PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION OF PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHERS FOR INCLUSIVE EDUCATION IN NIGERIA

By

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DECLARATION

Student number: 47000872

I, DANIYAN OLATOPE OLADUNNI, hereby declare that this thesis

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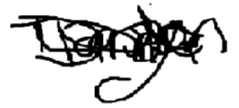
is my own work and that all the sources I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.



Signature

Date__2020/02/20_

DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to the Holy Spirit, the spirit of our God and Lord, Jesus Christ, who gives wisdom, knowledge and inspiration without measure.

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ABSTRACT

Since Nigeria adopted inclusive education in compliance with the Salamanca Statement and Framework for Action on Special Needs Education (UNESCO, 1994), other global human rights instruments, and in alignment with several other countries, the number of learners with diverse unique needs requiring education in regular primary school classes has increased significantly. However, teachers are not always professionally prepared to address the individuality of learners with diverse unique needs within the community of their peers, who do not have special needs, in the regular classes. Thus, embedded in the Cultural-Historical Activity Theory (CHAT), the current qualitative multiple case study examined the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria as the context for proposing strategies and a model for their professional preparation for inclusive education. A purposive sample of 16 teachers, selected from four regular primary schools in Lagos State participated in the study. Semi-structured individual interviews, non-participant observation and document analysis were used to collect data. The analytic model of Miles, Huberman, and Saldana (2014) was used to analyse data. Entrenched in multiple case study design analysis, the data was initially analysed within each case and further across cases. Most teachers had a divergent understanding of inclusive education while some had no understanding of inclusive education at all. Despite the overall lack of professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education, they addressed the diversity of learners in their regular primary school classes. Teachers used a blend of learner-centred and teacher-centred pedagogy, including the differentiation of teaching strategies in implementing inclusive education. Individual and systemic issues, including the lack of professional preparation of teachers, inadequate material and physical teaching and learning resources, overcrowded classrooms, a non-supportive government, the nonchalant attitude of learners, non-supportive parents, as well as poverty interfered with and hampered the implementation of inclusive education in regular primary schools in Nigeria. The passage and enforcement of clear and specific mandatory policies and legislation on inclusive education, the provision of physical and material teaching and learning resources, the inculcation of a positive attitude in inclusive practices in teachers, the recruitment of trained teachers and the safeguarding of small class sizes could enhance the implementation of inclusive education in regular primary schools in Nigeria. Based on the knowledge and information gleaned from the reviewed

international and Nigerian literature, the CHAT and the findings of this study, a model for professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education is proposed. The model constitutes training on global and Nigerian policies and legislation on inclusive education, the diversity of learners, positive dispositions, collaboration with other stakeholders, the adaptation of instruction, microteaching, modern ICT pedagogical resources and teaching practice based on the support of the government. Further research on the policy, practice and scholarship of the professional preparation of teachers for inclusive education in regular primary schools is recommended. This study is a springboard for future studies on the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria and other countries.

KEY TERMS: Inclusive education, teacher, teacher preparation programme, primary school, regular school

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION i
DEDICATION ii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS iii
ABSTRACT iv
LIST OF FIGURES xiii
LIST OF TABLES xiv
LIST OF PICTURES xiv
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS xv
CHAPTER 1: THE PROBLEM AND ITS CONTEXT 1
1.1 Introduction 1
1.2 Background to the study 1
1.3 Problem statement 11
1.4 Research aim and objectives 13
1.5 Main research question 13
1.5.1 Sub-research questions 13
1.6 Rationale for the study 14
1.7 Significance of the study 16
1.8 An overview of the theoretical framework 17
1.9 An overview of the research methodology and design 18
1.9.1 Research paradigm 18
1.9.2 Research approach 19
1.9.3 Research design 19
1.9.4 Population and sampling 20
1.9.5 Data collection techniques 21
1.9.5.1 Individual Interviews 21
1.9.5.2 Non-participant Observation 21
1.9.5.3 Document analysis 22
1.9.6 Data analysis 22
1.10 Trustworthiness 23
1.11 Ethical considerations 23
1.12 Definition of key terms 23
1.12.1 Inclusive education 23
1.12.2 Teachers 24
1.12.3 Teacher preparation programme 24
1.12.4 Primary school 24

1.12.5 Regular school ... 25
1.13 Delimitation of the study ... 25
1.14 Chapter outline ... 25
1.15 Conclusion ... 26
CHAPTER 2: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK ... 28
2.1 Introduction ... 28
2.2 Theoretical framework ... 28
2.3 Development of the cultural-historical activity theory ... 29
2.4 Principles of cultural-historical activity theory (chat) ... 31
2.4.1 Activity System ... 32
2.4.2 Multi-voiced-ness of Activity ... 35
2.4.3 Historicity of Activity ... 36
2.4.4 Role of Tensions and Contradictions ... 37
2.5 Application of CHAT framework in education and related fields ... 38
2.6 Conclusion ... 39
CHAPTER 3: REVIEW OF INTERNATIONAL LITERATURE ON THE HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF INCLUSIVE EDUCATION AND THE PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION OF TEACHERS ... 40
3.1 Introduction ... 40
3.2 A historical background to the international development of inclusive education ... 40
3.2.1 The Era of Extermination (Around 146 BC) ... 41
3.2.2 Era of Ridicule/Middle Ages (Between the 5th and 15th century AD) ... 41
3.2.3 Era of Asylum/Renaissance (14th century to the 17th century) ... 42
3.2.4 Medical Model of Disability (20th century) ... 43
3.2.5 The Social Model of Disability (1960s and 1970s) ... 45
3.2.6 Human Rights Model ... 45
3.3 Global and regional human rights policies related to/on inclusive education ... 47
3.4 Understanding of inclusive education ... 51
3.4.1 Gaps in the interpretation and definition of inclusive education ... 55
3.4.2 Dilemmas and debates that surround inclusive education ... 57
3.4.3 Studies across the globe on teachers’ understanding of inclusive education ... 59
3.5 The status of inclusive education and the professional preparation of teachers across countries ... 61
3.5.1 Australia ... 62
3.5.2 Scotland ... 63
3.5.3 England ... 65
3.5.4 Finland ... 65

3.5.5 Canada 67
3.5.6 China 67
3.5.7 Bangladesh 68
3.5.8 Kenya 70
3.5.9 South Africa 71
3.5.10 Zambia 72
3.6 Teachers' practices in implementing inclusive education across countries 72
3.6.1 Differentiation of instruction 73
3.6.2 Universal Design for Learning 75
3.6.3 Parental involvement 76
3.6.4 Co-teaching 78
3.6.5 Inclusive pedagogy 79
3.6.6 Classroom management 80
3.7 Teachers' concerns regarding the implementation of inclusive education 81
3.7.1 Teacher education for inclusive education in general 85
3.7.2 Teacher quality 87
3.7.3 Teacher demand and supply 90
3.8 Strategies to the enhance professional preparation of teachers for inclusive education 92
3.9 Conclusion 96
CHAPTER 4: REVIEW OF NIGERIAN LITERATURE ON THE PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION OF TEACHERS FOR INCLUSIVE EDUCATION 97
4.1 Introduction 97
4.2 Nigerian context 97
4.3 Social and economic situation in Nigeria 100
4.4 Educational system and policies in Nigeria 103
4.4.1 Teacher education in Nigeria 105
4.5 The development of inclusive education in Nigeria 107
4.6 Understanding of inclusive education in Nigeria 109
4.7 Teachers' practices in implementing inclusive education in Nigeria 112
4.8 Teachers' concerns regarding the implementation of inclusive education 116
4.9 Strategies to enhance the professional preparation of teachers for inclusive education 121
4.10 Conclusion 125
CHAPTER 5: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN 126
5.1 Introduction 126
5.2 Research paradigm 126
5.3 Research approach 128
5.4 Research design 130

5.5 Population and sampling 131
5.6 Data collection techniques 134
5.6.1 Individual interviews 134
5.6.2 Non-participant observation 136
5.6.3 Document analysis 137
5.7 Pilot study 138
5.8 Description of the research locations 140
5.9 Data analysis 142
5.10 Establishing trustworthiness 145
5.10.1 Credibility 146
5.10.2 Transferability 147
5.10.3 Dependability 147
5.10.4 Confirmability 148
5.11 Ethical considerations 148
5.11.1 Permission 149
5.11.2 Informed consent 149
5.11.3 Confidentiality 149
5.11.4 Anonymity 150
5.12 Conclusion 150
CHAPTER 6: PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF FINDINGS 151
6.1 Introduction 151
6.2 Main research question 151
6.3 Sub-research questions 151
6.4 Profiles of participants 152
6.5 Theme 1: Teachers' understanding of inclusive education 158
6.5.1 Sub-theme 1: Integration 159
6.5.2 Sub-theme 2: Special education 160
6.5.3 Sub-theme 3: Literal understanding 162
6.5.4 Sub-theme 4: Educational process 163
6.5.5 Sub-theme 5: No understanding 165
6.6 Theme 2: Teachers' practices in the implementation of inclusive education 166
6.6.1 Sub-theme 1: Management of teaching and learning environment 166
6.6.1.1 Seating arrangements 166
6.6.1.2 Buddy system 169
6.6.1.3 Ability grouping 172
6.6.2 Sub-theme 2: Teaching strategies 173
6.6.2.1 A caring ethic 174
6.6.2.2 Identification of special needs 175
6.6.2.3 Question and answer 178

6.6.2.4 Activities based ... 179
6.6.2.5 Reinforcement ... 180
6.6.2.6 Repeated instruction ... 182
6.6.2.7 Homework ... 183
6.6.2.8 Differentiation of teaching strategies ... 184
6.6.2.9 Adapted Instruction ... 186
6.6.2.10 Individualised instruction ... 188
6.6.3 Sub-theme 3: Support ... 189
6.6.3.1 Additional learner support ... 189
6.6.3.2 Educational media ... 191
6.6.3.3 Involvement of parents ... 195
6.6.3.4 Co-teaching ... 197
6.6.3.5 School-based support ... 199
6.6.3.6 NGO support ... 200
6.6.4 Sub-theme 4: Management of implementation of inclusive education ... 201
6.6.4.1 Policies and regulations ... 202
6.6.4.2 Punishment ... 203
6.6.4.3 Summoning parents ... 205
6.6.4.4 Class captains ... 206
6.7 Theme 3: Teachers' concerns regarding the implementation of inclusive education ... 208
6.7.1 Sub-theme 1: Initial teacher preparation ... 208
6.7.1.1 Training on special education ... 208
6.7.1.2 Theory-laden training ... 210
6.7.1.3 Teaching practice experience ... 211
6.7.1.4 Overcrowded lecture halls ... 212
6.7.2 Sub-theme 2: Practices of inclusive education ... 213
6.7.2.1 New curriculum ... 213
6.7.2.2 Non-supportive government ... 215
6.7.2.3 Not-supportive parents ... 218
6.7.2.4 Uninterested learners ... 220
6.7.2.5 Poverty ... 221
6.7.2.6 Large class size ... 224
6.7.2.7 Teachers' capacity ... 227
6.7.3 Sub-theme 3: Personal dispositions, attitudes and beliefs ... 227
6.7.3.1 Diversity of learners ... 228
6.7.3.2 Mixed feelings ... 231
6.8 Theme 4: Strategies to enhance the professional preparation of teachers for inclusive education ... 232

6.8.1 Sub-theme 1: Human and material resources 232
6.8.1.1 Information and communication technology 232
6.8.1.2 Government support 233
6.8.1.3 Training of teachers 235
6.8.2 Sub-theme 2: Modules required for initial teacher preparation 237
6.8.2.1 Identification of special needs 238
6.8.2.2 International policies on inclusive education 238
6.8.2.3 Management of behaviour 239
6.9 Conclusion 240
CHAPTER 7: DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS 241
7.1 Introduction 241
7.2 Teachers' understanding of inclusive education... 241
7.3 Teachers’ practices in the implementation of inclusive education................ 246
7.4 Teachers’ concerns regarding the implementation of inclusive education .. 257
7.5 Strategies to enhance the professional preparation of teachers for inclusive education 262
7.6 Conclusion 266
CHAPTER 8: SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS 267
8.1 Introduction 267
8.2 Review of the research problem 267
8.3 Summary of the findings of the study 268
8.3.1 Sub-question 1: Teachers’ understanding of inclusive education 268
8.3.2 Sub-question 2: Teachers’ practices in the implementation of inclusive education 269
8.3.3 Sub-question 3: Teachers’ concerns regarding the implementation of inclusive education 271
8.3.4 Sub-question 4: Strategies to enhance the professional preparation of teachers for inclusive education 272
8.4 Limitations and overcoming the limitations of the study 272
8.5 Conclusion 273
8.6 Contribution of the study 274
8.7 Recommendations on the professional preparation of teachers for inclusive education 276
8.7.1 Policy and legislation 276
8.7.2 Practice.. 276
8.7.2.1 Pre-service teacher training.. 276
8.7.2.2 In-service teacher training 277
8.7.2.3 Resources 278
8.7.2.4 Attitude 279

8.7.2.5 A proposed model for the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education 279
8.8 Recommendations for future research 287
8.9 Final comments.. 288
REFERENCES.. 290
APPENDIX A: REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH AT 4 PRIMARY SCHOOLS IN IKORODU LOCAL EDUCATION DISTRICT FROM LAGOS STATE MINISTRY OF EDUCATION... 378
APPENDIX B: APPROVAL FOR THE STUDY 380
APPENDIX C: REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH AT 4 PRIMARY SCHOOLS IN IKORODU LOCAL EDUCATION DISTRICT 381
APPENDIX D: APPROVAL FROM LOCAL GOVERNMENT EDUCATION AUTHORITY 383
APPENDIX E: LETTER TO THE PRINCIPAL 384
APPENDIX F: PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET 386
APPENDIX G: CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN THIS STUDY 389
APPENDIX H: ASSENT FROM LEARNERS TO PARTIPATE IN A RESEARCH PROJECT 390
APPENDIX I: SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW SCHEDULE............................. 391
APPENDIX J: OBSERVATION CHECKLIST 392
APPENDIX K: ETHICAL CLEARANCE 394
APPENDIX L: EDITOR’S LETTER... 396

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1: Lev Vygotsky's cultural mediated model 30
Figure 2.2: Engeström's model of activity theory... 31
Figure 2.3: Activity system of teachers' professional preparation for inclusive education in Nigeria 35
Figure 3.1: Aspects of Ubuntu 53
Figure 4.1: Map of Nigeria showing the cities and the border countries 98
Figure 4.2: Secondary school girls in Chibok, Nigeria abducted by the Boko-Haram insurgency 99
Figure 4.3: Inequality in Nigerian rural and urban public schools 101
Figure 4.4: Almajiris children with their parents begging for alms 102
Figure 5.1: Map of Ikorodu 141
Figure 5.2: Representation of cross-case data analysis process 145
Figure 5.3: Triangulation by data sources 147
Figure 8.1: A proposed OO Daniyan (2020) model of preparation of regular primary school teacher for inclusive education 281

LIST OF TABLES

Table 3.1: Authorities, Policies and Dates 49
Table 4.1: Sub-sectors of the Nigerian educational system 105
Table 4.2: The Tale of Akka and Akko 118
Table 6.1: Profiles of participants at school A 153
Table 6.2: Profiles of participants at school B 154
Table 6.3: Profiles of participants at school C 155
Table 6.4: Profiles of participants at school D 156
Table 6.5: A summary of themes and sub-themes that emerged from the analysis of data 158

LIST OF PICTURES

Picture 6.1: Showing seating arrangement 169
Picture 6.2: Showing seating arrangement 169
Picture 6.3: Different types of Yoruba cultural customs 194
Picture 6.4: Substance abuse 195
Picture 6.5: The class captain ensuring peer learners copy their notes 207
Picture 6.6: Class captains ensuring discipline in class 208
Picture 6.7: Learners' bags on the floor 217
Picture 6.8: Classroom floor and dilapidated food vendor shack 218
Picture 6.9: Poor learners waiting to get food from a vendor during lunch break ... 223
Picture 6.10: Congested classroom 226
Picture 6.11: Overcrowded classroom 226

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

AAC	Augmentative and Alternative Communication
ADA	America with Disabilities Act
ADHD	Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder
AITSL	Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership
ARACY	Australian Research Alliance for Children and Youth
ASD	Autism Spectrum Disorder
ASN	Additional Support Needs
CAPS	Curriculum Assessment Policy Statement
CCA	Cultural and Creative Arts
CHAT	Cultural-Historical Activity Theory
CRC	Convention on the Right of Children
CRF	Consolidated Revenue Fund
CRPD	Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities
CSDB	Colorado School for the Deaf and Blind
DBE	Department of Basic Education
DEECD	Department of Education and Early Childhood Development
DfID	Department for International Development
DoE	Department of Education
DPE	Directorate of Primary Education
DRC	Democratic Republic of the Congo
DSD	Department of Social Development
DWCPD	Department of Women, Children and People with Disabilities
EADSNE	European Agency for Development in Special Needs Education
EAHCA	Education for All Handicapped Children Act
ECCDE	Early Childhood Care, Development and Education
EENET	Enabling Education Network
EFA	Education For All
EIU	Economic Intelligence Unit
ESSPIN	Education Sector Support Programme in Nigeria
FCUBE	Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education
FME	Federal Ministry of Education
FRN	Federal Republic of Nigeria

GEI	Girls Education Initiative
GMR	Global Monitoring Report
GNS	General Studies
GPLMS	Gauteng Primary Language and Mathematic Strategies
GTCS	General Teaching Council Scotland
HDI	Human Development Index
HEOA	Higher Education Opportunity Act
ICESCR	International Convention on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights
ICT	Information and Communication Technology
IDA	International Disability Alliance
IDDC	International Disability and Development Consortium
IEDC	Integrated Education of Disabled Children
IEI	Innovation Enterprise Institution
IPP	Inclusive Practice Project
IPP	Inclusive Pedagogy Project
ISCED	International Standard Classification of Education
ITEK	Uganda Institute of Teacher Education Kyambogo
JONAPWD	Joint National Association of Persons with Disability
KZN	KwaZulu-Natal
LRC	Learning in Regular Classrooms
MAT	Master of Arts in Teaching
MoE	Ministry of Education
NAP	National Action Plan
NCCE	National Commission for Colleges of Education
NCE	National Certificate in Education
NCLB	No Child Left Behind Act
NCNE	National Commission for Nomadic Education
NCSE	National Council for Special Education
NERDC	Nigerian Education and Research Development Council
NGO	Non-governmental organisation
NMEC	National Commission for Mass Literacy, Adult and Non-formal Education
NNC	New National Curriculum

NPE	National Policy of Education (Nigeria)
NTACT	National Technical Assistance Center on Transition
NTI	National Teachers' Institute
OAU	Organization of African Unity
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
OHCHR	Office of the High Commissioner on Human Rights
PAL	Planning for All Learners
PDS	Professional Development Schools
PE	Physical Education
PEDP3	Third Primary Education Development Programme
PGDE	Postgraduate Diploma in Education
PISA	Programme for International Student Assessment
SBMC	School-Based Management Committees
SDG	Sustainable Development Goals
SEB	Secondary Education Board
SEN	Special Educational Needs
SEPIP	State Education Program Investment Project
SIAS	Strategy on Screening, Identification, Assessment and Support
STNE	Scottish Teachers for a New Era
STTA	Single Teacher Teaching Approach
SWD	Students With Disabilities
SWOD	Students Without Disabilities
TESSA	Teacher Education in Sub-Saharan Africa
TRCN	Teacher Registration Council of Nigeria
TTA	Team Teaching Approach
UBE	Universal Basic Education
UBEC	Universal Basic Education Commission
UDL	Universal Design for Learning
UDL-LBD	Universal Design for Learning - Literacy by Design
UIS	UNESCO Institute for Statistics
UK	United Kingdom
UN	United Nations

UNCRPD	United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities
UNDP	United Nations Develop Program
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNESCO-IBE	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural OrganizationInternational Bureau of Education
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UNISA	University of South Africa
UPE	Universal Primary Education
UPIAS	Union of the Physically Impaired Against Segregation
USA	United States of America
VEI	Vocational Enterprise Institution

CHAPTER 1: THE PROBLEM AND ITS CONTEXT

1.1 Introduction

The quality of an education system cannot exceed the quality of its teachers (Federal Ministry of Education [FME], 2004). Thus, embedded in a multiple case study research design, the present qualitative study examined the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria as the context for proposing strategies and a model to enhance their professional preparation. Chapter 1 presents the problem and its context. This includes the background to the study, statement of the problem, the main research question, the sub-questions, the objectives, the rationale for the study, and the significance of the study. The chapter also presents an overview of the theoretical framework, an overview of the research methodology and design, the definition of key terms, the delimitations of the study and research ethical considerations. The subsequent section presents the background to the study.

1.2 Background to the study

Prior to the global adoption of inclusive education in 1994, learners with disabilities were educated in special schools, or special classrooms in regular schools (Vernon-Dorton, Floyd, Dukes, & Darling, 2014). The provision of special education to learners with disabilities was embedded in deterministic perception that ability was fixed (Florian & Spratt, 2013). This was because of the then dominant bell-curved thinking about ability. Bell-curved thinking about ability entailed the utilisation of developmental norms in the assessment of learners for their identification and grouping according to their cognitive levels of functioning (Florian & Black-Hawkins, 2011). The proponents of special education felt that learners with disabilities were incapable of benefiting from regular classroom teaching and learning processes, and that their placement in regular education classrooms would interfere with the effective pedagogy of their typically developing peers (Florian, 2012; Hick, Kershner, & Farrell, 2009; Obiakor & Offor, 2011). Specialist staff, including nurses, educational psychologists, specialist teachers and occupational therapists, delivered specialised services and programmes to learners with disabilities in special schools, as well as in special classrooms in regular schools during the special education era. Learners with disabilities were isolated in order to receive individual sessions from therapists in the special education era (Hick

et al., 2009). The exclusion of learners with disabilities from regular education classrooms, based on their exceptionalities status, enabled discrimination at the individual level (Cologon, 2013). The education of learners with disabilities in special educational settings further violated their fundamental right to inclusive education, which is enshrined in Article 26 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (United Nations [UN], 1948), and promoted the labelling and stigmatisation of these learners because they were perceived differently.

Several countries passed and enforced policies and legislation on special education during the special education era. For example, in the United Kingdom (UK), the Educational Act of 1918, also known as the Fisher Act, mandated the education of learners with disabilities, including physical disabilities and epilepsy, in special schools (Simmons, 2014). The America with Disabilities Act (ADA) of 1964 and the Education for All Handicapped Children Act (United States, 1975) promulgated the provision of special education for learners with disabilities in the United States of America (USA) (Esteves & Rao, 2008). In the same vein, the Integrated Education of Disabled Children (IEDC) scheme of 1974 mandated the education of learners with disabilities in special schools in India (Kohama, 2012). Countries in Africa also implemented special education. For example, the Education Act of 1961 in Ghana (Ametepee & Anastasiou, 2015), and the Education Act of 1986 in Zimbabwe (Majoko, 2016), mandated the provision of special education for learners with disabilities in special schools and special classrooms in regular schools in the respective countries. Several special education institutions catered for learners with specific types of disabilities in different countries during the special education era. These included Victoria College for the Deaf in Australia (Ssenkaba, 2017). In Brazil, there was the National School for Deaf and Mute of both sexes (Bentes & Hayashi, 2016). There was the Magwero School for the Blind in Chipata in Zambia (Maiba, 2011) and in Uganda, a school in Kampala provided special education for learners with physical disabilities (Ssenkaba, 2017). Thus, the passing of policies and legislation on special education, coupled with the establishment of special schools across countries, safeguarded the provision of formal education to learners with disabilities in segregated educational settings.

Comparable with the above-mentioned countries, before the adoption of inclusive education in Nigeria, learners with disabilities were educated in either separate

schools or self-contained units in regular schools (Obiakor & Offor, 2011). Nigeria also passed and enforced policies and legislation on special education, including the National Policy on Education (NPE) of 1977 (Federal Republic of Nigeria [FRN], 1977) that promulgated the provision of special teaching and learning services and programmes to learners with disabilities (Iman, 2012). Consistent with the above-cited countries, Nigeria established several special schools, including the School for the Blind in Kaduna, the Ogun School for the Handicapped and the Benin School for the Deaf during the special education era (Obiakor & Offor, 2011). However, not all learners with disabilities in Nigeria were able to access education in special schools during this period. This was caused by the limited space within the special schools for learners with disabilities and, therefore, access to them was restricted (Adetoro, 2014). According to Adetoro (2014), special schools were often named after specific disabilities, such as school for the handicapped or school for the deaf and dumb. Tagging schools with different categories of disabilities pronounced learners with exceptionalities as different, which perpetrated their discrimination, marginalisation and exclusion from the mainstream schools and society in its entirety. Nevertheless, such tagging was seen as inevitable as it was founded on the provision of specialised teaching and learning services and programmes, even though it was a violation of the fundamental right of learners with disabilities to inclusive education.

