans votre classe?

[PR1]: dans mon école, j'ai des apprenants qui lisent et écrivent des barrières

Question 5: à votre avis, qu'est-ce que vous comprenez par le terme dyslexie?

[PR1]: «selon ma compréhension, le terme dyslexie est principalement lié à un handicap à lire. Cette déficience affecte certains enfants au cours de leur première année d'études, la plupart des enfants ayant ce type de handicap ont un problème sérieux à lire les lettres de l'alphabet, surtout quand ils sont dans la première année de leur éducation».

Question 6: Comment se manifeste la dyslexie

[PR1]: "je crois qu'un enfant souffrant de dyslexie manifestera la peur, la lecture et l'écriture du problème et il a toujours honte de parler à d'autres pairs".

Question 7: à votre avis, que comprenez-vous pour l'éducation pour tous et en avez-vous discuté à l'école?

[PR1]: «c'est un type d'éducation qui permet à chaque enfant d'être éduqué simultanément dans les mêmes milieux de classe, ce concept est discuté, mais c'est toujours un slogan, cela parce que le pays manque de enthousiasmes pour la mettre en œuvre».

Question 8: que comprenez-vous par le terme «éducation inclusive» ?

[PR1]: "l'éducation inclusive signifie une approche éducative qui permet aux enseignants d'utiliser l'image, le tableau noir, les photos pendant les activités en classe".

**Appendix XXXIX: Individual interview 1 (Translated into French)
(Continuation 4)**



Question 9: votre autorité scolaire parle-t-elle de l'éducation inclusive?

[PR1]: «J'ai essayé de discuter du concept d'éducation inclusive dans mon école, mais il s'agit d'une phase précoce, parce que l'autorité éducative ne l'a pas encore mise en œuvre parce que le manque de ressources qui peuvent mettre en œuvre effectivement l'inclusion dans notre école».

Question 10: Comment faites-vous en tant qu'enseignant parmi les apprenants souffrant de dyslexie dans les écoles primaires?

[PR1]: «dans nos écoles primaires, les enseignants n'ont pas les méthodes d'inclusion des apprenants souffrant de dyslexie dans les milieux de classe traditionnels, parce que nous n'avons pas d'éducation inclusive dans nos écoles en RDC, mais tous les apprenants ont accès à notre école sans aucune forme de évaluation».

Question 11: quelle est votre opinion sur l'enseignement des enfants souffrant de dyslexie aux côtés de leur pair sans dyslexie?

[PR1]: «l'idée d'enseigner aux enfants souffrant de dyslexie avec leur pair sans dyslexie dans la même salle de classe, c'est impossible parce que nous, en tant qu'enseignants, nous n'avons pas les compétences d'inclusion».

Question 12: comment les enseignants comprennent-ils l'inclusion des apprenants souffrant de dyslexie dans le primaire principal?

[PR1]: «l'inclusion des apprenants souffrant de dyslexie dans les écoles primaires ordinaires, il bonne idée si tous les matériaux et les ressources financières sont disponibles dans les écoles primaires ordinaires».

Question 13: comment les enseignants font-ils l'expérience de l'inclusion des apprenants souffrant de dyslexie dans les écoles primaires?

[PR1]: «il est impossible de parler de mon expérience sur l'inclusion des apprenants souffrant de dyslexie, cela parce que je n'ai pas d'expérience formelle. Mais mes devoirs en tant que principal est si il ya un enfant souffrant de dyslexie dans mon école et les salles de classe, je dois obliger mes enseignants à amener l'enfant avec la dyslexie au même niveau avec son homologue sans dyslexie"»

**Appendix XXXX: Example of individual interview 1 (Translated into French)
(Continuation 5)**



Question 14: comment les enseignants pratiquent-ils l'inclusion des apprenants souffrant de dyslexie dans les écoles primaires?

[PR1]: «dans notre école, il n'y a pas d'inclusion formelle des apprenants souffrant de dyslexie dans nos salles de classe. Par conséquent, je n'ai pas toute forme de pratique à leur égard, mais en tant que principal de mon école si il ya des enfants souffrant de dyslexie par défaut dans nos milieux de classe, je vais forcer les enseignants de mon école à travailler dur pour apporter leur niveau intellectuel au même niveau d'apprenants sans dyslexie ».

Question 15: quelle est votre expérience dans l'enseignement dans un tel environnement?

[PR1]: «je n'ai pas une expérience formelle dans l'enseignement à l'environnement de l'inclusion des apprenants souffrant de dyslexie, mais nous essayons toujours d'aider leur éducation d'une manière à l'autre».

Question 16: le concept d'éducation inclusive est-il couramment mis en œuvre dans vos écoles?

[PR1]: «le concept d'éducation inclusive n'existe pas dans notre école, parce que le gouvernement ne l'a pas encore pleinement mis en œuvre dans toutes les écoles ordinaires de la RDC».

Question 17: pouvez-vous m'expliquer si vous avez eu une formation spéciale avant d'enseigner dans un tel environnement de classe? Et sinon, comment faites-vous face?

[PR1]: «non, je n'ai jamais eu de formation sur l'éducation inclusive depuis que j'ai été un enseignant à l'école primaire pour 38 ans».

Question 18: en tant qu'enseignant, qu'est-ce que la RDC a besoin pour la mise en œuvre de l'éducation inclusive dans l'école ordinaire pour tous les apprenants souffrant de dyslexie?

[PR1]: «en tant qu'enseignant et directeur de mon école, pour la mise en œuvre efficace de l'éducation inclusive, le gouvernement doit créer une classe inclusive qui ne peut pas offrir plus de 20 apprenants au maximum dans une classe. Deuxièmement, le gouvernement doit augmenter le salaire des enseignants, et ajouter 2 autres enseignants dans une salle de classe, qui fera le travail des enseignants assistants pour aider les apprenants souffrant de dyslexie avec leur barrière dans la lecture et l'écriture, quand un autre enseignant expliquant la leçon à l'ensemble salle de classe. Troisièmement, le gouvernement devrait former les enseignants à l'éducation inclusive de tous les apprenants en général et de la dyslexie en particulier.

Appendix XXXXI: Language Editing Certificate

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Title: INCLUSION OF LEARNERS WITH DYSLEXIA IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS OF KINSHASA,
DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC OF CONGO

Sincerely

DAVID LEVEY

Electronically signed

2019-07-12

Members: D Levey; J Levey. Reg. No: 2007/147556/23

Appendix XXXXII: Plagiarism Report

INCLUSION OF LEARNERS WITH DYSLEXIA IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS OF KINSHASA, DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC OF CONGO

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