Consistent with the bell-curved thinking of the special education era, specialist teachers were trained in special education teacher education institutions in many countries. For instance, the Gazi Institute of Education trained specialist teachers in Turkey (Cavkaytar, 2006). The School of Education, University of Illinois, trained specialist teachers in the USA. The Nanyang Teachers' Training College in Shanghai, China, also trained specialist teachers (Li, 2016). The Presbyterian Training College in Akropong-Akwapim, Ghana, prepared specialist teachers (Kuyini, 2014). These institutions, grounded in the premise of the medical model of the disability that these learners needed to be fixed, graduated specialist teachers to teach learners with specific disabilities in special schools and special classrooms in regular schools (Vernon-Dorton et al., 2014).

Aligned with the above-mentioned countries, among others, Nigeria established several teacher training institutions that trained specialist teachers. These included the

Oyo Advanced Teacher Training Education, the University of Ibadan and the University of Jos (Sunal & Mutua, 2013). These institutions trained specialist teachers for various special educational needs categories, including visual impairment, intellectual disabilities, hearing impairment, learning disabilities, speech and language impairment, and giftedness and talentedness (Eleri, 2013). Such training of specialist teachers promoted the exclusion of learners with disabilities as it pronounced their deficit and individuality instead of their capabilities. Nevertheless, specialist training facilitated the provision of specialised teaching and learning services and facilities, such as sign language for learners who were deaf, and Braille materials for learners who were blind, in special schools and special classrooms in regular schools.

In 1994, several countries shifted in paradigm from special to inclusive education (Majoko, 2019). The paradigm shift was prompted by the Salamanca Statement and Framework for Action (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization [UNESCO], 1994), which reaffirmed the fundamental right of every person to education, as enshrined in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UN, 1948), and renewed the pledge of the World Conference on Education for All (UNESCO, 1990) to ensure that right for all, irrespective of their individual differences. Global and regional human rights policies that underpinned the adoption of the inclusion of learners in regular education in several countries include the Universal Declaration of Human Rights Article 26 (section 1) (UN, 1948), that mandates that everyone has a basic right to education. Similarly, the Convention Against Discrimination in Education (UNESCO, 1960), the Convention on the Rights of the Child Articles 28 and 29 (UN, 1989), the World Declaration on Education for All and the Framework for Action to Meet Basic Learning Needs (1990), the Standard Rules on the Equalization of Opportunities for Persons with Disabilities (UN, 1993), and the Incheon Declaration, Education 2030: Towards inclusive and Equitable Quality Education and Lifelong Learning for All (World Education Forum, 2015), mandate the right to education for all learners regardless of their individual differences. These global and regional human rights policies mandate democracy, equal opportunities, acceptance, success and the full participation of all learners in education regardless of their individual differences (Kim & Lindeberg, 2012; Pantic & Florian, 2015; Winter & O'Raw, 2010), and guarantee the realisation of human rights and social justice in

education for all people. Thus, these policies reject the exclusive philosophy that was rooted in the provision of special education.

The global adoption of inclusive education grew out of concern for the civil rights movements, including the fact that segregated education was entrenched in prejudice, inequality and exclusion practices (Barnes & Sheldon, 2010; Eskay, Onu, Igbo, Obiyo, & Ugwuanyi, 2012). Equally, the adoption of inclusive education in countries that have experienced colonial sovereignty, including Malaysia (Lee & Low, 2013), Uganda (Barnes & Sheldon, 2010), Ghana (Adjei, 2007), South Africa (Phasha, 2016) and Zambia (Banda, 2010), is founded on addressing and redressing the impact of past colonial injustices. With specific reference to Africa, Phasha (2016) reveals that colonisers used religion to subjugate and erode African philosophies in all spheres of life, including education. Colonialism introduced foreign education that lacked ecological relevance to the African context (Asante, 2009; Gallego & Woodberry, 2010), and consequently, displaced indigenous ethics. Therefore, inclusivity serves as a means to reclaim local civilizations in countries that were colonised.

Despite the global adoption of inclusive education in 1994, there is no universally agreed definition of the term because of conceptual difficulties in defining it (Armstrong, Armstrong, & Spandagou, 2011; Booth, 2011), including what counts as evidence of its best practice (Australian Research Alliance for Children and Youth [ARACY], 2013). Overall, inclusive education embodies the transformation of schools and other learning centres to serve all learners, including those with and without special educational needs (UNESCO, 1994; 2009). Inclusive education entails individual and systemic changes in the pursuance of participation, accessibility, acceptance, quality, equity and the achievement of all learners in their natural proportions in their neighbourhood regular school classrooms in the community of their age-appropriate peers, regardless of their individuality (UNESCO, 1994; United Nations Children's Emergency Fund [UNICEF], 2010; Symeonidou, 2017). Unlike special education that excludes learners with disabilities from regular education, inclusive education is a human right and a social justice issue (Pantic, 2015). Inclusive education initially focused on children with special needs and disabilities but has currently shifted to focus on all learners (Forlin, 2012). The founding principle of inclusive education is that all learners are entitled to receive quality and equitable

education in regular school classrooms in their natural proportions in their neighbourhood schools through the use of learner-centred pedagogy. According to UNESCO (1994), inclusive education is cost effective, provides quality education to all learners in regular schools, combats discriminatory attitudes towards disabilities, creates welcoming communities and builds an inclusive society. However, its realization depends on the professional preparation of teachers, among other factors.

In pursuit of inclusive education, most countries have ratified several global human rights instruments that enshrine the right of children to education. Austria ratified this with the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (CRPD) (UN, 2006), and its Optional Protocol, followed by Croatia in 2007, Greece in 2012, and Finland in 2016 (European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights, 2017). Likewise, African countries, such as Burkina Faso, ratified both the CRPD (UN, 2006) and its Optional Protocol in 2009, as did the Democratic Republic of Congo in 2014 (Disabled World, 2018). Several countries have passed policies and legislation on or related to inclusive education in compliance with the foregoing international human rights instruments. These include the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB) of 2001 in the USA (Harvey et al., 2010), the Inclusive Education Act Number 70 of 2009 in Indonesia (Gunarhadi, Mohammad, Tri, & Abdull, 2016), the Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education (FCUBE) policy of 1996 in Ghana (Agbenyega & Deku, 2011:8), and the Education White Paper 6 of 2001 in South Africa (Naicker, 2007). Despite the passing of policies and legislation, several countries have not been able to implement inclusive education successfully and effectively because of several individual and systemic factors, including the lack of the professional preparation of teachers, as well as the deficit of material, financial and time resources.

Several countries are reforming their teacher education (Darling-Hammond & Richardson, 2009; Donnelly & Watkins, 2011) in compliance with the global adoption of inclusive education. For instance, in Scotland, the professional preparation of teachers is entrenched in inclusive pedagogy (Florian & Linklater, 2010). In the USA, teacher education programmes, such as the Master of Arts in Teaching (MAT) and Professional Development Schools (PDS) are embedded in safeguarding the professional preparation of teachers for inclusive education (Harvey, Yssel, Bauserman & Merbler, 2010). Finland has been acknowledged as having a

distinguished practice in teacher professional preparation for inclusive education which positions it among top-performing countries in the provision of quality education to its citizens and people from other countries (Savolainen, 2009). Professional preparation of pre-service teachers in Finland is grounded in fostering in them a diversity of skills and knowledge which they can apply in different pedagogical settings and situations (Savolainen, 2009). The Netherlands, Singapore, Korea, Hong Kong, Macao, New Zealand and Australia are recognised for making intensive investments in the professional preparation of teachers for inclusive education (Darling-Hammond, 2010).

Sub-Saharan countries, such as Ghana, Rwanda, Tanzania, Zambia, Sudan, South Africa, Uganda and Kenya, have also institutionalised programmes for the professional preparation of teachers for inclusive education in alignment with the global arena. For instance, Teacher Education in Sub-Saharan Africa (TESSA) was initiated to enhance the quality of classroom practices of teachers and to develop them to be relevant within their local context (Thakrar, Zinn, & Wolfenden, 2009). These initiatives are entrenched in safeguarding the professional preparation of teachers for the inclusion of all learners in regular education classrooms, irrespective of their individual differences.

Consistent with the above-mentioned countries, Nigeria ratified several global human rights instruments on inclusive education. These include the CRPD (UN, 2006) and the Optional Protocol in 2010 (FME, 2014). Similar to the countries mentioned above, the country adopted inclusive education to address and redress the inequity and inequality in education on the basis of race that was created by colonial education, and to eliminate the exclusion philosophy that is rooted in special education (Accelerating Progress to 2015 Nigeria, 2013). Nigeria has passed several policies and legislation on and related to inclusive education. These include the free Universal Basic Education (UBE) Act No. 66 of 2004 (Joint National Association of Persons with Disability [JONAPWD], 2015), the State Education Program Investment Project (SEPIP) and the Lagos Eko Project (Accelerating Progress to 2015 Nigeria, 2013), the National Teacher Education Policy and the Teacher Salary Scale (FME, 2008). Nigeria has also established several colleges of education and schools of education in polytechnics and universities (FRN, 2004), including the National Teachers' Institute

(NTI) in Kaduna (Okoli, Ogbondah, & Ekpefa-Abdullahi, 2015). The National Mathematical Centre in Abuja and the National Institute of Nigerian Languages in Enugu (FME, 2005) train pre-service teachers in special needs education.

The adoption of policies and legislation and the establishment of teacher education institutions are not a guarantee of the successful and effective implementation of educational innovations, including inclusive education, because it is the positive attitudes, knowledge and skills of the stakeholders, including teachers, that matter (Florian, 2012; Loreman, Sharma, & Forlin, 2013; Rouse, 2010). A significant number of learners with diverse unique needs are excluded from education internationally despite the global adoption of inclusive education in 1994 (UNESCO, 2009). According to UNESCO (2016), many children are out of school across countries because of various factors, including the lack of the professional preparation of teachers to meet their diversities. Worldwide, about 263 million children and youth are out of school, and one fifth of the children out of school are under the age of 12 (UNESCO, 2016). Approximately 25 million of the out-of-school learners will never have access to classrooms (UNESCO, 2017).

Efua (2014) reveals that learners with disabilities are the most overlooked in an effort to achieve universal access to primary education. Learners with disabilities constitute the largest number of out-of-school children in populations all over the world (UNESCO, 2009). Only about small percentage of learners with disabilities were reported to be in school (UN, 2015). In most developing countries, some learners with disabilities have never been to school (Miles & Singal, 2010). This is because teachers lack the professional preparation to execute outreach programmes to convince parents to enrol these children in school (Majoko, 2019). About 38% of learners with disabilities in India are not attending school (UNICEF & UIS, 2014). In Afghanistan, about 75% of learners with disabilities are out of school (Theirworld, 2016). Equally, in South Africa, about 600 000 learners with disabilities are not attending school (Human Rights Watch, 2016). In Ghana, approximately 20% of learners with physical disabilities are out of school (UNICEF, 2013a). A study carried out in 19 developing countries revealed that among learners with disabilities who accessed school, only 48% completed primary education and only six out of ten of these learners can read and write (allAfrica.com, 2017). Consequently, these learners cannot realize their

potential. Nigeria is among countries that recorded highest number of learners that were not attending school (UNICEF, 2018). It was reported that one out of five learners in Nigeria is out-of-school (UNICEF, 2016). Among the population of out-of-school learners, those with disabilities constitute the highest number (Federal Ministry of Education [FME], 2014). Thus, dropping out of school is a worldwide cause for concern which is attributed, among other factors, to the lack of the professional preparation of teachers.

The global adoption of inclusive education has resulted in teachers confronting learner-diversity in regular classrooms (DSD, DWCPD & UNICEF, 2012; Forlin, Loreman, & Sharma, 2014). This has led to the changing and changed professional roles and responsibilities of teachers (Florian & Linklater, 2010; Forlin, Loreman, Sharma, & Earle, 2009), including the reconceptualization of pedagogical strategies, content, product, provisions and environments to meet the individual needs of diverse learners (Donnelly & Watkins, 2011; Florian & Linklater, 2010). Teachers are now required to safeguard quality, equity and equitable access, with participation, acceptance and achievement for all learners, including those with disabilities and those vulnerable to underachievement, marginalization and exclusion in regular education (Booth, 2009; Foreman, 2011; Symeonidou, 2017).

Inclusive education does not seek what is wrong within learners, but provides necessary support for them (Rouse, 2009), as it is founded on human rights and social justice and guarantees that none of them are left behind. However, the new pedagogical demands in inclusive education present challenges to teachers who may not necessarily be professionally prepared to meet learner diversity in regular classrooms successfully and effectively (Commission of the European Communities, 2007). This has been caused by the previous special education era's professional preparation of teachers which churned out specialist teachers and regular teachers respectively. Therefore, the professional preparation of teachers needs to equip them with the right attitudes, knowledge and skills in order to address the different learning needs of diverse learners in regular classrooms (UNESCO, 2012).

Studies on the professional preparation of teachers for inclusive education reveal inconsistent findings (Forlin & Chambers, 2011; Majoko, 2016; Nonis & Jernice, 2011).

Savolainen's (2009) study found that Finland's professional preparation of pre-service teachers for inclusive education is effective, as graduate teachers acquire diverse skills and knowledge which are applied in pedagogical settings with learners with diverse unique needs. In the same vien, Nonis and Jernice (2011) established that pre-service teachers in Singapore are optimistic about their professional preparation for inclusive education and reveal that the correct concepts of teaching practicum were inculcated in them by both university supervisors and host supervisors.

Inversely, Malak's (2013) study found that pre-service teachers in Bangladesh felt disappointed with their teaching practicum design and reported that they lacked knowledge and information on diverse categories of disabilities. In Zimbabwe, Mandipa (2013) established that inclusive education is not embodied in the training curriculum of teachers in most teacher education institutions and, consequently, they are incompetent to address the diversity of learners in regular school classrooms. In the USA, teacher education institutions design and implement truncated programmes that short-circuit vital elements in the training of pre-service teachers and several graduates of these programmes fail to meet the required standards to address the diversity of learners in regular classrooms (Darling-Hammond, 2006). Forlin and Chambers (2011) reveal that pre-service teachers in Australia lack the appropriate knowledge and skills to work with learners with diverse unique needs, inclusive of disabilities, in regular education settings. Deku and Vanderpuye (2017) found that most teachers in Ghana report that their pre-service training did not adequately professionally prepare them for inclusive education. In India, teachers report that they lack adequate professional preparation to address the diversity of learners in schools (Bhatnagar & Das, 2013).

Comparable to international studies, studies on the professional preparation of teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria reveal inconsistent findings. Eleri (2013) found that lecturers assigned to teach special education to pre-service teachers in 98 Nigerian teachers' training colleges are academically qualified but not professionally qualified because most of them obtained degrees in fields different from their primary assignment. Likewise, Eskay et al. (2012) report that teachers in Nigeria lack the pedagogical knowledge, methodology and skill to identify the needs of learners with diverse unique needs, including those with disabilities, due to their inadequate initial

teacher professional preparation. Aremu and Salami (2012) reveal that primary school Mathematics teachers in Nigeria lack the positive attitudes, skills and knowledge to plan and manage activity-based pedagogy because they were not trained in it in their initial teacher professional preparation.

Contrarily, Adeyemi (2016) established that primary school teachers in Nigeria are competent in the use of play-based pedagogy in response to the diverse needs of learners in their regular classrooms. Thus, the findings of the above international and Nigerian studies on the professional preparation of teachers for inclusive education are inconsistent. This is despite the worldwide paradigm shift from exclusive to inclusive education in 1994 and the institutionalisation of the professional preparation of teachers for inclusive education across countries. Thus, the present study has sought to examine the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria. In so doing, I seek to propose strategies and a model to enhance their professional preparation. The following section presents the problem statement of the study.

1.3 Problem statement

Research works reviewed in the background section revealed that several learners with diverse unique needs are increasingly educated in regular classrooms in several countries including Nigeria (DSD, DWCPD & UNICEF, 2012; Forlin et al., 2014; Ojo, 2016). This complied with global and regional human rights instruments, including the Salamanca Statement and Framework for Action on Special Needs Education since the global adoption of inclusive education (UNESCO, 1994). Consequently, the professional roles and responsibilities of teachers have changed. While other international and Nigerian studies reveal that teachers are struggling to meet the individuality of both learners with and without unique needs in regular classrooms (Alhassan, 2014; Malak, 2013). Other studies reveal that teachers are professionally prepared to meet the individuality of both learners with and without unique needs in regular classrooms (Adeyemi, 2016).

Research works reviewed in the background section revealed that the professional preparation of teachers for inclusive education is relatively recent pheneomenon in

several countries (Deku & Vanderpuye, 2017; Nonis & Jernice, 2011; Savolainen, 2009), including Nigeria (Ajuwon, 2012). Moreover, what constitutes the professional preparation of teachers for inclusive education is yet to be established (ARACY, 2013:7; Majoko, 2016; Pantic, 2015). There are also variations in the professional preparation of teachers for inclusive education between continents and within countries (Loreman et al., 2013; Salend, 2010).

Research works reviewed in the background section further revealed that inclusive education is a human right and a social justice premised agenda to which all children, including those with disabilities and vulnerable to marginalization and exclusion, are entitled to, as revealed in international and Nigerian policy and legislative infrastructure (FME, 2004; Pantic, 2015; Polat, 2010). However, the successful and effective inclusion of all learners in regular education classrooms is a global phenomenal challenge to stakeholders, including teachers, owing to their changed and changing professional roles and responsibilities (Florian & Linklater, 2010; Fullan, 2007). This includes being obligated to meet the needs of both learners with and without unique needs in regular classrooms simultaneously. Thus, if the requisite pedagogical attitudes, skills, knowledge and approaches needed for the successful inclusion of learners with diverse unique needs in regular classrooms are not established through the research and implementation of appropriate interventions, learners educated in these settings will be marginalized and this will violate their constitutional right to inclusive education. Thus, the present study sought to examine the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria. In so doing, I seek to propose strategies and a model to enhance their professional preparation. To this end, the following section presents the aim and objectives of this study.

1.4 Research aim and objectives

1.4.1 AIM

The study aimed to examine the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria. In so doing, I seek to propose strategies and a model to enhance their professional preparation.

1.4.2 OBJECTIVES

The current study:

- explored primary school teachers' understanding of inclusive education in Nigeria;
- described primary school teachers' practices in inclusive education in Nigeria;
- examined the perceived concerns of primary school teachers regarding the implementation of inclusive education in Nigeria;
- suggest strategies to enhance the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria; and
- propose a model to enhance the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria.

The following section presents the main research and the sub-research questions.

1.5 Main research question

How professionally prepared are primary school teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria?

1.5.1 Sub-research questions

In order to answer the main research question above, the following sub-research questions were explored:

- How do primary school teachers in Nigeria understand inclusive education?
- How do primary school teachers in Nigeria practise inclusive education?
- What are the perceived concerns of primary school teachers in Nigeria regarding implementing inclusive education?
- What strategies can be proposed to enhance the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria?

- What model can be proposed to enhance the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria?

The following section presents the rationale for the study.

1.6 Rationale for the study

As revealed in the background to the study, the professional preparation of teachers for inclusive education is a relatively recent phenomenon in several countries (Mandipa, 2013; Nonis & Jernice, 2011), including Nigeria (Ajuwon, 2012). Thus, the adequacy of the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education warrants research in Nigeria and internationally. It is important for policymakers in Nigeria and elsewhere to glean lessons learnt from other countries while they lay the foundation for the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education. Similar to several countries, including Japan (Forlin, Kawai, & Higuchi, 2015), Israel (Avissar, 2012), Jordan (Al Hussein, 2014), Uganda (Nyende, 2012), and Cambodia (Kuroda, Kartika, & Kitamura, 2017), in Nigeria a significant number of learners with diverse unique needs are educated in regular education classrooms since the paradigm shift from exclusive to inclusive education (FME, 2008) in compliance with the above-mentioned global and regional human rights instruments as well as her own policy and legislation. Since teachers are the most significant in-school factor in the successful implementation of inclusive education (Bhatnagar & Das, 2013; De Boer, Pijl, & Minnaert, 2011; Forlin & Chamber, 2011), it is imperative to examine their attitudes, skills, knowledge and their disposition on inclusive education. This study serves as the context for proposing strategies and a model to enhance the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria.

Teachers are agents of educational innovation, including inclusive education (Kim & Rouse, 2011; Pantic & Florian, 2015). Yet the global and Nigerian literature cited above revealed that they are not professionally prepared to implement it (Aremu & Salami, 2012; Bhatnagar & Das, 2014; Deku & Vanderpuye, 2017; Forlin & Chambers, 2011; Malak, 2013). A study carried out in 22 European countries to review the situation of learners with intellectual disabilities revealed that pre-service teachers in

regular classrooms lacked the professional preparation to work with these children (UNICEF, 2013b). Symeonidou (2017) reveals that inclusive education is often embraced by researchers, theorists, and policy planners, but teacher education institutions find it difficult to foster inclusive ideals in teachers. Unless research of the current nature is executed to yield knowledge and information to inform the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education, the significantly increasing numbers of learners with diverse needs who are educated in regular classrooms across countries will be subjected to exclusion within inclusion. This will interfere with the realisation of the human rights and social justice agenda of inclusive education, thereby curtailing the advancement of humanity.
As shown in the background to the study, Nigeria is a signatory to several global human instruments including charters, statements, declarations, conventions and treaties related to and on inclusive education and has passed related policies and legislation. Consequently, it has an international and national mandate to safeguard the provision of quality, equity, equitable educational opportunities, including access, acceptance, participation and success for all learners in regular primary school classrooms, regardless of their individual differences and circumstances. The findings of this study will illuminate the compliance of Nigeria with its international and national legal mandate to professionally prepare primary school teachers for inclusive education.

International studies conducted on the professional preparation of teachers for inclusive education since 1994 reveal that the teachers lack fundamental attitudes, knowledge and skills needed for implementation (Bhatnagar & Das, 2014; Deku & Vanderpuye**,** 2017; Forlin & Chambers, 2011; Malak, 2013), as is the case in Nigeria (Eleri, 2013; Eskay et al., 2012). Inversely, several previous studies in Nigeria have examined the professional preparation of teachers for special education (Ajuwon, 2012), secondary level (Ayeni, 2011; Fakolade, Adeniyi & Tella, 2009), and the professional preparation of both special and regular education teachers for special education (Adedoja & Abimbade, 2015). According to the best knowledge of the researcher, based on a search of literature, there seems to be a dearth of studies on the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria. Moreover, related studies on the professional preparation of both special and regular education teachers for special education used the quantitative research

approach. This present study used a qualitative research approach embedded in the constructivist research paradigm to examine the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria, utilising individual interviews, non-participant observations and document analysis.

Research is fundamental in revealing hidden facts and establishing values (Ellis & Levy, 2008). Since no educational system can rise above the quality of its teachers (FME, 2004), it is indispensable to examine the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria in order to illuminate opportunities, challenges, strengths and shortcomings, and to propose strategies and a model to enhance their preparation programme for improved service delivery. The following section discusses the significance of the present study.

1.7 Significance of the study

According to Cook, Bordage, and Schmidt (2008), educational research informs teaching and learning practice, policy and scholarship. Therefore, this study is anticipated to glean the best practices that teachers could use for the effective and successful inclusive teaching and learning of learners with and without diverse unique needs in regular classroom settings. Learners with and without diverse unique needs in regular education settings may be afforded pedagogy that meets the full range of their needs as teachers are expected to engage in reflecting practices based on the teaching strategies gleaned from the present study. Kilbourn (2006) argues that the significance of a study focuses on research gaps in the existing literature and how the present study can contribute to the theory or practical knowledge base. Thus, using the geographical, conceptual and methodological research gaps of previous studies as a springboard, the current study is expected to accumulate knowledge and information that can inform the enhancement of the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria and elsewhere. The present study is also expected to contribute to the limited knowledge and information base on the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria and other countries. It is anticipated that policymakers in Nigeria, as well as those internationally, will use the information accumulated from the present study to guide or direct the formulation or amendment of their policies and legislation on the

professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education. The present study will propose a model that is anticipated to afford teacher education institutions and other stakeholders in Nigeria and other countries practical guidelines for the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education. The following section discusses the theoretical framework that formed the foundation of this study.

1.8 An overview of the theoretical framework

A theoretical framework is the underlying structure or blueprint of a study (Maxwell, 2013; Merriam, 2009). The role of a theoretical framework is to guide or position any research work in the area of study (Blumberg, Cooper, & Schindler, 2011). A theoretical framework is used when interpreting data (Baxter & Jack, 2008). The theoretical framework used in this study enabled the researcher to elucidate and sustain information presented in the study. The present study employed the Cultural-Historical Activity Theory (CHAT) to explore the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria.

CHAT is a process in which the subject works on an objective by means of mediating tools to achieve an outcome (Engeström, 2009; Kaptelinin & Nardi, 2006). In this study's context, the object/objective is to professionally prepare primary school teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria. The subjects are primary school teachers and the tools include textbooks, lectures, curriculums, and teaching practicums used to achieve the objective. Activities are part of people's life and enable them to develop skills, consciousness and personalities (Sannino, Daniels, & Gutierrez, 2009). Professional teacher preparation involves the exchange of learning that comprises a series of activities in a social context. CHAT clarifies how human beings interact and create meanings in their cultural-historical context in a simplistic form (Gedera & Williams, 2016). The theory was used as lens to shed light on the dynamics involved, including the interaction of activities in the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria. The present study used the core principles of CHAT that was proposed by Engeström, which include an activity system, the main unit of analysis, the multi-voiced-ness of activity, and the historicity of activity and contradictions (Engeström, 2001). CHAT will be discussed comprehensively in

Chapter 2. The following section presents an overview of the research methodology and design.

1.9 An overview of the research methodology and design

Research methodology refers to sets of principles and logic that underlie a study from which specific methods or tools are derived to interpret and solve research problems (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007; Denzin & Lincoln, 2011). A research method is the entire process of research, entailing research techniques, sampling, data collection, analysis and conclusion (Ellis & Levy, 2010; Lichtman, 2013). The research method employed in the present study sought to examine how professionally prepared primary school teachers are for inclusive education in Nigeria. To this end, the current study used a qualitative research approach entrenched in the constructivist research paradigm. The following sections present an overview of the research paradigm, research approach, research design, population and sampling, data collection technique and data analysis.

1.9.1 Research paradigm

Research paradigms are worldviews of researchers that guide their choice of studies (Denzin, 2012). These belief systems are built on ontological, epistemological, axiological, rhetorical and methodological assumptions (Bogdan & Biklen, 2016). Different paradigms that guide the choice of study include positivism, post-positivism, critical theory and constructivism (Denzin, 2012). Guba (1981) reveals that it is crucial to choose a research paradigm whose assumptions best suit the phenomenon under investigation. Since the aim of the present study is to explore primary school teachers' professional preparation for inclusive education, primary school teachers' practice of inclusive education, and primary school teachers' perceived concerns about inclusive education and propose strategies and a model to enhance primary school teachers' professional preparation for inclusive education in Nigeria, the constructivism research paradigm was appropriate. The constructivism research paradigm enables the researcher to capture participant perspectives, behaviour, opinions, beliefs and emotions (Bogdan & Biklen, 2016). A comprehensive discussion of this section is presented in Chapter 5 which deals with the research methodology and design.

1.9.2 Research approach

The approaches used in research include qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). The present study used a qualitative research approach because ontologically it is grounded in the premise that there is no unitary reality but multiple subjective realities are constructed by different actors (Krauss, 2005). Thus, this research approach enabled the researcher to tap the experiences, knowledge, practices and concerns of individual primary school teachers about their professional preparation for inclusive education in Nigeria. The qualitative approach seeks an in-depth understanding of people's beliefs, actions, and views, and how people ascribe meaning to situations within their context (Bogdan & Biklen, 2016). The qualitative approach was used in the present study to comprehend primary school teachers' experience, knowledge, attitude and disposition toward their professional preparation for inclusive education in their various classes in Nigeria. The qualitative research approach allows the investigation of social issues from the perspective of the participants under investigation (Babbie & Mouton, 2010). The approach enabled the investigation to be conducted in the primary schools where the individual participants were teaching. Consequently, the researcher was able to examine the primary school teachers' knowledge, skill, concerns and strategies that can inform the enhancement of their professional preparation for inclusive education. The chapter on research methodology and design discusses details of this section in full.

1.9.3 Research design

A research design outlines the precise plan of a study, such as the choice of data collection, the instruments to employ, and how one intends to analyse data collected in order to answer the research questions (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011; McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). Therefore, a research design can be perceived as the overall structure that details how a research project will be conducted. A multiple case study research design was used in the present study. A multiple case study research design involves two or several cases in a single study which could be either similar or different (Leedy & Ormrod, 2013; McMillian & Schumacher, 2010). The present study was carried out in four regular primary schools in Ikorodu, Lagos, Nigeria. According to McMillian and Schumacher (2010), each regular primary school represents a single case.

Several data sources are employed when using a multiple case study research design and this allows rigorous exploration and generates a deep understanding of the phenomenon under investigation (Baxter & Jack, 2008; Yin, 2014). Individual interviews, non-participant observation and document analysis were used in this study to examine the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria. A multiple case study research desisgn is significant because it enables researchers to look at multiple actors in multiple settings in order to enhance the transferability of the findings (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011). The research methodology and design chapter presents information on this section in detail. The next section discusses population and sampling.

1.9.4 Population and sampling

The population of a study is the entire set of individuals who possess the characteristics and meet the required standards set for a particular study (Polit & Beck, 2006). Primary school teachers in Nigeria constituted the population in the present study. Sampling involves the process of selecting participants from the entire population (Maree, 2007). Qualitative researchers employ purposive sampling because some informants have richer information than others and these individuals are likely to be able to provide insight and comprehensive information to researchers (Marshall, 1996). Types of purposive sampling include maximum variations, extreme or deviant cases, typical cases, homogeneous sampling, critical case sampling, expert sampling, criterion sampling and total population sampling (Patton, 2015). This study used criterion sampling.

Criterion sampling is a process of selecting cases that meet the predetermined criteria of importance (Patton, 2015). The inclusion criteria of participants in this study included the participants having at least a bachelor's degree with endorsement in primary school education. The participants must have obtained their degrees from institutions that offer inclusive education modules or related modules on inclusive education across their teacher education programmes. They should be teaching in mainstream primary school classrooms in the Ikorodu local education district, which have at least one learner with unique needs. The participants must have a minimum

of one year’s working experience after the completion of their teaching qualification and must have signed the informed consent form to participate in the study. Finally, participants’ gender/sex and age will not be considered as selection criteria. Sixteen primary school teachers were purposely selected from four regular primary schools in the Ikorodu local education district in Lagos state, Nigeria. Four teachers who met the above inclusion criteria for participation were selected from each identified primary school. In the next section, data collection techniques are discussed.

1.9.5 Data collection techniques

Data collection technique is the means of gathering research information for the purpose of achieving the research aim and objectives (Creswell, & Poth, 2017). The following techniques are used to collect data in a qualitative approach: interviews, observations, document analysis, artefacts, photographs and video tapes (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Since the present study was carried out using a qualitative multiple case study research design, individual interviews, non-participant observation and document analysis were used to gather data. Each data collection instrument is discussed briefly below.

1.9.5.1 Individual Interviews

Interview is a reciprocal dialogue that involves gathering of data from participants by the interviewer in order to understand their assumptions and behaviours (Creswell, 2014; Maree, 2010). Qualitative interviews are in-depth and extensive, probing open-ended questions are employed to interrogate participants on how they conceive their world, explain or make sense of significant events in their lives (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). Basically there are three types of interviews, which include structured, semi-structured, and unstructured (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011). This study employed semi-structured individual interviews to obtain first-hand information from sixteen primary school teachers about their professional preparation for inclusive education in Nigeria.

1.9.5.2 Non-participant Observation

Non-participant observation refers to a methodical way of recording and taking notes of behaviour, actions, objects, events and occurrences of a researcher without

interacting with the participants (Marshall & Rossman, 2016). This basically relies on what is seen and heard (Marshall & Rossman, 2016; McMillian & Schumacher, 2010). Observation is significant in a qualitative study, as this allows the researcher to observe practices teachers carry out in their classes; that is, recording behaviour in teachers' natural contexts as it occurs (McMillian & Schumacher, 2010). Sixteen primary school teachers were observed once delivering lessons in their various classes. Detailed information on this is discussed in the chapter on research methodology and design.

1.9.5.3 Document analysis

Document analysis involves examination of significant documents that are valuable source of information (Henning, Van Rensburg, & Smit, 2004). Document analysis strengthens the findings obtained from other data sources (Best & Kahn, 2006), like interviews and observations. When document analysis is used as a data collection technique, it is important to focus on any written communications that will give insight into the phenomenon under study (Maree, 2007). Documents, including teachers' lesson plans, teachers' journals, class time-tables, intervention programmes and learners' class work books, were requested from primary school teachers for document analysis. The researcher likewise used official documents from archives. The next section discusses the data analysis procedure.

1.9.6 Data analysis

Data analysis is a methodical procedure of collating and reducing all data accumulated in order to develop an understanding of the data and transform it into findings (Bogdan & Biklen, 2016; Patton, 2015). A thematic analysis method was used to develop an understanding of all data gathered from the primary school teachers. Thematic data analysis is an inductive technique of identifying themes from data sets which can possibly provide detailed and credible information (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Guest, MacQueen, & Namey, 2012). This technique permits researchers to synthesize data collected in order to derive meanings from it (McMillian & Schumacher, 2010). The study adopted Miles et al.'s (2014) analytic model which involves data reduction, data displays, and conclusion drawing/verification. The researcher began by transcribing all the data gathered. Thereafter, data bulks were edited and segments were created

which enabled coding. After codes were generated, similar codes were arranged into categories, and subsequently, themes were derived from categories that shared the same concepts. The next section presents the trustworthiness of the study.

1.10 Trustworthiness

Trustworthiness is compulsory in any qualitative research in order to ensure that thoroughness or rigour is adhered to in the entire process of the study (Bowen, 2005). Trustworthiness is concerned with the truth value, consistency, applicability and the neutrality of any qualitative research study undertaken (Guba, 1981). The pillars for ensuring trustworthiness of the present study included credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability. These are fully discussed in the chapter on research methodology and design. The following section discusses ethical considerations.

1.11 Ethical considerations

A reliable research design involves complying with ethical issues (McMillian & Schumacher, 2010). Ethical issues are an essential aspect of a study and need to be respected before commencing a study (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). The vital aspects of ethics are permission, protection from harm, voluntary and informed participants, the right to privacy and honesty with professional colleagues (Leedy & Ormrod, 2013). In addition, ethical conduct should also comprise getting consent letters, getting approval to be interviewed, and ensuring that audiotapes are terminated (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Therefore, in this study, ethical clearance was obtained from UNISA; equally, permission was obtained from the Lagos State Government and each school principal before data collection commenced. Participants were given informed consent forms and the researcher ensured that participants had the right to privacy, that their participation was voluntary and that they were assured of confidentiality and anonymity.

1.12 Definition of key terms

1.12.1 Inclusive education

Inclusive education is a process of strengthening the capacity of an educational system in order to reach out to all learners (UNESCO, 2008). Inclusive education is a process of offering quality teaching and learning for all, while respecting diversity and

the different needs, abilities, characteristics and learning expectations of all learners and communities and eliminating all forms of discrimination (UNESCO, 2009). Inclusive education in this study refers to the provision of quality education and ensuring equity, access, participation, acceptance and achievement of all learners, including those with disabilities and vulnerable to underachievement, marginalization and exclusion in education in regular classrooms in the company of their peers without exceptionalities.

1.12.2 Teachers

Teachers are individuals who make learning happen; they impart knowledge, skills, values and attitudes to a group of learners (Engelbrecht, Green, Naicker, & Engelbrecht, 2007). Teachers are the pivots of the educational process (National Policy Brief, Nigeria, 2005). They serve as catalysts for the intellectual, social, cultural, economic, scientific, and growth and development of any society (Nwogu & Esobhawan, 2014). They are in the position to ensure accessibility, and the full participation and retention of all learners in the school. In the present study, teachers are referred to as those who are responsible for educating all children, and who have at least an initial primary school professional teaching qualification.

1.12.3 Teacher preparation programme

The teacher preparation programme, also known as initial teacher education or initial teacher training, is a structured education coursework and field training designed to provide basic skills, knowledge and motives for pre-service teachers (Learning-Portal, 2018). Similarly, teacher education refers to a course offered to students before they join the teaching profession and leads to a degree and certification (Learning-Portal, 2018). Mergler and Spooner-Lane (2012) define a teacher professional preparation programme as initial training afforded to student teachers to equip them with the necessary pedagogy, attitude, skills and knowledge. The teacher preparation programme in this particular study is the teacher education programme which primary school teachers have undergone.

1.12.4 Primary school

A primary school is a learning institution for learners between the ages of five and eleven years and it is usually arranged into an infants and a junior section

(collinsdictionary.com). According to the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED, 2011), primary school education is the first basic education designed to provide basic skills in reading, writing, and mathematics. The Nigeria National Policy Brief (2005) defines a primary school as a fundamental learning institution where children receive their first phase of compulsory education. A primary school in the present study refers to an education institution that provides free and compulsory basic education to children between the ages of six and twelve years for the duration of 6 years.

1.12.5 Regular school

A regular school is an educational institution that children attend with their chronologically-aged mates who are generally in the same category and who are taught the same curriculum (Loreman, 2009). A regular school in this study refers to a mainstream/general education institution where all children, including children with and without disabilities, and those vulnerable to underachievement and marginalization, all of whom receive education together without being discriminated against on the basis of their individual differences or any factor influencing human diversity.

1.13 Delimitation of the study

This study sought to examine the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria as the context for proposing strategies and a model to enhance their professional preparation. The study was conducted in regular primary schools within the Ikorodu local education district of Lagos State, Nigeria. The study was carried out in four primary schools and sixteen teachers from these institutions participated in the study.

1.14 Chapter outline

Chapter 1 presents the problem and its context, and comprises the introduction, the background to the study, the statement of the problem, the research question, the sub-research questions, the objectives, the motivation and rationale for the study, the significance of the study, an overview of the theoretical framework, an overview of the research methodology and design, the delimitations and the definition of key terms.

Chapter 2 presents the theoretical framework. The chapter discusses the development of CHAT, Engeström's model and its principles, and the significance and application of CHAT in various academic fields.

Chapter 3 explores the international perspective (both in developed and developing countries) on inclusive education and how this perspective relates to the focus of the present study, including a review of related literature on the professional preparation of teachers for inclusive education internationally.

Chapter 4 explores the Nigerian perspective on inclusive education and how this perspective relates to the focus of the present study, including a review of related literature on the professional preparation of teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria.

Chapter 5 presents the research methodology and design which comprises the research paradigm, research approach, research design, sampling, instrumentation, data analysis, trustworthiness and ethical issues.

Chapter 6 presents and analyses findings; this includes the main themes and sub-themes that emerged from the findings.

Chapter 7 presents a discussion of the findings of the study. The discussion is based on the themes and sub-themes generated from the findings.

Chapter 8 presents the summary of the findings, strategies, draws conclusions, and makes recommendations for further research.

1.15 Conclusion

Chapter 1 aimed to orientate readers to the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education internationally and in Nigeria. This has been done by presenting the introduction and background to the study, the statement of the problem, the main research question, the sub-research questions and the objectives of the study, the motivation and the significance of the study. The chapter further presented an overview of the theoretical framework, an overview of the research methodology

and design, including the research paradigm, the research approach, the research design, and data collection techniques, namely, individual interviews, non-participant observations and document analysis. Finally, the chapter indicated the delimitations of the study, the definitions of key terms and the chapter outline. In the next chapter, the theoretical framework that underpinned the study is presented, namely, CHAT.

CHAPTER 2: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 Introduction

This study examined the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria as the context for proposing strategies and a model to enhance their professional preparation. The previous chapter presented the study's problem and its context. This chapter presents the theoretical framework that underpinned the study, namely CHAT. The development of CHAT is discussed to highlight its origin and to demonstrate how it can be used within the context of this study. The chapter further discusses the principles of CHAT and their significance to the present study. The significance of CHAT to this study and its application in other research areas are also discussed. The following section presents the theoretical framework that informed the present study and how it relates to the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria.

2.2 Theoretical framework

A theoretical framework is the underlying structure or blueprint of a study (Maxwell, 2013; Merriam, 2009). The role of a theoretical framework is to guide or position any research work in the area of study (Blumberg et al., 2011). Similarly, a theoretical framework is used when interpreting data (Baxter & Jack, 2008). Therefore, the theoretical framework provides direction and helps to keep focus on a projected study in order to facilitate clear understanding.

CHAT was used in this study as the theoretical framework to elucidate and sustain the information presented. CHAT clarifies how human beings interact and create meanings in their cultural-historical context in a simplistic form (Gedera & Williams, 2016). The theory was used as a lens to examine the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria as the context for proposing strategies and a model to enhance their professional preparation. The next section presents the development of CHAT.

2.3 Development of the cultural-historical activity theory

CHAT is rooted in the philosophy of the Russian socio-cultural theorists, including Vygotsky, Luria, and Leontev, who postulated that individuals cannot operate independently from their social, cultural and historical settings (Wilson, 2014). Lev Vygotsky developed the first generation of the activity theory when he was working on CHAT during the 1920s and 1930s in the Soviet Union (Gedera & Williams, 2016). CHAT was founded on the principles that human learning and development are entrenched in social, cultural and historical settings (Holzman, 2006). Likewise, the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria is embedded in the social, cultural and historical contexts of the country and the global world. The theory attempts to explain human interaction and relationships within a socio-cultural context (Wilson, 2014), that is, how the two continuously impact on one another. The process whereby individuals are influenced and are shaped by their environmental elements, such as attitude, values, standards and individual opinions, is known as internalisation (Vygotsky, 1978). A situation where human beings construct and shape their environment through the continuous creation of new artefacts that transform the socio-cultural environment is known as externalisation (Engeström, 1999). Therefore, the development of human beings is based on their active transformation of their environment and the construction of new ones through human activity (Oswald, 2014).

Vygotsky used cultural mediated action to explain how human beings develop consciousness through the mediation of psychological tools, artefacts and social influence in an environment (Yamagata-Lynch, 2010). Culturally mediated action represents a triangle or triad of the subject, the object and the mediating tools (Gedera & Williams, 2016). Where the subject is the individual engaged in activity, tools can be artefacts or social others, and the object is the goal of the activity (Yamagata-Lynch, 2010). See Figure 2.1 below for Vygotsky's mediated action model. In the model, the conditioned direct connection between the stimulus and the response was transcended by a complex mediated action (Engeström, 2001). The model explains the development of human consciousness in a way that ignores dualistic stimulus-response relationships (Yamagata-Lynch, 2010). The limitation of Vygotsky's model

was that it focused on the individual and overlooked the relationship that may exist between others in the socio-cultural context.

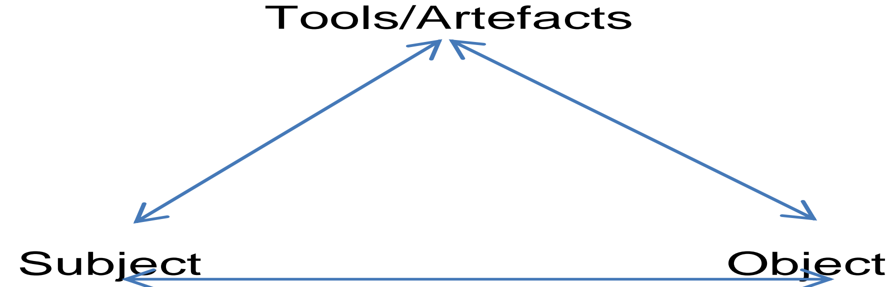


Figure 2.1: Lev Vygotsky's cultural mediated model

Source: Adapted from Engeström (2000)

Due to the limitation of the Vygotsky model, Leontev extended CHAT by introducing the notion of a "collective activity system" which implies that activity applies to a group of people rather than to individuals (Wilson, 2014). Leontev's transformation of Vygotsky's model enables a network of interaction between the individual and the community rather than limiting it to the individual and the subject (Engeström, 2001). In the transformed model, the subject, the object and the mediating tools are interdependent to form a collective activity system (Engeström, 2001). Leontev (1978) postulated that an activity system can be organised hierarchically into three levels, namely activity, actions and operations. Activity is placed at the top of the hierarchy. All activities executed by the subject are motivated at achieving the object (Kaptelinin & Nardi, 2006). Leontev (1978) defines object-oriented activity as a molar and non-additive unit of a material subject to life. In a narrower and more psychological sense, activity is a unit of life mediated by mental reflection whose real function is to orient the subject to the world of objects. Thus, activity is not a reaction or a totality of reaction but rather a system possessing structure, inner transformations and conversations and development.

Actions are next on the hierarchically level. Kaptelinin and Nardi (2006) argue that activity may comprise a sequence of steps which may not link to the motives at first, but the sequence will eventually lead to achieving the object. The steps taken to achieve the object are referred to as actions. The bottom level is called operations; these are repetitive processes that become more automatic (Engeström & Miettinen,

1999). According to Engeström and Miettinen (1999), the topmost layer of Leontev's collective activity is motivated by object-oriented motives, the middle is motivated by goal-oriented motives, and the bottom operation is driven by conditions and the tools of action on hand. There are clear distinctions between object-oriented and goal-oriented motives, as the latter is temporary in nature and may be steps which the subject takes in the process of participating in object-oriented activity (Yamagata-Lynch, 2010). Furthermore, Leontev's work did not consider multiple perspectives.

Engeström (2001) further developed a conceptual tool that explains complex dialogue, the interaction of activity systems and multiple perspectives. Engeström (2001) defines CHAT as a collective and multiple perspective enterprise that considers different views, and the traditions and interests of various participant actors. Engeström's model of activity theory comprises the subject, the object, the mediating tools, rules, community, and the division of labour (Engeström, 2001). In order to rationalize CHAT, Engeström developed five principles in its framework that included the activity system (unit of analysis), the multi-voiced-ness of activity, the historicity of activity, the role of tensions and contradictions, and expansive transformation (Engeström, 2001). See Figure 2.2 below for Engeström's model of activity theory.

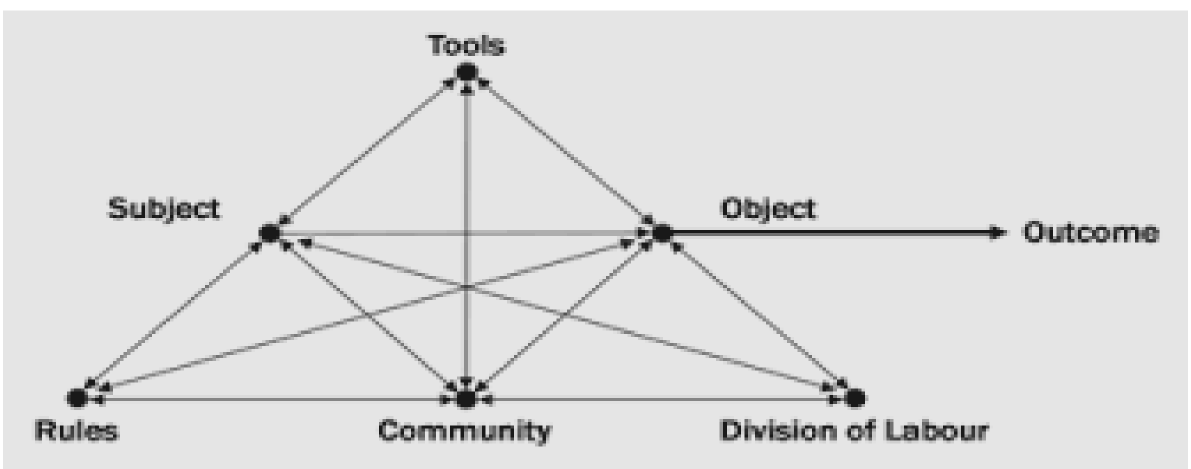


Figure 2.2: Engeström's model of activity theory

Source: Engeström (2000:962)

2.4 Principles of cultural-historical activity theory (chat)

Activities are goal-oriented sets of actions and operations (Crawford & Hasan, 2006). CHAT is a process whereby the subject works on an object by means of mediating

tools to achieve an outcome (Kaptelinin & Nardi, 2006). Hasan and Kazlauskas (2014) concur that CHAT involves who is doing what, in what way and why. In this study, primary school teachers are the subject, and the object is to professionally prepare inclusive education teachers who can use tools such as modified teaching and learning materials, adapted instruction, and strategies to achieve the outcome of teaching diverse learners in regular classrooms. CHAT enables the analysis and understanding of human interaction through the use of tools and artefacts (Hashim & Jones, 2007). According to Sannino et al. (2009), the theory can inform the process of understanding as a phenomenon and can help to find patterns and draw conclusions across interactions that exist among role players (Sannino et al., 2009). Gedera and Williams (2016) added that CHAT provides conceptual tools to examine human practices.

CHAT was used in this study to elucidate and gain insight into the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria in order to reveal their understanding, practices, perceived concerns, and propose strategies and a model to enhance their professional preparation. In doing so, the study focused on the four principles of Engeström which appeared relevant to the present study that included the activity system (unit of analysis), multi-voiced-ness of activity, the historicity of activity, and the role of tensions and contradictions. The study took into consideration the socio-cultural context of the phenomenon under study, and the researcher spent time at each research context carrying out individual interviews, non-participant observation and document analysis with the subjects (teachers) of the activity system. The following sections present each principle and its application to the present study.

2.4.1 Activity System

The activity system (the unit of analysis) is the first principle of CHAT that covers the subject, the object, the mediating artefacts/tools, rules, community, and the division of labour (Frambach, Driessen, & Van der Vleuten, 2014). Wilson (2014) defines the subject of the activity system as an individual or group of people who are the focus of analysis. Subjects in this study are clarified in section 2.4. Kaptelinin and Nardi (2006) argue that in CHAT, the focus of any activity is on the subject because the subject lives

in the world and has needs (the object) which are only met by being and acting in the world. The object is the aim or purpose of the activity system as a whole (Roth, 2004). Put differently, the object represents the driving force behind human actions. CHAT theorists argue that any activity is defined by its objects (Roth & Tobin, 2002). The object of the present was clarified in section 2.4. Primary school teachers are required to gain attitudes, knowledge, skills and competencies necessary for inclusive teaching and learning in order to meet learner diversity in regular classrooms (outcome).

Roth and Tobin (2002) define tools as mediating artefacts that enable the achievement of the outcome. Tools mediate collaboration between the subject and the object of activity. Tools could be physical, that is, computers, books, or psychological, such as a mathematical model, as well as language (Hasan & Kazlauskas, 2014). Tools in this study's context include classroom pedagogical strategies, materials and resources, such as books, chalkboards, chairs, tables, computers, lesson plans, teaching aids, regular primary school curriculums, and modified teaching and learning materials teachers intended for use in their pedagogical practices to support learners.

According to Tsui and Law (2007), rules and the division of labour outline the participants' demeanour and expectation in an activity system and the role of each participant in order to achieve the objective. Rules are explicit and implicit guidelines that guide actions and interaction within the 'activity system (Roth & Tobin, 2002). Thus, these direct or restrain interaction and actions in the activity system. Rules that mediate collaboration between the subject and the entire community in the present activity system include general guidelines, such as international and national policies and legislation on inclusive education, school guidelines on teaching and learning, disciplinary, learning performance and specific classroom guidelines/norms that guide teaching and learning.

Leadbetter (2008) defines the division of labour as how roles are distributed among the role players. The division of labour is connected to a Marxist analysis of social relations and the hierarchy of power structure within the social system, as well as how labour is divided within the system (Wilson, 2014). The division of labour in this study involved the sharing of specific tasks and responsibilities among teachers, assistant

teachers, parents, therapists and other stakeholders in order to achieve the object of activity.

The accomplishment of primary school teachers in using inclusive teaching and learning strategies in the regular classroom is influenced by and depends on other individuals in the activity system (community). Community, according to Roth and Tobin (2002), involves multiple individuals or sub-groups who share a common objective. In this study, community is the socio-cultural context that comprises primary school teachers, learners, administrators, parents/families, stakeholders, and government officials.

For example, primary school teachers (subject), implementing inclusive education (object) within a particular school setting (community), and wishing to introduce teaching and learning strategies that account for individual learners (tool) depend on the organisation's structure of work. They also depend on specific responsibilities among collaborators within the school (division of labour), the new learning strategies that may be aligned to the school's established norms (rules) or the new teaching and learning strategies which may deviate from the school's standard norms (rules). Consequently these factors may cause pressure in the activity system. Figure 2.3 below illustrates the activity system of the present study. The next section discusses the multi-voiced-ness of activity.

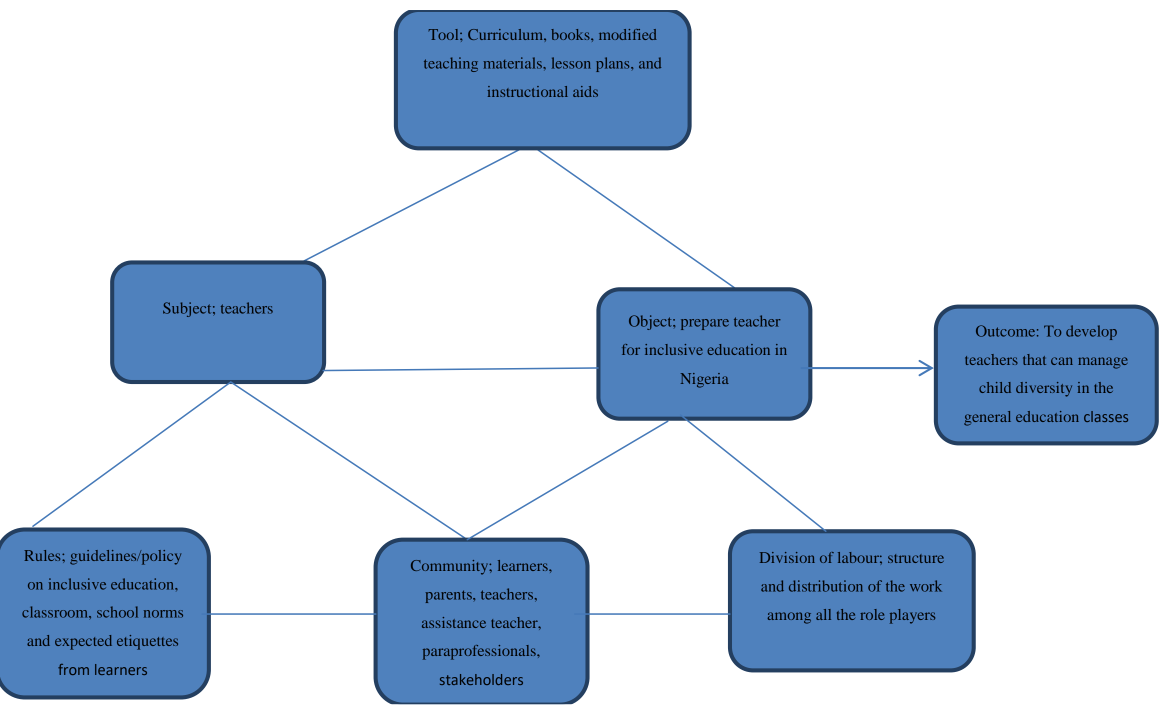


Figure 2.3: Activity system of teachers' professional preparation for inclusive education in Nigeria

Source: Adapted from Engeström (2000)

2.4.2 Multi-voiced-ness of Activity

Multi-voiced-ness is the second principle of CHAT which states that the activity system is a community of multiple interests, perspectives and traditions as participants carry their own different histories and views (Murphy & Rodriguez-Manzanares, 2008). Frambach et al. (2014) add that multi-voiced-ness of activity is a collective interaction of individuals and communities who share different views and interests. The focus of this study is on primary school teachers; however, learners, school personnel, assistant teachers, para-professionals, parents, stakeholders and government officials are part of the activity system. In a social system such as a school setting, the values of people differ, as do their backgrounds, inherent histories and traditions. All of these have an influence and dictate the smooth running of activity in the activity system.

Wilson (2014) argues, multi-voiced-ness and multiple perspectives inherent in interaction create contradictions. For example, Tsui and Law (2007) examined relationships between student teachers, university supervisors and their mentors in Hong Kong teacher education. The researchers presented two activity systems; one system is the mentoring of student teachers by school mentor teachers and the other

system is the supervision of the student teachers by their university supervisors. The researchers found that university supervisors prioritise students' ability to link what they learn at university to practice as the main object of activity and care less about students' progress, while mentor teachers placed students' progress as the main object of activity and student teachers learning came after that (Tsui & Law, 2007). Thus, tensions emerged from student teachers' field work due to the different values and interests of both mentor teachers and university supervisors. Ellis and Levy (2010) opine that CHAT affords the analysis of multiple motives that work on the same object and this helps to distinguish the diverse motives among the subjects. A multiple case study research design was used in this study to reveal the different views, values, perspectives, and motives of primary school teachers regarding their professional preparation for inclusive education in Nigeria. The next section discusses historicity of activity.

2.4.3 Historicity of Activity

Historicity is the third principle of CHAT. Engeström holds that activity systems are shaped and transformed over a period of time (Engeström, 2001). Frambach et al. (2014) postulated that knowledge about the problems and potentials of the activity system can be understood from its history. Foot (2014) concurs that culture is rooted in history and it evolves over time, so when analysing human activity, it should be viewed in the light of the historical paths where the actions take place. Therefore, since activity systems need to be viewed and understood within their specific historical contexts, the present study considered how inclusive education evolved from the era of extermination and how societal attitudes towards learners, who are vulnerable to exclusion and marginalization, have evolved to shape the current activity system of teachers implementing inclusive teaching and learning strategies. Section 1.2 established that before inclusive education was adopted, teachers were professionally prepared either as specialist teachers or regular teachers who lacked the professional skills and knowledge to meet learner diversity in regular school classrooms. So understanding the historical perspective of how inclusive education has evolved will help shape teachers' professional practices. The following section discusses the role of tensions and contradictions.

2.4.4 Role of Tensions and Contradictions

The fourth principle of CHAT is the role of contradictions or tensions that could drive change and development in the activity system (Engeström, 2001). Contradictions are not problems or conflicts in the activity system but are historically accumulating tensions that occur within the elements of the activity system or between activity systems (Engeström, 1999). However, Kuutti (1996) argues that contradictions or tensions could appear as clashes, problems, breakdowns and ruptures. For example, CHAT has the tendency to unearth tensions within the activity systems. Primary school teachers in this study might experience tensions when expected to implement inclusive teaching and learning practices in regular school classrooms to address the diversity of all learners, regardless of inadequate resources and their different values and interests. Murphy and Rodriguez-Manzanares (2008) argue that contradictions may arise in teacher practices when new technology is presented into their teaching activity and clashes with the old one. Section 1.2 reveals that inclusive education demands the reconceptualisation of pedagogical strategies, content, assessment/product, provisions and environment to meet the individual needs of diverse learners in regular classrooms. As a result of these changes in pedagogical practices, teachers may experience tensions or contradictions of different values and interests when they are required to modify their pedagogical practice to align with the changes.

Engeström (1999) reveals that there are no rational, machine-like and fully predictable actions in the activity system, but the best planned and streamlined actions involve disruptions, failures and unexpected innovation. However, contradictions can be seen as driving forces for change and development when they are dealt with in such a way that an emerging new object is identified and transformed into a motive (Engeström & Sannino, 2010). Hence, the tensions generated due to learners being educated in regular classrooms may result in teachers differentiating methods of instruction for these learners so that they can benefit and be included in the teaching and learning process, content, product and environment. Therefore, this approach can lead to the concept of inclusive learning where teachers meet the needs of learners with diverse unique needs and enhance their access, acceptance, participation and success in the

community of the regular classrooms. The following section discusses the application of the activity theoretical framework in different fields.

2.5 Application of CHAT framework in education and related fields

Over the years, CHAT has been employed in various research fields to analyse, explain and understand phenomena. These include studies in regular education (Ellis et al., 2013), on the constructs of disability and special educational needs in inclusive education (Pearson, 2009), on special education (Pearson & Ralph, 2007), on the inclusion of students with dyslexia (Anastasiou, 2017), and on health and social care (Engeström, 2000). Anastasiou (2017) used CHAT as a descriptive and analytical tool in her qualitative study to explore Cypriot and British teachers' personal interpretation in their school context and how they view their roles and responsibilities of supporting learners with dyslexia in their classes. CHAT enabled the researcher to establish factors that can influence teachers' practices of inclusion in education. CHAT provided the social and historical context where collective teaching and support for dyslexia took place and the researcher established that lessons learnt from one context cannot be assumed to be readily transferred to another context.

In Turkey, Demiraslan and Usluel (2008) used the principle of contradictions in CHAT to examine the teaching, social and technology issues of the integration process of ICT at classroom level. Contradictions within the activity systems were identified and analysed using qualitative interviews, observation and video recordings. The researchers found that contradictions occurred between teachers (the subject of the activity) and the division of labour. For instance, teachers were willing to employ ICT resources but school administrators were not providing the adequate support needed by the teachers. Likewise, contradiction was seen between the subject and the tools; for instance, teachers were eager to use ICT resources in their classroom's pedagogical practices but they were constrained by insufficient resources. There were no computers in the classrooms. The researchers concluded that the principle of contradictions can be employed to explain and analyse changes that emerged due to the introduction of ICT but may not be a valuable tool for proposing solutions for the effective integration of ICT in teaching and learning.

CHAT was applied in the Greek context to understand and analyse the contradictions that can emerge when teaching English as a foreign language to learners with dyslexia in state secondary schools. Through the analysis of qualitative interviews and observations that were used to gather data from head teachers and teachers, contradictions arose between the goals set by participants to support learners with dyslexia and a lack of teachers' knowledge and collaboration with para-professionals, including a lack of funding to train teachers (Rontou, 2013). In South Africa, Oswald (2014) utilised the CHAT framework in a qualitative study to explore teacher learning in a primary school. The learning trajectories of two teachers, their practical experience and their relationship within the school as a social system were presented in the study. The analysis of data inductively and deductively revealed several constraints, such as macro-social, macro-educational and instructional levels that affected the teachers' learning.

Edwards, Lunt, and Stamou (2010) used CHAT to examine how secondary school teachers responded to the new policy that required them to prevent social exclusion among children and youth. The researchers interviewed members of the school staff on their new roles and they conducted additional data collection using telephone interviews to validate the initial data. It was found that the welfare managers relieved teachers of their mundane work and also undertook the responsive practices demanded by preventative work with vulnerable children. Based on the utility of CHAT in the foregoing related cited studies, among others, it was the theoretical framework of choice in the present study.

2.6 Conclusion

This chapter discussed the CHAT framework as an analytical and descriptive tool for this study. The development of CHAT originating from Vygotsky and his colleagues was discussed. Engeström's model and its principles were presented and used as a lens to analyse the findings of this study. This chapter also discussed the significance and application of CHAT in various related studies. The next chapter presents international perspectives on inclusive education.

CHAPTER 3: REVIEW OF INTERNATIONAL LITERATURE ON THE HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF INCLUSIVE EDUCATION AND THE PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION OF TEACHERS

3.1 Introduction

The present study examined the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria as the context for proposing strategies and a model to enhance their professional preparation. The current chapter presents the international perspective (from both developed and developing countries) on historical development of inclusive education and how this perspective relates to the focus of the present study. It also presents a review of related literature on the professional preparation of teachers for inclusive education structured around the sub-headings derived from the sub-research questions of the study. The sub-headings are: teachers' understanding of inclusive education; teachers' practices in implementing inclusive education; teachers' concerns regarding the implementation of inclusive education; and strategies to enhance the professional preparation of teachers for inclusive education. The information gleaned from the literature review serves as a springboard for an examination of the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria as the context for proposing strategies and a model to enhance their professional preparation. The research gaps that this study fills will be highlighted. The following section presents a historical background to the international development of inclusive education and how it relates to the professional preparation of teachers for inclusive education.

3.2 A historical background to the international development of inclusive education

Historically, people with disabilities were treated cruelly and in dehumanised manner (Rimmerman, 2013). Several traditional philosophies attributed disability to witchcraft practices or divine vengeance (Mckenzie, McConkey, & Adnams, 2013; Pardeck & Murphy, 2012). Disability, according to various traditional philosophies, was a consequence of transgressions committed either by individuals, their parents or ancestors (Henderson & Bryan, 2011). These beliefs orchestrated the exclusion, rejection and infanticide of children with disabilities in the past (Anderson, 2013). This

occurred because these children were perceived as a threat to society. The treatment of children with disabilities went through momentous changes during different eras in the past, including extermination, ridicule, and being confined to asylums during the Renaissance Era (Barnes & Sheldon, 2010; Fefoame, 2009). The changing conceptions of disabilities influenced the inception of these differences. The following sub-section discusses the various eras and the treatment of children with disabilities from extermination to inclusive education.

3.2.1 The Era of Extermination (Around 146 BC)

The Era of Extermination in the USA (Barnes & Sheldon, 2010), Germany (Hohendorf, 2016), and Ghana (Fefoame, 2009), was characterized by exclusion, stigmatisation, abuse and the massacre of people with disabilities due to shame, fear and the lack of knowledge and information about them. The philosophy of Eugenicists was rooted in extermination principles that attempted to regulate feeblemindedness through methods of purification (Hohendorf, 2016). An example of the Eugenicist's philosophy was the Nazi's euthanasia programme that massacred people with disabilities in Germany around 1937 (Obe, 2013). The Era of Extermination violated the fundamental right of people with disabilities to life which is enshrined in several international human rights instruments, including the Universal Declaration of Human Rights Section 2 Article 3 (UN, 1948) and the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities Article 10 Section 1 (UN, 2006). This study examined the influence, if any, of the Era of Extermination, on the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria as the context for proposing strategies and a model to enhance their professional preparation.

3.2.2 Era of Ridicule/Middle Ages (Between the 5th and 15th century AD)

There was also the Era of Ridicule, which is also referred to as the Middle Ages or the medieval period. This period in England (Obe, 2013), Italy (Metzler, 2011) and Zimbabwe (Chireshe, 2013) was marked by the neglect, ostracisation, exclusion and the elimination of people with disabilities from the society. In Europe, persons with disabilities were perceived as natural fools (Metzler, 2011). Consequently, they were collected and used for exhibition or to amuse rich families. In London, a Royal Ordinance was decreed around the 1300s which banished people with disabilities from

the city (Obe, 2013). Metzler (2013) reveals that the Germans linked mental disease with witchcraft; as a result, people with mental illnesses were cast into rivers and left to drown. This inhumane treatment of persons with disabilities manifested from traditional beliefs (Scior, & Werner, 2015; Scior, Potts, & Furnham, 2013; Staniland, 2011). Consistent with the socio-cultural principle of the CHAT that informed the present study, cultural beliefs influenced the ridiculing of people with disabilities.

However, in isolated cases people with disabilities were treated fairly. For instance, while children with disabilities were killed or abandoned in Europe, the influence of the Confucian nature in ancient China made its citizens care, respect and take responsibility for children with disabilities (Mu, 2015). Likewise, the Chagga people of East Africa treated children with disabilities with care because they were regarded as pacifiers of evil spirits (Munyi, 2012). In the Islamic world, people with mental illness, who were referred to as feebleminded, were treated with respect, because it was believed that their minds were in heaven while only their bodies were physically present on earth (Bulbulia, & Laher, 2013). Similarly, people in Iraq perceived people with mental illness as divinely inspired (Obe, 2013). These mixed constructs and treatment of people with disabilities were aligned to the multi-voice-ness principle of the CHAT that informed the present study. This study examined the influence, if any, of the Era of Ridicule on the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria as the context for proposing strategies and a model to enhance their professional preparation.

3.2.3 Era of Asylum/Renaissance (14th century to the 17th century)

The Era of Asylum, also known as the Renaissance Era, changed the societal construct and treatment of people with disabilities (Kidskonnect, 2019). This was because of the widening conception of inclusion. The era resulted in the inception of the charity model and the medical deficit model of disability (Retief & Letsosa, 2018). The charity model was based on benevolence (Metzler, 2006). This model promoted services and provisions for people with disabilities (Braddock, 2011; Kohama, 2012), including welfare services and education. Internationally, charity services were mostly organised by private organisations and individuals due to the absence of these being provided by the state (Chitiyo & Chitiyo, 2007; Lian, Tse, & Li, 2007). For instance,

William Tuke in the UK founded York Retreat in 1796 that cared for the “lunatics” (BBC, 2014). Equally, in the USA, Quaker philanthropists Samuel Akerly and John Dennison Russ, established the New York Institution for the Blind in 1831 (Eisenstadt & Moss, 2005). In Spain, the Valladolid Mental Institution was established in 1430 (Braddock, 2011). In India, Jane Leupot founded the first school for the blind in 1869 (Kohama, 2012). South Africa established the Valkenberg Lunatic Asylum in Cape Town in 1891 (Gillis, Robertson, Zabow, & Stein, 2012). The Mathari Institution was established in Kenya in 1910 (Nairobian Reporter, 2013).

Although the era of asylum brought humane treatment to people with disabilities compared to the previous eras, it was, nevertheless, characterised by the neglect, ostracisation, extermination and exclusion of the disabled from societal benefit and social life participation, including not being able to access any form of formal education. However, the charity model was founded on the perception that people with disabilities were victims of their conditions and deserved the pity of society (Retief & Letsosa, 2018). Consequently, the charity model perpetuated the stigma because society perceived persons with disabilities as tragic and as being unable to fend for themselves. This study examined the influence, if any, of the Era of Asylum on the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria as the context for proposing strategies and a model to enhance their professional preparation.

3.2.4 Medical Model of Disability (20th century)

The Era of Asylum/Renaissance Era witnessed the inception of the medical model of disability (Tremblay, 2007), which was grounded in special education. The medical model of disability was founded on the diagnosis and placement of people with disabilities in segregated pedagogical settings under the management of specialist personnel including specialist teachers, occupational therapists, educational psychologists and physiotherapists (Armstrong et al., 2011; Landsberg, Kruger, & Swart, 2011). Compared to the charity model of disability, the medical model considers disability as an individual tragedy, a pitiable and bad condition that needs to be prevented or cured (Carlson, 2010). The perception was embedded in the epistemological assumption of the essentialist philosophy that identified differences

and disabilities in people (Gary & Loxley, 2008). It thus reinforced the dual schooling system that classified typically developing people as superior to their peers with disabilities (Johnstone, 2012). However, the practice deprived people with disabilities of their rights and social justice because it was entrenched in their exclusivity rather than inclusivity.

Special education provisions were based on several service delivery options to address the needs of learners with disabilities (Vernon-Dorton et al., 2014). For example, in the USA (Vernon-Dorton et al., 2014), Europe (Ainscow, Dyson, & Weiner, 2014), China (Liu & Jiang, 2008), Ghana (Agbenyega & Deku, 2011), and Cameroon (Lukong & Jaja, 2016), special education practice was provided through a continuum, ranging from the complete exclusion of learners with disabilities in segregated special schools as discussed in Section 1.2, to the normalisation principle that led to mainstreaming and integration. Specialist staff, including specialist teachers and educational psychologists, provided services to learners with disabilities in these educational settings.

BengtNirje initiated the normalisation principle around the 1960s in Scandinavia, which advocated for the acceptance of people with disabilities in society (Kumar, Singh, & Kutty, 2015). Normalisation opposed the ideal of separate education and encouraged the minimal use of separate facilities (Tlale, Ntshangase, & Chireshe, 2016). This resulted in deinstitutionalisation (Braddock, 2011). Mainstreaming promoted the value of normalisation in education (Landsberg et al., 2011). Nevertheless, the approach was rooted in the medical model premise of aiming at changing learners with disabilities to fit in regular school classrooms rather than vice versa (UNESCO, 2005). Thus, the medical model of disability perpetuated the exclusionary attitude towards learners with disabilities in different spheres of life, including education. This study examined the influence, if any, of the medical model of disability on the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria as the context for proposing strategies and a model to enhance their professional preparation.

3.2.5 The Social Model of Disability (1960s and 1970s)

The social model of disability was developed in England by the Union of the Physically Impaired Against Segregation (UPIAS) (D'Alessio, 2011). This model was incepted as a response to the constraints that were associated with the medical model of disability. The social model of disability argues that disability is a result of societal attitude, environment and issues which deprive people with disabilities of their full membership in the society (Purtell, 2013). In education, the model was presented as integration that aimed to maximise the social integration between people with disabilities and their typically developing counterparts (Landsberg et al., 2011). However, the practice of integration was entrenched in changing learners to fit into the schooling system (Byrne, 2013). Hence, learners with disabilities were required to adjust and fit into school arrangements (Goodley, 2010), including classrooms that were not disability friendly. This violated their constitutional rights and values, including their exposure to education that addressed their individual needs in regular classrooms in the community of their typically developing peers.

The social model of disability is inconsiderate of the aspects of disability that are not the consequences of social interaction and exclusion (Dalkilic & Vadeboncoeur, 2016). The model does not address the issue of impairment that can place personal restrictions on individuals (Palmer & Harley, 2012). For example, the phenotypic of learners with Down syndrome can impact their life's course. Hence, the social barriers may be eliminated but the traits of learners with Down syndrome may limit their optimal functionality in the society. This study will reveal the influence of the social model of disability, if any, on the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria as the context for proposing strategies and a model to enhance their professional preparation.

3.2.6 Human Rights Model

The human rights model and the social model of disability are comparable and bear close similarity (Landsberg et al., 2011), but do have differences. Degener (2014) recognises that the human rights model of disability is an improvement of the social model of disability. While the social model of disability simply explains how society, attitude and environment disable people with exceptionalities, the human rights model

establishes the policy framework, such as CRPD (UN, 2006) that appreciates the human dignity of people with disabilities (Degener, 2017). For example, Article 1 of the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (UN, 2006) enshrines the need to promote, protect and ensure the full and equal enjoyment of all human rights and fundamental freedoms by all persons with disabilities, and to promote respect for their inherent dignity (UN, 2006).

Equally, the human rights model of disability embraces first and second generation human rights which comprise all sets of human rights, including civil, political, economic, social and cultural rights (Degener, 2014). The social model of disability does not acknowledge the experience of impairment on people with disabilities and how it affects their character (Palmer & Harley, 2012). However, the human rights model realises the challenges impairment might pose to people with disabilities and argues that this aspect should be taken into consideration when developing social justice theories (Degener, 2017). The human rights model of disability recognises identity issues, such as the recognition of minority and cultural identification (Degener, 2014). While the social model of disability is critical about the preventive policy of impairment, the human rights model of disability recognises that a well-planned prevention policy may be considered as the protection of human rights for people with disabilities (Degener, 2014). Whereas the social model of disability only explains why many people with disabilities live in poverty across the world, the human rights model of disability provides a strategy to change the situation of people with disabilities (Degener, 2014).

Inclusive education is founded on the human rights model of disability (Forlin, Earle, Loreman, & Sharma, 2011; Phasha, 2016). Inclusive education respects diversity and recognises the different needs, abilities, characteristics and learning expectations of all learners (UNESCO-IBE, 2008). It is founded on access, participation, acceptance and the success of all learners in their neighbourhood regular school classrooms in the community of their peers without disabilities in their natural proportions. This study ascertained the use of the human rights model of disability on the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria as the context for proposing strategies and a model to enhance their professional preparation. The

next section discusses various international human rights policies that mandate inclusive education.

3.3 Global and regional human rights policies related to/on inclusive education

Several global and regional human rights policies enshrine the right of all children to education regardless of their uniqueness. Article 26 of the Universal Declaration on Human Rights (UN, 1948) mandates the right of every child to free and compulsory education. Likewise, Article 13(1) of the International Convention on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR) (UN, 1966) and Articles 28 and 29 of the Convention of Rights of the Child (CRC) (UN, 1989) promulgate the principles of the non-discriminative educational right of every child. In the same vein, the World Declaration on Education for All and the Framework for Action to Meet Basic Learning Needs (UNESCO, 1990) and the African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (OAU, 1990) mandate that every child should benefit from education. The Salamanca Statement and Framework for Action on Special Needs Education (UNESCO, 1994) reaffirmed the right of everyone to education as spelt out in the Universal Declaration of Human Right (UN, 1948) and renewed the pledge of the World Conference on Education for All (UNESCO, 1990) to ensure that right for all people regardless of their individual differences.

Inclusive education is the key to ensure that all children, including those with disabilities, are afforded their basic right to education (Rieser, 2014; UN, 2015). It is a reaction to the exclusive philosophy that characterized special education provisions (Symeonidou, 2017). Inclusive education is grounded in eliminating the exclusion of children with disabilities and those experiencing barriers to learning in the regular education provisions. Inclusive education advocates for a clear policy of acceptance, accessibility, the rights to equity, creditable education delivery and full participation (Kim & Lindeberg, 2012; Pantic & Florian, 2015). It shifts the focus away from the learner to the school (Winter & O'Raw, 2010). Thus, barriers to learning are not expected to be viewed from "within-the-child" perspective. This requires the transformation of educational systems through the identification of barriers within the education arena, the teaching and learning strategies and the attitudes that hinder the full participation of children (Byrne, 2013). Inclusive education requires schools to educate all learners, including those with disabilities, through active participation in

learning, cultures, and communities (UNESCO, 2005). Article 24 of the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (UNCRPD) (UN, 2006) mandates inclusive education for children with disabilities. This study examined the policy orientation of Nigeria in the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education as the context for proposing strategies and a model to enhance their professional preparation.

The guiding principle that informs inclusive education is the need for schools to accommodate the diversity of learners (UNESCO, 1994). Schools are expected to adapt the curricular, teaching and assessment methods and the environment to fit every learnerchild. Thus, inclusive education is a process involving individual and systemic changes, including the professional preparation of teachers. It perceives child diversity as a challenge and as enrichment in the teaching and learning environment and not as a problem.

Table 3.1 below provides policies of inclusion from different authorities, including the relevant dates.

Table 3.1: Authorities, Policies and Dates

Authority	Date and policy	Articles/Rules
UN	1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights	Article 26 (1) states that everyone has the right to education which shall be free at least in the elementary and fundamental stages.
UNESCO	1960 The Convention Against Discrimination in Education	Article 1 (1a) states that no one will be deprived access to education of any type or at any level.
UN	1989 The Convention on the Rights of the Child	Article 28 (1a) states “Make primary education compulsory and available free to all”.
UNESCO	1990 Education for All	Article 1 (1) specifies that “Every person - child, youth and adult - shall be able to benefit from educational opportunities designed to meet their basic learning needs”.
UN	1993 The Standard Rules on the Equalisation of Opportunity for Disabled Persons	Rule 6 states that “States should recognise the principle of equal primary, secondary and tertiary educational opportunities for children, youth and adults with disabilities, in integrated settings. They should ensure that the education of persons with disabilities is an integral part of the educational system”.

Authority	Date and policy	Articles/Rules
UNESCO	1994 Salamanca Statement and Framework for Action on Special Needs Education	Article 2 states that “every child has a fundamental right to education, and must be given the opportunity to achieve and maintain an acceptable level of learning”.
UN	2015 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs)	Goal 4 - aims to “ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all.”
UN	2006 Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities	Article 24 (1) specifies that “State Parties recognise the right of persons with disabilities to education. With a view to realising this right without discrimination and on the basis of equal opportunity, States Parties shall ensure an inclusive education system at all levels and lifelong learning”.
UN	2015 Incheon Declaration, Education 2030: Towards inclusive and equitable quality education and lifelong learning for all (World Education Forum, 2015)	Article 7 states that “Inclusion and equity in and through education is the cornerstone of a transformative education agenda, and we therefore commit to addressing all forms of exclusion and marginalisation, disparities and inequalities in access, participation and learning outcomes. No education

Authority	Date and policy	Articles/Rules
		target should be considered met unless met by all".

Source: Adapted from Byrne (2013); Symeonidou (2017)

Despite the above international human rights policies that mandate the inclusion of all learners in education and the elimination of barriers to learning and exclusion in education, inclusive education is not free from controversy. This study revealed the needfulness of global human rights instruments on teachers' professional preparation for inclusive education in Nigeria as the context for proposing strategies and a model to enhance their professional preparation. The subsequent section discusses the understanding of inclusive education from an international perspective.

3.4 Understanding of inclusive education

The definition of inclusive education and what constitutes its best practices remains highly debated (ARACY, 2013; Armstrong et al., 2011; Booth, 2011). Diverse meanings and definitions are given to inclusive education (Armstrong et al., 2011). For instance, some view inclusive education as a human rights, equity and social justice issue (Agbenyega & Deku, 2011; Ashman, 2012; Cologon, 2013; Loreman, Deppeler, & Harvey, 2010), that identifies and eliminates barriers to access, acceptance, participation and success in education (ARACY, 2013; Mittler, 2012; Slee, 2011). The recognised key features of inclusive education include age appropriate placement and learners' access to their neighbourhood schools in their natural proportions (Loreman, Forlin, Chambers, Sharma, & Deppeler, 2014). The lack of a universally accepted definition of inclusive education is accountable for the different understandings and divergent implementation in different countries.

Notwithstanding the complications and controversy that surrounds inclusive education, it has gained legal standing. Inclusive education is the fundamental human right of every child (UNESCO, 1994). The core principles and values of inclusive education, including tolerance, acceptance, diversity, equity, access and the full participation of all children, are ethical issues that cannot be questioned (European Agency for Development in Special Needs Education [EADSNE], 2012; Winter &

O'Raw, 2010). Thus, the adoption of inclusive education is not optional but indispensable in unlocking the optimum potential of learners in regular classrooms in their neighbourhood communities.

The Salamanca Statement and Framework for Action on Special Needs Education (UNESCO, 1994) defines inclusive education as a model that enables regular schools to serve all children, including those with special educational needs, in their neighbourhood regular school classrooms. The Dakar Framework for Education for All (UNESCO, 2000) reveals that inclusive education incepted as a response to a growing consensus that all children have a basic right to a common education in regular school classrooms in their localities, irrespective of their background, attainment or disability. An inclusive school is where the teaching, learning, achievements, attitudes and well-being of all children count by identifying and taking into account their diverse needs (Office for Standards in Education [OFSTED], 2006). Resultantly, schools should not only be accessible but practical in identifying the barriers and obstacles learners encounter in attempting to access opportunities for quality education, as well as eliminating barriers and obstacles that lead to exclusion (UNESCO, 2012). Thus, inclusive education can be viewed as a child-centred pedagogical approach that aims at meeting the educational needs of all learners, including those with unique diverse needs, in keeping with the objective component of CHAT that informed the present study.

According to Loreman (2009), inclusive education is a means of allowing all children access and participation in the same programmes, socialising with same age peers in the heterogeneous settings of their local schools with adequate resources and adapting the curriculum to their individual needs with zero rejection. However, this definition is inconsiderate of the various context-reliant features like political, socio-economic, and cultural variables, including religion, which vary across communities. For instance, most societies have their own inherent values and beliefs which are decisive on vital issues such as educational policies and legislation. For example, Muslim communities might not welcome the idea of heterogeneous settings or having mixed-genders in the same classroom due to strict religious beliefs regarding mixed-genders contact or interaction. Consequently, Schmidt and Vrhovnik (2015) argued that inclusive education is context-specific. Similarly, Engelbrecht and Savolainen

(2014) posit that contextual factors such as politics, the economy and culture are decisive in defining inclusive education. Inclusive education cannot, therefore, be defined and learnt out of context.

Inclusive education is also defined from an Afrocentric perspective, particularly by the Ubuntu philosophy (Phasha, 2016). In African countries, including South Africa (Letseka, 2011), Zimbabwe (Konyana, 2013), Kenya (Ngunjiri, 2010), and Cameroon (Goliama, 2011), the Ubuntu philosophy is founded on the care and support of each other, including those with disabilities, in the context of mainstream communities. The Ubuntu philosophy's principles, values, practices and proverbs are aligned to inclusive education as they are founded on respect for human dignity. Phasha (2016) reveals that the ideology of inclusive education is as old as mankind within the African context, as is shown by the way in which Africans conduct themselves. The humanness concept of Ubuntu entails acknowledging each other with respect, care, empathy, and dignity (Lefa, 2015; Msila, 2008). Ubuntu also involves interdependency and communalism, which enable African communities to demonstrate communal ownership, reciprocity and cohesion (Kochalumchuvattil, 2010; Ngunjiri, 2010; Phasha, 2016). Thus, Ubuntu signifies societal acceptance, solidarity and support. This is consistent with the international demands of inclusive education that focus on human rights and the principles of social justice, democracy, equal opportunity and full participation (Kim & Lindeberg, 2012; Pantic & Florian, 2015; Winter & O'Raw, 2010). See Figure 3.1 below for the three broad aspects of Ubuntu.

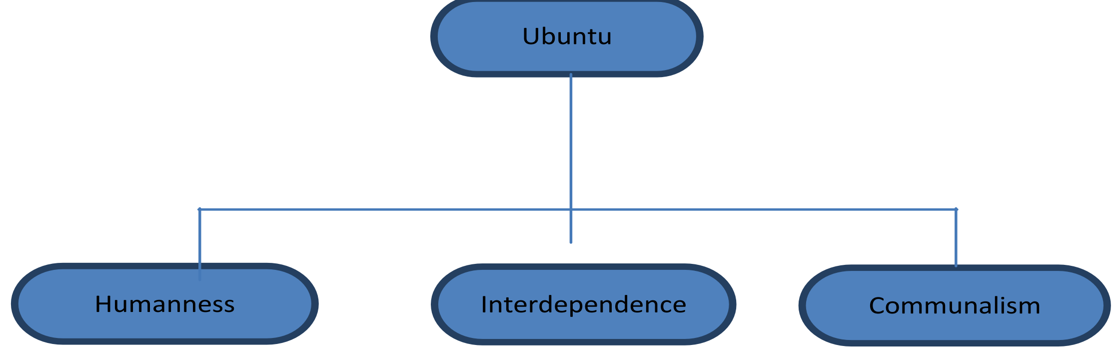


Figure 3.1: Aspects of Ubuntu

Source: Phasha (2016)

However, the Ubuntu principles of humanness and interdependence might be disputable. Interdependence might be compared to frailty or "feeblemindedness", which was used in the previous medical description of disability to define the societal treatment of children with disabilities. The medical model of disability perceives children with disabilities as dependent and deficient individuals who need to be assisted and cared for (Tremblay, 2007). Nonetheless, interdependence is significant in inclusive education because it can be similar to the collaboration and support offered to children with disabilities so they can actualise their potentials (Mahlo, 2011). For instance, the South African White Paper 6 of 2001 on education recognises that all children and youth can learn and they need to be supported (Department of Education [DoE], 2001). Support services are vital in implementing inclusive education (UNESCO, 1994).

Inclusive education is also perceived as a whole-school issue that aligns special education with regular education in a way that most successfully informs quality education for all learners (Grima-Farrell, Bain, & McDonagh, 2011). However, when special education and inclusive education are linked together, special education remains the leading partner, which results in the assumption that difficulties in education arise from impairments in children rather than the failing educational systems and social pressures (Booth, 2011). Similarly, most often inclusive education is tied to the issue of disability (Graham & Scott, 2016). Despite the growing recognition that the inclusive approach is an issue that concerns all children, countries like Australia (ARACY, 2013), Kenya (Kamundia, 2013), Uganda (Dennison, 2015), Zimbabwe (Chireshe, 2013), and the USA (Kilanowski-Press, Foote & Rinaldo, 2010), perceive inclusive education as exclusively the teaching and learning of children with disabilities in regular education classrooms. This can be attributed to the focus of inclusive education on special needs education at its inception (Forlin, 2010; Opertti, 2010; UNESCO, 1994). This includes the conception that children with disabilities are the most vulnerable to educational exclusion (Miles & Singal, 2010). The joint report by the International Disability Alliance (IDA) and International Disability and Development Consortium (IDDC) revealed that people with disabilities were not acknowledged in the Millennium Declaration or through the processes of it (CBM, IDA & IDDC, 2012). Equally, UNESCO (2009) posits that children with disabilities constitute 30% to 40% of out-of-school children. In sub-Saharan African countries like

Malawi, Namibia, Zambia, and Zimbabwe, about 24% to 39% of children with disabilities have never attended school before inclusive education was mandated in these countries (Croft, 2010). This is cause for concern when inclusivity is deliberated.

However, studies, including those of Komesaroff and McLean (2006) and McDougall, DeWit, King, Miller, and Killip (2004) reveal that the inclusion of children with disabilities in the regular education classes should be done considerately, as their placement does not totally guarantee their acceptance or full participation in the social, cultural and educational aspects anticipated by their peers. Hick et al. (2009) postulate that children can be placed in the regular classroom but can still be isolated from their typically developing peers as a result of prolonged individual sessions with specialist/support workers. Consequently, Slee (2011) advises against the practices of exclusion which are embedded in special education when accommodating the diversity of children in inclusive education. According to Rouse and Florian (2012), specialist support provided to children experiencing barriers to learning in inclusive education should be afforded in a manner that avoids the perpetuation of the segregation practices associated with the special education mode of service delivery. Booth (2011) argues that traditional educational systems and settings, including special education, have always responded to learners with diverse unique needs in a manner that creates a hierarchy of value amongst learners according to their attainment, disability, religion, and socio-economic status. Inclusive education is founded on the promotion of acceptance, and is not distinction based on the barriers to learning experienced by children in pursuit of the realisation of human rights and social justice. This study examined the influence of the social-cultural context in the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria as the context for proposing strategies and a model to enhance their professional preparation. The next section presents gaps in the interpretation and definition of inclusive education.

3.4.1 Gaps in the interpretation and definition of inclusive education

A pressing concern around inclusive education is the lack of an agreed definition (Baglieri et al., 2011; Berlach & Chambers, 2011). The different interpretations of inclusive education signify misunderstanding (Miles & Singal, 2010). Inclusive

education could result in meaning everything to people and at the same time meaning nothing (Armstrong et al., 2011). Some countries, particularly in the developing world, view inclusive education as an issue concerning children with disabilities (Srivastava, De Boer, & Pijl, 2015). The developing world, including Cameroon, compares inclusive education with integration (Lukong & Jaja, 2016). Rieser, Stubbs, Myers, Lewis and Kumar (2013) state that some countries perceive inclusive education as a problem that needs to be solved, while other countries perceive inclusive education as a process of improving education for diversity. Conceptualising inclusive education as a problem to solve, results in teacher education designing small units of separate courses in the professional preparation of student teachers to solve a range of anticipated inclusion problems (Rieser et al., 2013). However, the lack of agreement regarding the definition of inclusive education (Pantic, 2015) poses a challenge for teacher education in this 21st era.

The misconception about inclusive education arguably will result in inconsistent in teacher prepartion. Graham and Scott (2016) advise that before professionally training teachers for inclusive education, it is important to first determine what inclusive education is all about. Some teacher professional preparation institutions misguide their student teachers due to misconceptions about inclusive education. For example, Lynch and Lund's (2011) study at the Malawi Special Education College revealed that teacher educators misguided their student teachers by imparting that albinism leads to blindness, and that therefore children with albinism should be taught Braille.

In the South Africa context, Engelbrecht, Nel, Nel, and Tlale (2015) found that teachers' responses to diverse learning needs were grounded in a deficit approach to barriers of learning and development because of the orientation of their initial training. In India, Singal (2005) established that the main focus of teacher professional preparation is to create an awareness and identification of special needs learners rather than the development of pre-service teachers to acquire skills to work in schools with an increasingly diverse learner population. This study explored the conception of inclusive education of primary school teachers in Nigeria as the context for proposing strategies and a model to enhance their professional preparation. Misconceptions about inclusive education revealed from the above studies are not consistent with the objective component of CHAT that informed the present study. The following section

presents dilemmas, controversies and debates that surround the concept of inclusive education.

3.4.2 Dilemmas and debates that surround inclusive education

Inclusive education is characterised by inconsistent practices (ARACY, 2013; Booth, 2011; Florian, 2012). The practices and policies of inclusive education varies at a local level (ARACY, 2013). Florian (2012) postulates that inclusive education is often confused, whether it applies to all learners or concentrates mainly on those who previously experienced segregation. However, Loreman (2009) argues that many teachers know exactly what inclusive education is but sometimes politicise the term to suit whatever practice they are engaged in. However, this can jeopardise its effective and successful implementation. This study examined the practices of inclusive education of Nigerian primary school teachers based on their professional preparation as the context for proposing strategies and a model to enhance their professional preparation since it is practiced differently worldwide.

Conflict may arise when preserving the right of all children to inclusive education (Winter & O'Raw, 2010) as it is debatable how those with severe to profound disabilities can fully benefit from it. For instance, in Cyprus, it was established that children with mental, physical and emotional needs benefit more in segregated settings compared to inclusive settings (UN, 2003). Similarly, Warnock (2005) reveals that despite the inception of inclusive education in 1978, it was not a best delivery model as children with special needs were just dumped in mainstream schools where they ended up not being included. Byrne (2013) also argues that children with disabilities are not clearly referred to in the international human rights law, such as Article 13 of the International Convention on Economic, Social and Cultural Right (ICESCR) (UN, 1966), and Articles 28 and 29 of the Convention on the Rights of Children (CRC) (UN, 1989).

Another issue of concern is that of equity as opposed to excellence (Winter & O'Raw, 2010). Setting high educational standards and excellence cannot be objected to by any one (Alexiadou & Essex, 2016). Similarly, equity entails both fairness and inclusion that ensures the least possible standard of education for every one (DEEWR, 2012).

Both equity and excellence are part of the core values of inclusive education (NSWDET, 2004). But valuing excellence above equity, or equity over excellence (Peters, 2004), might present a daunting challenge in actualising inclusive educational goals.

The practice of frequently removing children with special needs for intervention or placing them in special units in regular schools has been criticised (Winter & O'Raw, 2010). This practice has the tendency to pronounce the problems of children with special needs which might affect them personally. As a result of this practice, Lindsay (2007) argues that other typically developing children may perceive their counterparts with special needs differently. This may possibly perpetrate stigmatisation or marginalisation. Similarly, labelling and categorising children with special needs and the provision of services in special schools, units or classes (Winter & O'Raw, 2010) is exclusionary. However, Miles and Singal (2010) argue that if individual differences are not identified, it will be difficult to address the issues. This is because the categories of disabilities can determine the quality of services, including specialist personnel and technology, to be provided to individual learners. Nevertheless, Ainscow et al. (2006) posit that the practice of labelling and categorising children with special needs, in an effort to respond to their differences, inhibits the development of an inclusive education system. Categorising children sustains the deficit-orientation that is rooted in the provision of special education. Florian (2010) argues that inclusive education often replaces special education without a definite change of policy and practice in several instances.

According to Rieser et al. (2013), most of the skills, methods and techniques developed under special education are still significant, but for them to fit the new paradigm, it is necessary to change their focus, conceptual stance, application and context. D'Alessio (2011) argues that inclusive education can be realised if the perspective of special education is wiped out and replaced with an ideology that is committed to the educational rights of diversity. This is because inclusive education cannot be achieved whilst ableist views and practices still continue (Cologon, 2013). Thus, the legacy of special education interferes with the successful implementation of inclusive education. Due to the divergent perspectives found worldwide, the present study examined the dilemmas and debates surrounding inclusive education in

Nigerian from the perspectives of primary school teachers and their professiona preparation for it as the context for proposing strategies and a model to enhance their professional preparation.
The next section discusses studies across the globe on teachers' understanding of inclusive education.

3.4.3 Studies across the globe on teachers' understanding of inclusive education

Several researchers have examined teachers' understanding of inclusive education. Florian and Black-Hawkins (2011) reveal that a lot of meaning is attributed to inclusive education without a precise definition. As documented in Section 2.2, there is no single universally accepted definition of inclusive education because of the conceptual difficulties in defining it. Sharma, Forlin, Deppeler, and Guang-xue (2012) argue that, in most cases, when countries develop their inclusive education system within the context of local understandings, their actions differ from the actual meaning conceptualised in the international human rights policies. The understanding of inclusive education is a barrier to its implementation (Baglieri, Bejoian, Broderick, Connor, & Valle, 2011a). Cologon (2013) reveals that the lack of understanding of inclusive education leads to exclusion rather than inclusion. Hence, teachers' understanding of inclusive education is integral to its successful and effective implementation.

International studies on teachers' understanding of inclusive education report divergent findings. Leung and Mak's (2010) mixed method study of Hong Kong's primary school teachers established that 70.7% of the teachers defined inclusive education as educational activities involving children with special needs, 9.8% defined it as age-appropriate or learners' full participation in regular schools, 9.3% struggled to define it, while others equated it with special education. Thus, teachers in the same country can have different understandings of inclusive education. Klibthong's (2013) qualitative study on Thailand's early childhood teachers found that they understood inclusive education as educating children with disabilities together with their peers without disabilities in the same setting, without mentioning human rights and social justice or quality teaching. A qualitative study that examined 77 Greek pre-school

regular and special educators' understanding of inclusive education established that the majority (85.7%) of them felt that inclusive education was similar to integration and its success depended on the ability of the children with disabilities to adjust to the school environment, assimilate to the demands of the regular class, as well as the type of disability (Fyssa, Vlachou, & Avramidis, 2014). In Tanzania, Muyungu's (2015) qualitative study of pre-service teachers found that the majority of them understood inclusive education as teaching and supporting children with disabilities in the same class with their peers without disabilities. Equally, a semi-structured qualitative interview of Kenyan teachers working in an inclusive primary school established that the majority of them understood inclusive education as educating children with disabilities in the regular classrooms and modifying the environment (Mulinge, 2016).

The above studies revealed that inclusive education is understood as the integration or placement of children with special needs in the regular school. However, this reflects a limited understanding of inclusive education as the focus is on specific groups of children, such as those with special needs or disability (Armstrong et al., 2011; Curcic, 2009). The placement or the integration concept of inclusive education reflected in the above-cited studies is inconsistent with the rule and objective components of CHAT that informed the present study. Similarly, they are not in line with the international human rights policies that define inclusive education as a process of addressing and responding to the diverse needs of all children, youth and adults through increasing participation in learning, cultures and communities, and the reduction and elimination of exclusion within and from education (UNESCO, 2009).

Maseko and Sisana's (2014) qualitative study of Swazi primary school teachers found that they understood inclusive education as teaching children with mixed abilities and various learning difficulties. Alhassan's (2014) mixed method study of Ghanaian primary and junior secondary schools teachers from two districts established that inclusive education was understood as the teaching of slow and fast learners together and children with disabilities playing and working together with their typically developing peers. A qualitative study of special and regular education teachers in the USA revealed that inclusive education was described as having potential benefits to learners with disabilities and teachers felt that the functioning level, Intelligent Quotient

or cognitive ability and type of disability influenced the inclusion of learners in regular classrooms (Lalvani, 2013).

In contrast, Shevlin, Winter, and Flynn's (2013) qualitative study of 24 teachers, support staff and principals from four primary and three secondary schools in Ireland found that they held a general view that inclusive education was a continuous holistic process that allowed all learners to follow a comprehensive curriculum regardless of their differences. A mixed method study of Scotland's student teachers established that inclusive education was understood as fairness, and the valuing, support and sensitivity of teachers to children with diverse unique needs (Sosu, Mtika, & Colucci-Gray, 2010). Otukile-Mongwaketse's (2011) qualitative study of primary school teachers in Botswana found that they understood inclusive education as the right of learners with and without learning difficulties to learn together and that learners benefited in both academic and social aspects.

A Norwegian qualitative study of primary school teachers in Oslo established that inclusive education was defined as accepting and teaching children according to their abilities (Yeibyo, 2012). In another qualitative study that randomly selected 65 teachers from 10 government primary schools in India, Bansal (2018) found that the majority of them understood inclusive education as the mutual communication and facilitation of understanding and acceptance of the individual diversity of learners. In the light of the varied understandings of teachers regarding inclusive education in different countries and in the above-cited countries, the present study examined Nigeria's primary school teachers' understanding of inclusive education embedded in a qualitative research approach using individual interviews, non-participant observation and document analysis. The following section discusses the status of inclusive education and the professional preparation of teachers across countries.

3.5 The status of inclusive education and the professional preparation of teachers across countries

Several countries, including most of sub-Saharan Africa, have ratified various international human rights policies that enshrine the right of every child to education (Obi & Ashi, 2016; Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development [OECD], 2013; Srivastava et al., 2015). The ratification of international policies on

children's rights contributes in shaping policy developments in various countries (Hick et al., 2009). Subsequently, developments have occurred in terms of an inclusive policy and legislative framework at the local level, physical features, investments, schooling conditions and pre-service and in-service teacher education, to mention but few (O'Gorman & Drudy, 2010; Symeonidou & Phtiaka, 2014; Winter & O'Raw, 2010). In pursuance of inclusive education, several countries have instituted frameworks for inclusive education policies and teacher development. The following sub-section discusses inclusive education in different countries.

3.5.1 Australia

In Australia, inclusive education is viewed from a disability perspective and virtually all regions maintain separate special education (ARACY, 2013). The country's commitment to inclusivity in education is evident in the Disability Discrimination Act of 1992 and the Disability Standards for Education of 2005 (Commonwealth of Australia, 2006). Australia ratified the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (UN, 2006) in 2008 (ARACY, 2013) in an attempt to promote the active participation of children with disabilities in education. Support for the inclusion of children with disabilities is promoted in virtually all regions in Australia. In New South Wales, support for children with disabilities in the regular schools includes the provision of a school learning support team, the Learning Assistance Programme, the Integration Funding Support Programme, the School Learning Support Coordinator, and the proposed School Learning Support Programme (NSW Legislative Council, 2010).

The Victoria region is committed to providing an inclusive education system that ensures all learners have access to a quality education that meets their diverse needs (Department of Education and Early Childhood Development [DEECD], 2013). Inclusive education is founded on a clear policy that recognises the need for multidisciplinary engagement and the provision of additional resources (ARACY, 2013). However, the lack of understanding and misappropriation inhibit the achievement of inclusive education in Australia (Cologon, 2013). For example, the number of learners identified with disabilities has increased in the New South Wales region but there has been no substantial increase in implementing their inclusion in the regular classrooms (ARACY, 2013).

Australia's pre-service teacher education has undergone significant change to professionally prepare teachers to be responsive to the needs of the 21st century classrooms (Graham & Scott, 2016). The Australian Teacher Performance and Development Framework was introduced to improve classroom teaching to enhance learners' outcomes (Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership [AITSL], 2012). However, Australia's newly graduated teachers feel professionally ill-prepared to manage 21st century classrooms (AITSL, 2013). Hemmings and Woodcock's (2011) quantitative study of pre-service teachers, who were enrolled in the third year of the primary school Bachelor of Education course in one Australian University, found that 70% of those surveyed indicated they felt either partly professionally prepared or not sufficiently professionally prepared to teach in inclusive settings. Another study that investigated 35 institutions that offered a four-year teachers' bachelor's degree programme across Australia established that academics who convened these courses lacked relevant qualifications. The study also established that less than half of the teacher educators possessed qualifications in special education (Stephenson, O'Neill, & Carter, 2012). Thus, pre-service teachers who underwent training through this system lack the skills and knowledge to manage children with special needs in inclusive settings.

3.5.2 Scotland

Scotland is among the countries that demonstrate a commitment to inclusive education through policies such as "Getting it Right for Every Child" (Scottish Executive, 2006), and "Curriculum for Excellence" (Scottish Executive, 2004) that provide impetus towards inclusive education in the country. The Curriculum for Excellence challenges different ways of thinking about the curriculum and allows professionals to plan and act in new ways that meet the learning needs of all children (Scottish Executive, 2006). Special educational needs (SEN) has been replaced with the additional support needs (ASN) concept (Florian, Young & Rouse, 2010) to further accommodate all children. The Scottish Government recognises that any learner may require additional support at any point in time for various reasons (Winter & O'Raw, 2010).

In Scotland, there are four-year undergraduate degrees in education and a year post-graduate diploma in education (Donaldson, 2011). The Scottish Government established the Inclusive Practice Project (IPP) in 2006 to develop a new a way of professionally preparing teachers in response to the daunting problems of underachievement and marginalisation (Florian, 2012). The University of Aberdeen was funded by the Scottish Government in collaboration with local authorities and schools, professional associations, trade unions, the Scottish Government Education Department, the General Teaching Council Scotland (GTCS) and the school's inspectorate to professionally prepare teachers for inclusive education (Spratt & Florian, 2013). The Scottish Government, in collaboration with the Hunter Foundation, also initiated Scottish Teachers for a New Era (STNE) (Gray & Colucci-Gray, 2010). This initiative improves initial teacher education experiences for pre-service teachers and provides evidence that pre-service teachers are equipped with qualities and skills necessary for raising learners' achievement (Sosu et al., 2010). The three fundamental principles that underpin this initiative are decisions driven by evidence, engagement with arts and sciences, and teaching as an academically taught clinical practice profession (Gray et al., 2009).

Teacher education in Scotland mandates inclusive education as part of its standards for teacher registration, and pre-service teachers are required to develop values and demonstrate a commitment to social justice, inclusion and care for children (GTCS, 2006). Sosu et al.'s (2010) mixed methods research on pre-service teachers' attitudes towards inclusion found that final year pre-service teachers demonstrated more positive attitudes towards inclusion in comparison to their first-year counterparts. These researchers concluded that the ITE programme contributed to the development of pre-service teachers' inclusive mind-set and learning expectations. Newly qualified teachers in Scotland are required to "systematically engage with research and literature to challenge and inform professional practice" (GTCS, 2012:18). Teacher education induction schemes in Scotland are world-class (OECD, 2007). The Scottish teachers' professional preparation scheme allows the placement of newly qualified teachers to teach for a year in a school (Donaldson, 2011). The Standards for Registration require newly qualified teachers to "know how to access and apply relevant findings from educational research; know how to engage critically in enquiry,

research and evaluation individually or collaboratively, and apply this in order to improve teaching and learning” (GTCS, 2012:12).

3.5.3 England

In pursuance of inclusive education, England has institutionalised several policies, such as the Statutory Inclusion Guidance (United Kingdom: Department for Education and Skills [DfES], 2001), the Special Educational Needs and Disability Act (DfES, 2001), and the special needs education strategy Removing Barriers to Achievement (DfES, 2004). To further enhance an inclusive education system in England, the Government provides support for schools to develop more inclusive practices (Dyson & Gallannaugh, 2007). Armstrong (2005) argues that educational equality, under the banner of the inclusive policy, is conformity to the performance criteria, with a design that selects and places value upon certain individuals while also advancing opportunities. Such a utilitarian system of performance promotes the exclusion of those who fall short of the standard (Armstrong, 2005).

Warnock’s (2005) study questions the relevance of inclusive education and argues that it is the most disastrous legacy of the 1978 report. She concluded that the inclusivity idea was not working (Warnock, 2005). England is backing off from the ideology of full inclusion (Hornby, 2012). This is evident in the DfE (2011:51) document that states that “removing any bias towards inclusion that obstructs parents’ choice and preventing the unnecessary closure of special schools”. Thus, England is deviating from the pursuit of inclusive education in different areas. England has introduced standards/competencies that teachers need to meet (DfE, 2013). The standards require teachers to demonstrate good knowledge and skills in their subject, and be able to adapt teaching to respond to all learners while managing behaviour effectively in order to create a safe learning environment (DfE, 2013).

3.5.4 Finland

The development towards the provision of education for all has been evident in Finland since 1997 (Saloviita & Schaffus, 2016). The aim is to provide equal access and quality free education for all children, including those with disabilities and immigrant children (European Commission, 2015b). Finland ratified the Convention on the Rights of

Persons with Disabilities (UN, 2006) in 2016 (Saloviita & Schaffus, 2016). Among the acts, policies and legislation related to inclusive education in Finland are the Basic Education Act (Finland, 2010), the Early Childhood Education and Care Act (2005), the Strategy on Special Needs Education (2007), the National Curriculum Guidelines on Early Childhood Education and Care (2005), and the National Core Curriculum for Pre-primary Education (2010). To ensure all children are catered for, including immigrant children, “Education and research 2011-2016: A development plan” was introduced to increase immigrant children’s participation in basic education and to improve their opportunities to complete upper secondary school education (OECD, 2013:4). Finland is an international model of progressive and high-quality schooling (ARACY, 2013). It performed highly on the Programme for International Student Assessment’s (PISA) average score for science. Finland is ranked in the top five countries alongside countries Hong Kong, Singapore, and Japan (OECD, 2013).

In Finland, teaching is a high career choice and it is compulsory for teachers to obtain a Master’s degree that includes strong theoretical and practical experience (OECD, 2013; Saloviita & Schaffus, 2016). Students entering pre-service primary education are required to write an entrance examination to assess their academic learning skills and their suitability for the profession, as well as their motivation and commitment to study (OECD, 2013). Special education teachers complete a five-year special education training programme at university or a one-year training programme (60 ECTS) in special education as part of or in addition to their teacher studies (Saloviita & Schaffus, 2016). Finnish teachers have pedagogy autonomy, including participation in drafting the local curriculum and choosing teaching materials, methods and determining approaches to the assessment of learners (OECD, 2013). They provide support services based on the observed needs of learners without the need to formally diagnose them (ARACY, 2013). This approach to provide support for learners with special needs is unique and is the main service delivery model in Finland (Jahnukainen, 2011). The country still maintains a segregated special education sector with about 8% learners receiving full-time services and about 22% receiving part-time services (Graham & Jahnukainen, 2011).

3.5.5 Canada

The Canadian Government follows a continuum range from complete exclusion to institutionalisation, segregation, categorisation, integration, mainstreaming and inclusive education (Alberta Teachers' Association, 2014; Thomazet, 2009). These patterns are followed in the USA, Europe and African countries (Ainscow et al., 2014; Obi & Ashi, 2016). Compared to Australia, Canada has no integrated system of education or national education policy, as education policy is disseminated at provincial level (Mitchell, 2010). This includes the Standards on Special Education (Alberta Education, 2004). The goal of inclusive education in Alberta is to provide appropriate learning environments and opportunities to all learners so they can achieve their optimal potential (Alberta Education, 2009).

Educational provision in Alberta includes segregated forms of education because its government recognises that some learners need to be grouped based on their needs (ARACY, 2013). However, the provision of inclusivity in Alberta is faced with tension between equity and excellence (Alberta Teachers' Association, 2014). In addition, the Standards for Special Education of 2004 have not been reviewed for a while, which has contributed to the disjointed implementation of inclusive education (Alberta Teachers' Association, 2014). In contrast to Alberta, the OECD acknowledges that the province of Ontario has a high performing system in terms of equity and achievement (OECD, 2011). Thus, inclusive practices and implementation vary within Canada because of the autonomy of provinces to provide education and enact their own policies.

3.5.6 China

The revised edition of the Constitution of China of 1982 mandates education and social support for its citizens with disabilities (Xu, Cooper, & Sin, 2018). China passed its first Compulsory Education Law in 1986 (Deng & Poon-McBrayer, 2012), and the revised Compulsory Education Act in 2006 (Xu et al., 2018). The act mandated the establishment of "Learning in Regular Classrooms" (LRC) in 1988 (State Council, 1988) by the Chinese Government to enable access to and the participation of children with disabilities in regular education classrooms. The country established a three-tier delivery system that comprised placement options of special schools, special classes

and learning in regular classrooms (LRC) into its education system to serve learners with disabilities (Deng & Zhu, 2016). The Chinese Government has no intention of abolishing the present special education system (Malinen, 2013).

A Work Programme for Implementing Compulsory Education for Children with Disabilities called "The Ninth Five-Year (1996–2000)" specified the establishment of a least one special school in a city where the population is 300 000 and more, and the expansion of the learning in regular classrooms programme (LRC) (Deng & Zhu, 2016). Despite the expansion of the LRC programme, it was reported in 2010 that the learning in regular classrooms programme (LRC) only served about 60% of learners identified with disabilities (Ministry of Education of People's Republic of China, 2010). The quality of learning in regular classrooms programme (LRC) has been questioned (Feng, 2010) because of the possible low level of training of teachers in inclusive education. Deng and Zhu (2016) established that children with disabilities in regular classrooms are not exposed to quality education.

Teacher training institutions for the special education programme in China do not produce adequate professionals who are grounded in special education skills and knowledge (Deng & Poon-McBrayer, 2012). Sun (2013) postulates that most resource teachers lack qualifications in special education. According to Peng (2014), there are limited resource teachers in China. Kayange and Msiska's (2016) qualitative study found that some 21st century skills were fully integrated into the pre-service training curriculum. However, participants reported that some skills, such as computer skills, were not fully integrated. Lu (2013) posits that teacher training in China is not practically oriented but theoretically oriented. Xu et al. (2018) postulate that if training is to be provided for teachers of learners with disabilities, and the tradition of focusing more on theory than practice in China continues, then the teacher training programmes will not help to achieve any improvement.

3.5.7 Bangladesh

Bangladesh adopted inclusive education in the early 1990s with the enactment of the Compulsory Primary Education Act of 1990 (Ahsan & Mullick, 2013). Unlike China, Bangladesh has a complex and diverse educational system that comprises regular

education, Madrasah education (based on the Islamic religion) and vocational and technical education, including English medium schools (Rahaman & Sutherland, 2012). Due to the complex education system, the Directorate of Primary Education (DPE) has adopted several initiatives (Malak, 2013) in pursuit of an inclusive education system. These include collaboration between educational sectors and social welfare groups (Sharma et al., 2012), and the alignment of rural self-help groups with Community-Based Rehabilitation programmes to support the inclusion of children with disabilities in local schools (Forlin, 2013).

Likewise, Bangladesh has institutionalised various strategies to reduce the primary school dropout rate, including extending the stipend of learners from poverty stricken backgrounds, the provision of lunch in school, improving school facilities and improving the welfare of girl-children in school (Ministry of Education [MoE], 2010). The government also initiated the "Third Primary Education Development Programme" (PEDP3) which is financially and technically supported by international partners such as the World Bank and Asian Development Bank (Ahmmed & Mullick, 2013). Bangladesh ratified the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (UN, 2006) in 2007 (UNESCO, 2015) to improve the education of children with disabilities. The National Education Policy in Bangladesh mandates the inclusion of all children, irrespective of their special needs, gender, ethnic backgrounds and socio-economic backgrounds in regular education schools (MoE, 2010). The Disability Welfare Act of 2001 mandates the integration of children with disabilities in regular schools and the provision of free education opportunities and free educational materials (Ministry of Social Welfare, 2001).

Bangladesh lacks compulsory pre-service teacher training (MoE, 2010). The National Education Policy expressed concern over the quality of pre-service teacher education which is embedded in out-dated rote learning, and is theory-based, with insufficient practical learning, and a conventional testing system (MoE, 2010). Nevertheless, the Bangladesh Government recognises the need to create a uniform and universal system of education (MoE, 2010). Malak (2013) posits that the successful inclusion of all learners into mainstream schools is impeded by the rigid curriculum policy and unskilled teachers. Rahaman and Sutherland (2012) reveal that the present teacher

training curriculum lacks provision for learners with different types of needs and lacks support for the transition of teachers into effective inclusive settings.

3.5.8 Kenya

Kenya revised its Special Needs Education policy in 2009 in pursuit of inclusive education in alignment with the international world (Republic of Kenya, 2012). It abolished school fees for learners with or without disabilities (Srivastava et al., 2015) to promote accessibility to education for all learners in the country. Section 44(2) of the Kenyan Basic Education Act of 2013 states that the Cabinet Secretary will provide special needs education to children that require it (Republc of Kenya, 2013).

The Act enshrines non-discrimination in admission on any grounds and outlines the commitment of the government to provide facilities and resources to support the education of children with special educational needs (Republic of Kenya, 2013). The philosophy of Kenya is to offer the opportunity for every child to excel (Were, 2021). Kenya still maintains a traditional segregated education system for learners with special education needs (Omede, 2015). There are 3 464 special needs institutions in Kenya, 2 713 integrated institutions and 751 special schools (Republic of Kenya, 2012). Omede (2015) argues that the access and participation of learners with special needs in Kenya is low and their needs are not explicitly addressed. According to Alani (2018), the education system in Kenya is founded on the human capital theory that believes higher education leads to higher economic returns, thereby neglecting the fundamental principles of inclusive education, such as the acquisition of values, attitudes and skills. The emphasis on academic performance and examinations creates an unpleasant learning environment for children with special needs, which ultimately poses a challenge to their inclusion in regular schools (Republic of Kenya, 2012). UNICEF (2013b) reveals that access to education and the completion of compulsory education in Kenya remains fraught with obstacles. Likewise, the Office of the High Commissioner on Human Rights revealed that 33% of learners with disabilities did not attend primary school education, 80% of these lack secondary education and 98% did not attend tertiary education (Office of the High Commissioner on Human Rights [OHCHR], 2011).

3.5.9 South Africa

The commitment of the Government of South Africa to inclusive education is reflected in its adoption of the Education White Paper 6 (DoE, 2001) which defines and specifies the scope of inclusive education practices in the country. The Education White Paper 6 of 2001 of South Africa is a prototype of a good policy that incorporates many key features of inclusive education, including a rights-based approach to education, barrier-free learning environments, parental and community involvement, the use of specialist support and the conversion of special schools into resource centres (Rieser et al., 2013).

Several measures, such as the Curriculum Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) (Department of Basic Education [DBE], 2012), the Strategy on Screening, Identification, Assessment and Support (SIAS) (DBE, 2014), Guidelines for Inclusive Teaching and Learning (DBE, 2010), Action Plan 2001: Towards the Realisation of Schooling 2025 (Sayed & Motala, 2012), and provincial initiatives, like the Gauteng Primary Language and Mathematic Strategies (GPLMS) (Fleisch & Schoer 2014), promote the implementation of inclusive education in South Africa. The South African Schools Act (1996) Section 3(1) enshrines compulsory education for children aged between 7 and 15 years or till Grade 9. Equally, the decree of disability rights challenges education inequality among South Africa learners with special educational needs (Inclusive Education South Africa. 2017). Despite these measures, Sayed and Motala (2012) reveal that many South African learners are still not receiving quality education. Hodgson and Khumalo (2016) found that 53% of children with disabilities are unable to access school in the Manguzi community in KwaZulu-Natal (KZN) province. Thus, the country is yet to meet the universal mandate of educational access and opportunity for its diverse learners.

The CAPS guideline for responding to diversity that was introduced in 2012 requires all teachers to implement inclusive education (DBE, 2012). However, it is unclear as to what extent inclusive education is integrated into teaching subjects and there is no common approach or terminology and conceptual consistency (Simelane & Schoeman, 2014). Other challenges impeding an inclusive educational system in South Africa include the lack of support for teachers and resources (Daniyan, 2015).

3.5.10 Zambia

Zambia passed a policy on Special Educational Needs (SEN) in 1977 and has been making an effort to reach out to children with disabilities (Eunice, Nyangia & Orodho, 2015). The policy on inclusive education in Zambia mandates the provision of equal education opportunities for children with special educational needs, and the improvement of supervision and management of special education across the country (Alasuutari, Chibesa & Makihonko, 2006). The Government of Zambia passed an education policy that makes provision for married and pregnant girls to continue their schooling (Stubbs & Lewis, 2008). Teacher empowerment is among the initiatives to improve the implementation of inclusive education in Zambia (Dart & Cheyeka, 2012; Kangwa, Chifwepa, & Msango, 2012).

The Enabling Education Network (EENET) carries out action research in the northern part of Zambia to inform the training of teachers in inclusive education (Lewis & Bagree, 2013). Challenges in the implementation of inclusive education in Zambia include the lack of resources and insufficient funding (Akakandelwa & Munsanje, 2011). Eunice et al. (2015) reveal that 5.5% of the GDP allocated for education from 1975 to 1985 was reduced to 2.0% in 1993. Thus, inadequate funding impedes the implementation of inclusive education in Zambia.

Drawing from the status of the teachers' professional preparation and the implementation of inclusive education in the above-mentioned countries, the present study explored the philosophy, organisation and mode of professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria. Similarly, the current study explored the adequacy and the support measures of the Government of Nigeria in the implementation of inclusive education in the country as the context for proposing strategies and a model to enhance the professional preparation of teachers. The following section presents teachers' practices of inclusive education.

3.6 Teachers' practices in implementing inclusive education across countries

Studies reveal several practices of teachers in implementing inclusive education (Tomlinson, 2015). As discussed in Section 2.2, inclusive education represents the

human rights and social justice of every child. UNESCO (2015) postulates that the ability of children to access their educational rights is dependent on the effective implementation of inclusive education. Inclusive education should be implemented in a manner that will evade perpetuating exclusion. However, Florian and Black-Hawkins (2011) articulate that the implementation of inclusive education varies, as it includes a model that focuses on children with disabilities with specialist provision in regular schools and a model that responds to diverse learners in regular classrooms without categorisation. Regardless of the different practices of inclusive education worldwide, literature reveals several common practices of teachers in implementing inclusive education. These include differentiated instruction (Tomlinson, 2015), parent/guardian involvement (Epstein, 2011), co-teaching (Friend, 2014; Faraclas, 2018), Universal Design for Learning (UDL) (Vrencoska, 2014), classroom management (O'Neill & Stephenson, 2011), and inclusive pedagogy (Florian & Black-Hawkins, 2011). These practices are discussed in the following sub-sections.

3.6.1 Differentiation of instruction

Differentiation of instruction is adjusting lesson content, instructional methods, learning outcomes, resources and assessment methods to the unique needs of individual learners in regular classrooms (National Council for Special Education [NCSE], 2011). Graham and Scott (2016) posit that teachers can differentiate instruction by addressing the skills covered in the curriculum, the activities or strategies presented to learners, the way learners demonstrate their learning and the physical set up and social aspect of learning. Differentiation of instruction is a responsive approach to teaching which differs from a uniform method where the teacher uses a one-size-fits-all approach to pedagogy (Tomlinson, 2013). It requires teachers to alter teaching practices to accommodate the characteristics of individual learners, particularly their learning interests, readiness, style and learning profile (Borja, Soto, & Sanchez, 2015). Differentiation of instruction is grounded in the creation of learning experiences that address the individuality of all learners. In inclusive education, diverse learning abilities, interests, needs and strengths of children are recognised (Heacox, 2012). Therefore, differentiation of instruction provides multiple instructional options which teachers can modify to meet the needs of individual learners, in keeping with the objective component of the activity theory that informed the present study.

Differentiation of instruction recognises learner diversity in the classrooms and enables all learners to be reached through a variety of methods and activities (Muthomi & Mbugua, 2014). A quantitative study of 45 high school students in the USA found that curriculum modification increased learner academic engagement and decreased disruptive behaviour that might have interfered with learning, which enabled teachers to spend less time on behaviour management (Lee, Wehmeyer, Soukup, & Palmer, 2010). Similarly, a quantitative study of 374 secondary school students from eight provinces in Kenya revealed that 89% of them improved in mathematics achievement because of the use of differentiation of instruction (Muthomi & Mbugua, 2014). Gettinger and Stoiber's (2012) study of 124 students registered with Head Start found that the students in experimental classrooms, where differentiation of instruction was implemented, demonstrated a higher performance on outcome measures than students in classes where differentiation of instruction was not used.

Despite the use of differentiation of instruction, not all teachers fully utilise the strategy in their daily pedagogical practices. A study of a public high school in Ecuador found that instructional practices and assessment were not differentiated to address the diverse needs of learners, and teachers lacked the skills to manage learners with learning disabilities (Borja et al., 2015). In Greece, Vlachou and Fyssa's (2016) study of 52 regular pre-school classrooms found that only 10 provided modifications for the learners with disabilities. Similarly, a qualitative case study of a public university's faculty staff in the USA established that pre-service teachers were taught differentiation of instruction and its importance but were not sure if they were ready to differentiate instruction in their classrooms (Simpson & Bogan, 2015). In another qualitative study of K-5 teachers in the USA, it was found that despite the participants' understanding of curriculum differentiation, they felt it challenging and time-demanding due to the diverse population and a lack of resource materials (Maddox, 2015). A mixed method study of Ghanaian primary school teachers established that the participants had a good knowledge of curriculum differentiation but hardly differentiated instruction and engaged in out-dated assessment approaches rather than alternative assessment approaches (Abora, 2015). Chhabra, Srivastava, and Srivastava's (2010) quantitative study of 103 junior secondary school teachers in five

regions in Botswana found that teachers were reluctant to include learners who needed modification of the educational programmes.

Morningstar, Shogren, Lee, and Born's (2015) study of 65 inclusive classrooms found that the most common adaptations used for learners with disabilities were material changes, adjustment of the environment and response alternations. Similarly, a quantitative survey of public school teachers in New Jersey in the USA established that the techniques that the participants regularly used to differentiate were to vary the pace of instruction and the use of a variety of materials, while the techniques less used were rubrics, interest centres, student-learning contracts, high-level tasks and chuck product assignments (Blecker & Boakes, 2010). Learners in the above-cited studies were deprived of the full benefit of inclusion in regular classrooms due to the partial or complete absence of differentiation of instruction. Thus, this current study examined the professional preparation of primary school teachers in Nigeria about the use of various instructional strategies, including instruction differentiation as the context for proposing strategies and a model to enhance their professional preparation.

3.6.2 Universal Design for Learning

Universal Design for Learning (UDL) refers to designing an accessible learning environment where content and delivery are accessible to improve learning, irrespective of the individual's learning ability (Al-Azawei, Serenelli, & Lundqvist, 2016). The USA Higher Education Opportunity Act (HEOA) of 2008, Section 103a, defines UDL as a scientific framework for guiding educational practice that provides flexibility in the way in which information is presented, the way in which students respond or demonstrate knowledge and skills, the way in which students are engaged and how it reduces barriers in instruction, while at the same time providing appropriate accommodations, support, and challenges, and maintaining high achievement expectations for all students, including students with disabilities and students who have limited English proficiency (HEOA, 2008). Hence, the aim of UDL is to reduce obstacles to learning and increase learning opportunity (Coyne, Pisha, Dalton, Zeph, & Smith, 2012).

There are several positive effects on learners' academic performance through the implementation of UDL (Coyne et al., 2012; Hall, Cohen, Vue, & Ganley, 2015; Kennedy, Thomas, Meyer, Alves, & Lloyd, 2014; Kumar & Wideman, 2014). Coyne et al.'s (2012) study of K-2 students with intellectual disabilities in the USA found that students in the experimental group where UDL-LBD (Universal Design for Learning-Literacy by Design) was implemented, performed better in reading compared to their peers in the control group. Similarly, Davies, Schelly, and Spooner's (2012) quantitative study in the USA established that psychology students, who were in the intervention group where UDL principles were applied, had positive significant changes in their perceptions about instructors' teaching methods. A mixed method study of graduate students by Smith (2012) found that when instructors used UDL strategies, technology students showed greater engagement and more interest.

A survey of students in Grades 5–12 established that high school students had greater scores on personalisation and participation when UDL methods were applied in their classes (Abell, Jung, & Taylor, 2011). In Ireland, a study of 25 professionals working in health-related disciplines found that using UDL principles for clinical placements minimised barriers to access for students with disabilities (Heelan, Halligan, & Quirke, 2015). In contrast, a qualitative study that examined the compliance of the Greek New National Curriculum (NNC) to UDL principles established that the New National Curriculum failed to accommodate UDL principles (Mavrou & Symeonidou, 2014). Similarly, in New Zealand, a review of the UDL framework found that a barrier to establish the efficacy of the framework is the lack of a clear definition of what really constitutes an intervention that can be accepted as universally designed (Kavita, Ok, & Bryant, 2014). This study examined the use of UDL in Nigeria in view of the inconsistency of the findings of the above-cited studies as the context for proposing strategies and a model to enhance the professional preparation of teachers.

3.6.3 Parental involvement

Parental involvement entails the regular participation of parents or guardians in shared meaningful communication concerning the learner's academic and other school activities (No Child Left Behind Act, 2001). Parents attend school general meetings, school events, scheduled meetings with children's teachers, work as volunteers or

serve on a school committee (Child Trends Data Bank, 2013). Both parents and teachers are the key educators in children's lives (Karibayeva & Bogar, 2014), thus their partnership is essential. Evidence of an inclusive school is the ability to work in a team (Ainscow & Sandill, 2010) with all stakeholders. This study examined the professional preparation of Nigerian teachers to collaborate with parents in inclusive education as the context for proposing strategies and a model to enhance their professional preparation.

Parental involvement in education enhances the learner's academic achievement. In Afghanistan, 97% of the teachers that participated in a quantitative study revealed that they partnered with parents because collaboration improved learners' behaviour, reduced learners' drop-out rates and absenteeism (Stanial, 2013). In the USA, a quantitative study carried out in 10 public high schools found that parental involvement improved academic and emotional functioning of adolescent students (Wang & Sheikh-Khalil, 2014). Despite the positive impact of teacher-parent collaboration, some studies indicated otherwise. A mixed method study of 1 364 children and their primary caregivers in the USA established that improvements in parental involvement did not increase standardised achievement within children, however, there was improvement in children's social skills and a decline in behavioural problems (El Nokali, Bachman, & Votruba-Drzal, 2010).

There is a growing recognition that parents know their children's strengths, needs, and preferences, hence they provide information that can help with the provision of IEP (National Technical Assistance Center on Transition [NTACT], 2017). However, partnership is a challenge in situations where parents and teachers work separately (Braley, 2012). Studies on parent-teacher partnerships reported mixed findings. A qualitative study of Beijing's inclusive primary and secondary school teachers found that some parents tend to shift their responsibilities on to the teachers, and that the parents' low level of education and illiteracy weakens the home tutoring of their children. The study also established that most students live in welfare houses without home tutors (Xu & Malinen, 2015). Leung and Mak's (2010) study found that only 13.7% of teacher participants received the support from parents of learners with special needs. However, Rodrigues, Campos, Chaves, and Martins (2015), in their quantitative study, revealed that parents/guardians in Portugal were optimistic

regarding their involvement and participation in monitoring children who attended kindergarten.

A report of qualitative focus group interviews in the USA found that communication between participating parents and professionals improved and got better after intervention (Mereoiu, Abercrombie, & Murray, 2016). Parents acknowledged that professionals got to know their perspectives better (Mereoiu et al., 2016). Similarly, a mixed-methods study of Malaysia's inclusive primary and secondary schools revealed that teachers were willing to learn from parents on the best practices and strategies to guide students with SEN, and parents also appreciated teachers' efforts to communicate and update them on their children's education (Adams, Harris, & Jones, 2016). The present study examined the professional preparation of Nigerian primary school teachers of the involvement of parents in inclusive education as the context for proposing strategies and a model to enhance their professional preparation.

3.6.4 Co-teaching

Co-teaching allows interaction between regular and special education teachers to be mutually reliant on each other to attain a shared goal of teaching both leaners with and without disabilities (Friend, 2014; Pratt, 2014). The strategy addresses challenges and makes the most of the opportunities for learners with special education needs in the regular classroom (Nierengarten, 2013). Various international studies have explored the use of co-teaching as a strategy in inclusive educational practices (Friend, 2014; Strogilos, Avramidis, Voulagka, & Tragoulia, 2018). A qualitative study of Sweden's regular teachers found that teachers preferred teamwork which enabled them to support children with special needs and share experiences (Gidlund & Boström, 2017). In the USA, a survey of regular and special education teachers working in elementary, middle and high schools established that 87% of the respondents felt they profited professionally from co-teaching; 80% likewise agreed to have gained personally from the co-teaching relationship (McCarty, 2011). Another quantitative study of special and regular co-teachers and co-taught students which comprised both students with (SWD) and without disabilities (SWOD) in the USA found that all SWD agreed that they learned more and better with two teachers, while 70.5% SWOD students indicated they learned more, and 76.5% SWOD indicated it was better with two

teachers. Likewise, 66.7% SWD and 70.6% SWOD agreed that they behaved better when co-taught and the majority of the students revealed that it wasn't difficult to be co-taught by two teachers (King-Sears, Jenkins, & Brawand, 2018).

Brooker's (2015) quantitative study of rural elementary schools in the USA found that students taught by co-teachers achieved more progress in their reading levels than students taught by single teachers. However, studies have established challenges and disequilibrium in co-teaching (Naraian, 2010; Pugach & Winn, 2011). Ashton's (2016) qualitative case study of co-taught secondary school classrooms in New York found a lack of synchronisation in teacher relationships as the regular teacher took the entire class, while the special educator tried to ensure selected students met with the assignment mandate in just a few short minutes. According to Friend and Cook (2010), one of the strategies in co-teaching is "one teach, one assist". However, Ashton (2016) found that the co-teaching strategy used could be described as "one teach, one compensate." The study also established that the regular teacher did not accommodate students with disabilities (Ashton, 2016). The current study examined the professional preparation of Nigerian primary school teachers for co-teaching in inclusive education as the context for proposing strategies and a model to enhance their professional preparation.

3.6.5 Inclusive pedagogy

Inclusive pedagogy is an approach that responds to diverse learners in a way that avoids marginalising certain learners in the classroom community (Spratt & Florian, 2015). This approach to teaching and learning denotes a shift in thinking from that which works for most children alongside something different or additional for children who experience learning difficulties, and works towards the provision of rich learning opportunities for all children so that they can all participate in the classroom's life and culture (Rouse & Florian, 2012). Every child's dignity is respected. Inclusive pedagogy provides equal education opportunities for all learners (Allday, Neilsen-Gatti, & Hudson, 2013; Ballard, 2012). An inclusive pedagogical approach opposes the additional needs method to inclusive education practice (Florian & Black-Hawkins, 2011).

Studies on the inclusive pedagogical approach have reported varied findings. Florian and Black-Hawkins' (2011) study of two teachers from among eleven teachers interviewed and observed found that these teachers employed the craft knowledge of inclusive pedagogy. One of the teachers provided a play zone for a learner with cerebral palsy where the learner engaged in self-directed learning activities. After assessment, the talking ability of the learner improved without pressure. The other teacher provided work choices for learners and shared ideas with colleagues on how to differentiate learning tasks in order to accommodate learners' specific needs. In Queensland, Australia, case studies of two independent schools that used a Planning for All (PAL) innovative programme, which is a design that integrates UDL and assistive technology, established that students with learning difficulties experienced academic progress when PAL was incorporated into units of work and lessons (Van Kraayenoord, Waterworth, & Brady, 2014). However, Mtika and Gates' (2010) qualitative study of four Malawian student teachers established that most of these teachers experienced challenges in employing child-centred pedagogy due to large class sizes, and most learners were unwilling to participate in either role play or group activity. South African literature established that inclusive pedagogy is understood as utilising special education needs' strategies in regular education classrooms (Makoelle, 2012). Bhatnagar and Das (2014) found that regular education classrooms in India lack teachers who are trained in inclusive practices pedagogy. This study examined the professional preparation of primary school teachers in Nigeria in inclusive pedagogy as the context for proposing strategies and a model to enhance their professional preparation.

3.6.6 Classroom management

In this dispensation of increased accountability, teachers need to be effective, not only in content knowledge but also in classroom management (Polirstok, 2015). Classroom management encompasses physical organisation, class routine, gaining and maintaining attention among learners, respect, order and cooperation (O'Neill & Stephenson, 2011). Discipline plays a major role in classroom management (Soydan, Pirpir, Samur, & Angin, 2018). It has been identified that defiant behaviour raises impossible learning environments, reduces time for instruction and influences peers negatively (Pas, Cash, O'Brennan, Debnam, & Bradshaw, 2015), and consequently,

impacts negatively on learning. However, Allen (2010) argues that discipline and managing learner behaviour is a narrow view of classroom management and harsh and punitive discipline is likely to raise indiscipline among learners. Polirstok (2015) adds that the over-use of punishment does not teach expected behaviour, but stimulates resentment on the part of learners.

A survey of 180 teachers from public and private pre-schools in Turkey found that 81% of the teachers need to be supported in class management competence and 55% need to be supported in the understanding of discipline, as their understanding of discipline is based on a strict, obedience-based approach at a high level (Soydan et al., 2018). This current study examined the professional preparation of primary school teachers in Nigeria in inclusive classroom management as it is an international challenge as the context for proposing strategies and a model to enhance their professional preparation.
The next section discusses teachers' perceived concerns regarding the implementation of inclusive education.

3.7 Teachers' concerns regarding the implementation of inclusive education

Teachers are central in the implementation of education policies, including the policy of inclusive education. For this reason, their concern towards innovation and change needs to be identified and addressed (Shah, Das, Desai, & Tiwari, 2013). A range of concerns that teachers have regarding inclusive education include the lack of support, large class sizes, stress and anxiety, and the lack of appropriate teaching materials (Chhabra et al., 2010; De Boer et al., 2011). Shah and Inamullah (2012) established that overcrowded classrooms have the potential to distract from the learning environment, increase learner behaviour problems, cause conflict, promote diseases, create the inability to give learners one-on-one assistance and produce poor academic performance. Similarly, Khan, and Iqbal (2012) found that overcrowded classrooms contribute to discipline problems and ineffective teaching and learning. A qualitative interview of 13 teachers selected from seven primary schools in the Limpopo province, South Africa, established that overcrowded classrooms were due to a lack of infrastructure, natural disasters that damaged school buildings or where one school served a big community (Matshipi, Mulaudzi, & Mashau, 2017).

Common concerns of teachers about inclusive education include the lack of evolvement from parents and other stakeholders (Daniyan, 2015). The lack of professionally prepared teachers to manage child diversity in an inclusive setting has been identified as an international teacher concern about inclusive education (Forlin & Chambers, 2011). Teachers' knowledge plays a vital role in influencing the concerns and attitudes towards inclusive education (Forlin, Loreman, & Sharma, 2014). Chhabra et al.'s (2010) survey of junior and senior secondary school teachers in Botswana found that teachers were concerned about their ability to cater for learners with disabilities and they exhibited anger, frustration and non-favourable attitudes towards inclusive education. A survey conducted on 67 pre-service teachers from an Australian university revealed that teachers were concerned about an increased workload and a lack of skills and knowledge to afford appropriate attention to all learners in inclusive settings (Forlin & Chambers, 2011).

Bhatnagar and Das's (2013) survey of 470 regular teachers in Delhi, India, found that they were concerned about the workload arising from the inclusion of all learners and most of them felt that they lacked training in special education. Another survey of 560 teachers working in inclusive primary schools in Ahmedabad, India, established that teachers were more concerned about the lack of infrastructural resources and were less concerned about the lack of social acceptance of learners with disabilities in the regular classrooms (Shah et al., 2013). In the USA, Cook and Cameron's (2010) survey of regular teachers found that teachers were more concerned about working with learners with learning disabilities, attention deficit disorder and behavioural problems than learners without disabilities. Forlin et al. (2014) conducted a survey to investigate changes in attitude, teaching efficacy and concern towards inclusive education on 2 361 Hong Kong teachers, who underwent a professional course, and established that teachers' attitudes, teaching efficacy and concern changed significantly after the programme. This current study explored the professional preparation of primary school teachers in Nigeria to manage children with diverse disabilities as the context for proposing strategies and a model to enhance their professional preparation.

Teacher attitude towards inclusive education is vital (Beacham & Rouse, 2012; Bhatnagar & Das, 2014). Ryan and Gottfried (2012) posit that when conflicting attitudes, values and beliefs are present in a group over an issue, such as inclusive education, the entire group can break down. Consequently, positive support is important for the success of a programme, such as inclusive education. Since it has been acknowledged that teachers are an essential instrument that makes inclusive educational goals a reality (Folin, 2010; Jerlinder, Danermark, & Gill, 2010), their beliefs, assumptions and attitudes inform teaching practices, decisions and actions (Landsberg et al., 2011). Teachers' beliefs shape their pedagogical practices. Attitude, in this context, refers to mental construct, indicating how individuals evaluate people, activities, places or items positively or antagonistically (Scior & Werner, 2015). Attitude comprises cognitive, emotional and behavioural components signifying the feelings, actions and thoughts (Scior & Werner, 2015) that persons display toward others. Thus, a teacher's tolerant attitude towards all children, including those with unique diverse needs, has a profound influence on children's learning. This current study explored the attitudes of primary school teachers in Nigeria towards inclusive education as the context for proposing strategies and a model to enhance their professional preparation.

A negative attitude in teachers hampers the reality of inclusive educational goals (Beacham & Rouse, 2012). Negative attitude hinders the holistic development of all children, including children with disabilities. Saloviita and Schaffus (2016), in their survey of Finnish and German teachers, revealed that 90% of German teachers agreed that the placement of children with SEN in regular classrooms created more workload but felt that children with SEN had the right to be taught in special settings. Similarly, a qualitative study of high school teachers in the Bahamas found that some teachers were against implementing inclusive education because they felt it very tedious and time-consuming (Cambridge-Johnson, Hunter-Johnson & Newton, 2014). Leung and Mak (2010) established that 14.6% of the respondents in their study believed that none of the learners with SEN were capable of studying in regular schools. In Chile, Fletcher et al. (2010), in their focus group interviews, found that participants doubted how inclusive education benefitted children with SEN.

A mixed method study of regular education teachers from three primary schools in Korea revealed that 75.85% of teachers believed that learners with disabilities are better taught in special settings, claiming that these learners may be frustrated and not succeed in regular classrooms; likewise, 41.37% of the teachers felt that specialised services may not be available for learners with disabilities in regular classrooms (Hwang & Evans, 2011). Galović, Brojčin and Glumbić (2014) argue that teachers who perceive disability as pathologic will seldom attend to the needs of learners with disabilities, thinking it is the duty of specialists. Bhatnagar and Das (2014) found that teachers with negative attitudes towards children with disabilities tend to use unproductive pedagogical strategies. The negative attitudes displayed by teachers in the above-cited studies are not consistent with the objective component of CHAT that informed the present study. The present study explored the beliefs of primary school teachers in Nigeria on inclusive education with reference to their professional preparation for it as the context for proposing strategies and a model to enhance their professional preparation.

In contrast, a growing body of studies have identified the impact of teachers' positive attitudes towards inclusive education (Ahmed, Sharma, & Deppeler, 2012; Das, Kuyini & Desai, 2013; Saloviita & Schaffus, 2016). According to Van der Veen, Smeets, and Derriks (2010), teachers' positive attitudes enhance learners' academic performance. A survey of 221 Swedish primary school teachers revealed that they had positive attitudes towards the inclusion of learners with physical disabilities in their PE classes and they rejected the claim that planning inclusive teaching for learners with physical disabilities is stressful and that teachers do not have adequate time for other learners in class (Jerlinder et al., 2010). This current study investigated the influence of the professional preparation of Nigerian primary school teachers and their attitudes towards inclusive education as the context for proposing strategies and a model to enhance their professional preparation.

The subsequent section discusses teacher education for inclusive education in general.

3.7.1 Teacher education for inclusive education in general

Teacher education can be viewed as the content, processes, policies and environments that equip teachers with the appropriate knowledge, attitudes and skills to effectively execute their duties in school (New World Encyclopaedia, 2010). It is a means of developing competent teachers who prepare learners for the 21st century's global society (UNESCO, 2014). Since the 21st century classrooms comprise heterogeneous learners with diverse needs, the development of an inclusive teaching force is imperative (UN, 2015). Teachers need to be professionally qualified, empowered, and supported within well-resourced, functional and effective systems to realise inclusive education (World Education Forum, 2015). This is fundamental because regular classrooms are becoming more diverse as people are moving from continent to continent and from one country to another in search of financial, social and emotional security because of the global economic meltdown and political instability.

Teachers need to be professionally prepared in order to handle the major new challenges they face (McLeskey et al., 2017) in the present day classrooms. No education objective should be considered met unless it is met by all (World Education Forum, 2015). All children are expected to benefit equally from educational opportunities regardless of their individuality. Thus, teacher education institutions are globally obliged to develop teachers who are skilful and competent in managing the diversity of learners in regular classrooms. UNESCO (1994) posits that appropriate teacher professional preparation is crucial in promoting the development of an inclusive education system. This current study investigates and examines the professional preparation of primary school teachers in Nigeria to meet learner diversity in regular classrooms as the context for proposing strategies and a model to enhance their professional preparation.

However, how best to prepare teachers to work in inclusive settings is an international challenge (Pantic, 2015). Researchers have not yet explored the professional preparation of teachers for inclusive education adequately (Zagona, Kurth, & MacFarland, 2017). Most researchers have focused on teachers' attitudes (Galović, Brojčin, & Glumbić, 2014; Saloviita & Schaffus, 2016), concerns (Bhatnagar & Das,

2014; Kuyini & Mangope, 2011), beliefs (Jordan, Glenn, & McGhie-Richmond, 2010; Sharma, 2012), and the types of teacher education programmes being used (Prakash, 2015). However, not much has been done regarding the content of teacher professional preparation programmes and what student teachers acquire in terms of inclusive practices in service delivery (Florian et al., 2010). Legislation and practice often do not take into account how teachers can ensure that all children achieve academically (Florian, 2010). According to Forlin (2012), teacher education programmes for inclusion in most countries are either absent or employing token effort to adequately professionally prepare teachers. This present study examined the adequacy of the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria as the context for proposing strategies and a model to enhance their professional preparation.

The professional preparation of teachers for inclusive classrooms is inevitable, because the core emphasis of the global education agenda is based on the inclusive principle (EADSNE, 2015). The shift in paradigm from special education to inclusive education requires teacher education institutions to reconsider their professional preparation programmes (EADSNE, 2015), to ensure that pre-service teachers acquire relevant competency for the inclusivity of learners with diverse unique needs in regular education settings. This requires reconsidering and reforming teacher education programmes embedded in principles of inclusive teaching and learning (Donnelly & Watkins, 2011). Consequently, teacher education institutions worldwide are altering their programmes to align with the paradigm shift (Donaldson, 2011; Hemmings & Woodcock, 2011). Nevertheless, Rouse (2010) opines that few teacher education institutions have reformed their training programmes and inculcated universal design principles to ensure that inclusive education is an essential element that is addressed throughout the programme. In Australia, all universities are required to include content on inclusive and special needs education in their teacher professional preparation courses (Pinnock & Nicholls, 2012). The teaching of inclusive education in initial teacher training will facilitate its advancement in schools (EADSNE, 2010). In Ghana, the teacher education programme integrates SEN into its curriculum to enhance pre-service teachers' knowledge and skills on inclusive education, and all colleges of education in the country offer a two-credit special education/inclusive education module to second year pre-service teachers (Nketsia & Saloviita, 2013). In

Zambia, Enabling Education Network (EENET) develops inclusive teachers (Lewis & Bagree, 2013). Nevertheless, there is rising concern about whether teacher education is adequately professionally preparing pre-service teachers for inclusive education (Lancaster & Bain, 2007). There are no teacher education programmes for inclusive education in 13 districts of the Asia-Pacific region (Sharma et al., 2012). Consequently, there are no skilled teachers to implement inclusive education in these districts. Thus, the present study explored the state of the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria as the context for proposing strategies and a model to enhance their professional preparation.

The next sub-sections discuss issues confronted by teacher education globally.

3.7.2 Teacher quality

Quality teaching cannot be compromised if inclusive ideologies of equitable and credible education for all children are to become realistic. The impact of teacher quality on learning supersedes other educational investments (Hemmings & Woodcock, 2011). Quality teaching is vital to children's learning, and quality teacher education is vital in producing a quality teaching workforce (AITSL, 2013). Thus, several countries are investing in teacher education for inclusive education to improve the teachers' quality of service delivery. For instance, the Varkey Foundation in Ghana trained about 5 000 teachers for over two years with interactive distance learners (Santiago, 2017), to facilitate the goals of education for all. This study examined the progress of professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria as the context for proposing strategies and a model to enhance their professional preparation.

The trend of improving teacher quality is a global issue. In Scotland, the Inclusive Pedagogy Project (IPP) is funded to develop competent teachers who can ensure accessible educational opportunities for all children in regular classrooms (Rouse & Florian, 2012). The initiative is grounded in safeguarding the participation of all children in regular classroom life rather than providing something different or additional for those experiencing barriers to learning (Florian & Linklater, 2010). In Chile, teacher education requires a higher qualification to enrol and strict conditions to qualify (Avalos

& Valenzuela, 2016), in order to produce more competent teachers. Similarly, the mode of entry into the teaching workforce in Finland requires a Master's degree with evidence of a research-based thesis (Masters, 2013), which enables the country to churn out highly qualified teachers to work in regular classrooms with learners with diverse unique needs. Teacher education in Finland is designed to provide a wide variety of skills and knowledge to teachers which they can apply in different pedagogical settings (Sahlberg, 2015).

In Canada, a model that provides teachers with key instruction on literacy and numeracy was developed which promoted the improved academic achievement of learners (Asia Society, 2010). Other countries, such as the Netherlands (Darling-Hammond, 2010), Singapore (Nonis & Jernice, 2011), Hong Kong (Forlin, Loreman, & Sharma, 2014), and New Zealand (Bourke & Loveridge, 2013), have effective inclusive educational systems owing to investments made in teacher education programmes. Darling-Hammond (2010) argues that countries where learners are reaching enormous achievements can attribute the success to their investment in teacher professional preparation. Teacher quality determines the quality of an education system. This current study explored the quality of professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria as the context for proposing strategies and a model to enhance their professional preparation.

Despite the achievements reported above regarding teacher education, unqualified and inadequately trained teachers remain a daunting constraint to inclusive education development internationally (Kahn & Lewis, 2014; Vitelli, 2015). Some teacher education programmes provide little in terms of inclusive education and some even fail to address the major areas of inclusive education (Hemmings & Woodcock, 2011). This affects both developed and developing countries alike. In Kenya, the government focuses on professional development programmes to improve teaching and learning quality in schools and classrooms (Save the Children, 2012). However, the quality of teaching in Kenyan education is poor (Ong'ondo & Borg, 2011). Runo, Kargu, and Mugo's (2010) mixed method study of selected primary school teachers in the cities of Nairobi and Nyeri in Kenya established that these teachers did not use proper methods to assess their learners' reading and virtually half of them lacked the appropriate methods to teach reading.

In Botswana (Otukile-Mongwaketse, 2011), Swaziland (Maseko & Sisana, 2014), and Hong Kong (Leung & Mak, 2010), the lack of adequate training of teachers interferes with the quality of their inclusive education practices. In India, Das et al. (2013) found that 70% of the regular primary and secondary school teachers in Delhi lack training on special education to teach learners with disabilities in inclusive classrooms. EFA's (EFA Global Monitoring Report, 2010) study of eight Anglophone African countries established that pre-service teachers are trained in the language of instruction that does not conform to the needs of learners, out-dated curriculums are used in teachers' training colleges, teacher training is more theoretical than practical, teacher educators lack elementary/primary school knowledge and there is a truncated mode of entry into teachers' training colleges (EFA Global Monitoring Report, 2010). Rahaman and Sutherland's (2012) qualitative study of 20 teacher educators in Bangladesh found that although they exhibited positive attitudes towards inclusive education, they were incompetent to implement it. Furthermore, they related a case of one participant who was not qualified to train pre-service teachers as he had obtained Honours and Master's degrees in Geography without orientation in education. However, he was employed by the government to teach at a teacher's training college. Ahmed, Ali, and Khan (2005) reveal that Bangladesh's current strategy of recruitment and deployment does not permit anyone to acquire professional skills and work in their area of specialty. Allowing non-qualified educators to professionally prepare prospective teachers for inclusivity will jeopardize the education system.

Similarly, in developed countries, such as Portugal, regular teachers are overall not competent to teach children with disabilities (Sanches-Ferreira et al., 2010). In the USA, Imig (2012) found that learners are not prepared for future challenges and they have gaps in academic performance because of the impoverished quality of the professional preparation of their teachers. In the same vein, in Australia, teachers lack an understanding of learner assessment data and how to use it to improve their instructional practice (Santiago et al., 2011). The current study investigated the quality of the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria as the context for proposing strategies and a model to enhance their professional preparation.

3.7.3 Teacher demand and supply

Internationally, the demand for teachers is increasing (Weldon, 2015). This can be attributed to a number of factors, including the inclusive policy that mandates the right to education for every child (Florian, 2012). The inclusive policy introduces free, compulsory education for children (Miles & Singal, 2010). As a result of this, schools have been witnessing an influx of children from all dimensions, thus creating variations in the teacher-pupil ratio. Discrepancy in teacher demand and supply also interferes with the global education system (Education for All Global Monitoring Report [EFA/GMR], 2015).

The shortage of teachers is a worldwide concern, and the most affected are the countries of Southern Asia and sub-Saharan Africa (Florian, 2010). In sub-Saharan Africa, it is estimated that 17 million teachers are needed to close the gap between teachers' demand and supply (Coughlan, 2016). However, deploying competent teachers seems to be a general problem owing to the low status of the teaching career (Luschei & Chudgar, 2017), coupled with teacher burnout which is a factor that often predicts attrition in the teaching profession (Aloe, Amo, & Shanahan, 2013). The present study explored the competency of Nigerian primary school teachers in inclusive education as the context for proposing strategies and a model to enhance their professional preparation.

In most low income countries, including Bangladesh (Malak, 2013), Kenya (Awuor, 2013), Ghana (Agbenyega & Deku, 2011) and Cambodia (Kim & Rouse, 2011), the teaching profession is not fascinating, owing to uncompetitive salaries, teaching workloads, and the low status of the profession. In Chile, teachers abandon teaching due to poor working conditions and inadequate and poor school management (Avalos & Valenzuela, 2016). About 69 million new teachers are needed in order to realise the pledge of EFA (Coughlan, 2016). Although an ample pool of teachers can offer opportunities to attain the global mandate on education, it is teachers' proficiency that will enable achieving the goals of Education for All (UNESCO, 2005).

Many countries have reported a scarcity of trained teachers (EFA/GMR, 2015) who can manage child diversity. For instance, in Ghana, the percentage of trained teachers

dropped from 72% in 1999 to 53% in 2013. Similarly, the percentage of trained teachers in Benin and Senegal fell below 50% in 2012 and Guinea-Bissau recorded only 39% of trained primary school teachers in 2012 (EFA/GMR, 2015). Countries like Burundi, Kenya, the Central Africa Republic, Mozambique and Malawi have the highest rate of teacher shortages (Coughlan, 2016). Similarly, India experiences a lack of qualified teachers (Bhatnagar & Das, 2013). This study examines the adequacy of the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria as the context for proposing strategies and a model to enhance their professional preparation.

The unavailability of trained teachers impedes the realisation of an inclusive schooling system. Since the global adoption of inclusive education, many countries have reported increases in the ratio of learners to teachers. Malawi recorded an average of one teacher to 60 learners (Ravishankar, El-Kogali, Sankar, Tanaka, & Rakoto-Tiana, 2016). Some early grade primary schools in Malawi have more than 100 children in classes (Santiago, 2017). Similarly, some schools in Tanzania have a ratio of one teacher to 100 learners although the average requirement ratio is 1:48 (MoEVT, 2010). The ratio of elementary learners to a teacher in Kenya is about 65:1 (Awuor, 2013). The developed nations are not immune to the shortage of teachers. In Australia (Weldon, 2015), and the USA (Colorado Department of Higher Education & Colorado Department of Education [CDHE & CDE], 2016), the proportion of teachers is falling steadily. Countries such as Sweden, German and New Zealand are beginning to experience an ageing teaching workforce (Santiago, 2017). Enrolment into teacher preparation programmes remains at low levels in these countries (CDHE & CDE, 2016). The ageing teaching workforce, without new teachers coming into the profession, will raise the demand for teachers. For example, the teacher preparation programme in Colorado State in the USA recorded a decline rate of 24.4% in the number of pre-service teachers who completed their teacher training between the years 2010 to 2016 (CDHE & CDE, 2016). The Australian initial teacher preparation programme reported the same trend. A 23% dropout rate was recorded among the number of pre-service teachers after their first year in the programme (AITSL, 2014). This study examined the state of the professional preparation of teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria as the context for proposing strategies and a model to enhance their professional preparation.

In addition, retention and turnover rates of teachers could result in teacher shortages. Wells' (2015) quantitative study of 65 Head Start teachers who were newly hired in 10 Head Start centres in Midwest USA found that only 52 teachers continued during the first half of the school year. The schools recorded a 36% turnover rate. Avalos and Valenzuela's (2016) study on Chilean teachers established that 1 out of 3 teachers with 10 years' teaching experience was no longer in service. Converse to the above reports, Scotland has a fascinating model of regulating teacher proportions. The Scottish induction scheme was acclaimed top-class in the OECD review of Scotland (OECD, 2015). The Scottish Government plans its teacher workforce annually by consulting with the General Teaching Council for Scotland (GTCS) representative, the local authorities, teacher unions and universities to work out the number of teachers that are needed. Pre-service teachers are enrolled into initial teacher training based on the number of schools and the size of classes to fill the gap between supply and demand (Donaldson, 2011). This study examined the essence of primary school teachers' professional preparation for inclusive education in Nigeria as the context for proposing strategies and a model to enhance their professional preparation.

The following section discusses strategies to enhance the professional preparation of teachers for inclusive education.

3.8 Strategies to the enhance professional preparation of teachers for inclusive education

International studies reveal various strategies to enhance teachers' professional preparation for inclusive education (Bhroin & King, 2020; Brennan, King, & Travers, 2019). Exposures to real teaching through teaching practicum/field experience solidify inclusive teaching skills in teachers (Ahsan, Deppeler, & Sharma, 2013). A survey of 60 Canadian pre-service teachers established that students, who had undergone teaching practice in inclusive schools, developed higher efficacy in classroom management than students who had no such experience (Sokal, Woloshyn, & Funk-Unrau, 2013). Malak (2013) found that the Bangladesh pre-service special education teachers who had undergone practical experience were confident to teach children with SEN; 77.8% of the participants who went through teaching practice understood

that a large class size is not a barrier to inclusive education. Nketsia and Saloviita (2013) examined 200 final year pre-service teachers in Ghana and found that 28% of the students who experienced teaching practice, felt highly prepared for inclusive teaching and only 6% of those without teaching practice felt highly unprepared. A national survey of 124 university teaching staff in the USA found that the major aspect of teacher education is to provide pre-service teachers with the opportunity to work with diverse children and that teaching practice was required in the pre-service training programme as it provided opportunities for student teachers to work together across disciplines (Harvey et al., 2010). Although the significance of teaching practice and field experience in inclusive education was established (Graham & Scott, 2016), some studies reported varied findings on teaching practice.

Mapolisa and Tshabalala (2014) examined 50 Zimbabwean pre-service primary school teachers studying toward a Diploma in Education and found that some teachers indicated they had a negative experience with their mentors and school supervisors, while others maintained that their mentors supported them. Mapolisa and Tshabalala (2014) further recommended that teacher education institutions should comprehensively and professionally prepare student teachers for what they will encounter during teaching practice. A qualitative case study of 17 pre-service teachers in Kenya found that they complained about brief and disorganised practical experiences and unsupportive supervisors. The students further revealed that they had to consider pleasing their supervisors to get higher grades rather than developing inclusive pedagogy (Ong'ondo & Borg, 2011). Similarly, a survey of 351 pre-service teachers in a Tanzanian university revealed that student teachers complained of inadequate supervision, inadequate time to practice and the lack of relationship between the theoretical knowledge that they possessed and teaching practice (Msangya, Mkoma, & Yihuan, 2016). This current study examined the professional practical grounding of teachers in implementing inclusive education in Nigeria as the context for proposing strategies and a model to enhance their professional preparation.

Other strategies identified to enhance the professional preparation of inclusive teachers include equipping them with skills in three areas: head, heart and hand (Loreman et al., 2013). According to Rouse (2010), head is the development of

knowledge, hand refers to possessing practical and technical skills, and heart refers to belief and attitudes. In other words, knowing, doing and believing (Rouse, 2008). The acquisition of these three skills is widely supported in literature. An examination of 363 regular and special education teachers working in primary and high schools in Ghana, Germany and Spain found that despite teachers showing evidence of knowledge on instructional strategies and student characteristics, all agreed they needed more training to enhance their skills of promoting inclusive education without exception in the classrooms (Mónico et al., 2018). Graham and Scott (2016) argued that knowledge and skill are mandated for teachers to handle learners in inclusive settings. Nguyet and Ha (2010) concurred and recommended that pre-service teachers should be trained in skills to understand children's needs, the abilities of children with special needs, as well as differentiation and instructional accommodation.

Despite the importance of skill and knowledge acquisition, several studies revealed that teachers lack the skills and knowledge to implement inclusive education (Galović et al., 2014: Kim & Rouse, 2011). Bhatnagar and Das (2014) found that Indian secondary school teachers lack inclusive skills and training; the participant teachers complained of the non-provision of an inclusive education policy and guidance for their teaching goals and objectives. Gary's (2013) qualitative case study of Tanzanian regular education teachers revealed that teachers lacked specialised knowledge to improve and include slow learners in their classes. Similarly, a qualitative study of 10 regular education teachers in Georgia, USA, established that participants felt helpless and frustrated because of ill-preparedness to support students with disabilities (Liggins, 2016).

A quantitative survey of 86 regular school teachers in Croatia revealed that 70% of these teachers expressed a narrow or complete lack of knowledge concerning teaching learners with special needs (Bukvic, 2014). Forlin and Chambers' (2011) survey of early childhood and primary pre-service teachers in Australia found that the respondents were concerned about their inadequate knowledge and skill base and the difficulty in providing appropriate attention to all learners in inclusive classes. In Botswana, Chhabra et al. (2010) established that regular teachers lacked sufficient knowledge to meet their learners' needs and as a result resorted to anger and

frustration. Abu-Heran, Abukhayran, Domingo, and Pérez-García (2014) examined a sample of 340 teachers in Palestine and found that despite the teachers' acceptance of the inclusion of learners with disabilities, they reported that they lacked the skills to manage these learners. The lack of training and knowledge expressed in the above studies is inconsistent with the objective and tools components of CHAT that informed the present study. The current study explored the professional preparation of Nigerian primary school teachers to address the diversity of learners in inclusive education as the context for proposing strategies and a model to enhance their professional preparation.

Teacher training institutions offer courses on special education through stand-alone/discreet, or infusion/merger programmes (Brown, Welsh, Hill, & Cipko, 2008; Kim, 2011). There is an argument concerning which programme best prepares teachers for the inclusion of children in regular education (Forlin, 2010). Brown et al, (2008) conducted a survey of the effect of embedded special education instruction into the regular course content of pre-service teachers in the USA, and they identified that embedded instruction increased teachers' knowledge of inclusion terminology and the adaptation of assessment, and also enhanced teachers' confidence in dealing with learners with disability by 60%. Also, Kim's (2011) survey of the type of teachers' professional preparation programme of 110 pre-service teachers in New York, USA, reports that pre-service teachers from combined programmes, in which regular education and special education curricula were fused, had significantly more positive attitudes towards inclusion than those from separated programmes.

Sharma, Forlin and Loreman (2008) examined the effect of completing disability education courses through stand-alone or infusion programmes on the attitudes of 603 pre-service teachers towards inclusive education at five institutions in Australia, Singapore, Hong Kong and Canada, and their study revealed that both models are effective and that it could not be ascertained which model was the best for professionally preparing teachers for inclusive education. However, Forlin (2010) argues that professionally preparing teachers for inclusion in education through stand-alone courses, outside the main curriculum, that is handled by specialists will continue to maintain the idea that inclusion in education is something which is only done by specialists and should be an addition to all other curriculum areas. He further

maintained that if the concept of inclusion in education is not infused across all aspects of teacher education, it will remain detached and teachers will continue to perceive it as something different, special and not part of usual classroom pedagogy (Forlin, 2010). This current study examined the mode of teacher professional preparation for inclusive education in Nigeria and its efficacy as the context for proposing strategies and a model to enhance their professional preparation.

3.9 Conclusion

This chapter discussed the international perspective on inclusive education (both in developed and developing countries) and how this perspective relates to the focus of the present study. It also reviewed related literature on the professional preparation of teachers for inclusive education structured around the sub-research questions of the study. Moreover, this chapter discussed current issues on teacher education for inclusive education and the status of inclusive education in countries around the world. The following chapter presents the Nigerian perspective on inclusive education.

CHAPTER 4: REVIEW OF NIGERIAN LITERATURE ON THE PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION OF TEACHERS FOR INCLUSIVE EDUCATION

4.1 Introduction

This study examined the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria as the context for proposing strategies and a model to enhance their professional preparation. In the previous chapter, international perspectives on inclusive education (both in developed and developing countries) and how these perspectives relate to the focus of the present study were discussed. This chapter presents the Nigerian perspective on inclusive education and how this perspective relates to the focus of the present study. It also presents a review of related literature on the professional preparation of teachers for inclusive education structured around the sub-headings derived from the sub-research questions of the study. The sub-headings are: teachers' understanding of inclusive education; teachers' practices in implementing inclusive education; teachers' concerns regarding the implementation of inclusive education; and strategies to enhance the professional preparation of teachers for inclusive education. The information gleaned from the literature review serves as a springboard for the exploration of the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria in this study. The research gaps that this study purports to fill will be highlighted. This commences by illuminating the reader about the Nigerian context.

4.2 Nigerian context

Nigeria is located in West Africa and shares a border with the Republic of Benin to the west, Chad and Cameroon to the east, and Niger to the north (FME, 2015). Nigeria is a multicultural and multilingual society with three major languages, including Igbo, Yoruba and Hausa, and numerous minority languages. The estimated population is around 187 million (Population Reference Bureau, 2016). The country's lingua-franca is English (Economic Intelligence Unit [EIU], 2010), and is a member of the Anglophone community. The common religions in Nigeria are Christianity, Islam and various traditional beliefs.

Compared to other sub-Sahara African countries, cultural beliefs and religion have a great influence on the educational provisions in Nigerian society (Igbokwe, Mezieobi, & Eke, 2014). For instance, the dominant religion in northern Nigeria is Islam and this is reflected in the curriculum, such as the *makarantan addini* (school for religious instruction) or *makarantan allo* (Koranic school) (Danjibo, 2009; Umar, 2006). Figure 4.1 below shows the map of Nigeria.

Figure 4.1: Map of Nigeria showing the cities and the border countries

Source: https://i.pinimg.com/736x/bd/2a/0b/bd2a0b8d2366e53028779d42e13e9d90--map-of-nigeria-maps.jpg

The Islamic curriculum embedded in the education system of northern Nigeria has resulted in education inequity (Ige, 2014). In the Nigerian context, girls and women are at risk of education injustice. This is because some Muslim fundamentalists are against the education of women and girl-children (Danjibo, 2009). Current evidence of

this is the activity of Boko-Haram's (Boko refers to book, Haram meaning unlawful) insurgency that revolts against western style education (Manfredi, 2014). The Boko-Haram group believes that western education contradicts Islamic beliefs and teachings (Agbiboa, 2013). It is of the opinion that western education encourages women and girls to act against the core principles of Islam. However, this contradicts the amended Section 42 of the Nigerian Constitution which stipulates that no Nigerian citizen should be discriminated against based on gender, ethnicity, religion or place of origin (Constitution of Nigeria, 2011). Similarly, Articles 2 and 26 of the Universal Declaration on Human Rights (UN, 1948) reject gender discrimination. Figure 4.2 below shows pictures of secondary school girls in Chibok, Nigeria, abducted by the Boko-Haram insurgency in April 2014.

Figure 4.2: Secondary school girls in Chibok, Nigeria abducted by the Boko-Haram insurgency

Source: https://ask.naij.com/culture/what-are-social-problems-in-nigeria.com

Similarly, discrimination in education extends towards children with disabilities. Nevertheless, Nigeria ratified the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (UN, 2006), including Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), with Goal 4 specifying the provision of equal, quality, functional and effective basic education for all school-age children, including children with disabilities by 2030 (World Education Forum, 2015). Children with disabilities are still placed at societal margins, due to shame, fear, superstition and a lack of knowledge about human exceptionality (Adera & Asimeng-Boahene, 2011; Garuba, 2003). According to Ojo (2016), children with disabilities constitute 30% of the 10 million children estimated to be out of school in Nigeria. Smith's (2011) survey of 1 093 people with disabilities selected from two states in Nigeria revealed that 49.8% of the respondents had no form of education. Nigeria is among the top 10 countries in the world that has the highest rate of children out of school (UNICEF, 2016). Drawing from CHAT, activity is the collaboration of efforts by community members, irrespective of status, gender or ability. The exclusion of children from education, based on their disability or gender, is a violation of their right to gender equity and is not consistent with the community component of the CHAT that informed the current study. The subsequent section explores the socio-economic setting in Nigeria.

4.3 Social and economic situation in Nigeria

Nigeria is the 12th largest petroleum producer in the world and has the largest economy in Africa and the West African sub-region in terms of GDP and its oil reserve (World Bank, 2013). The country's Human Development Index (HDI) rose from 0.438 in 1990 to 0.511 in 2007 (United Nations Development Program [UNDP], 2008). Nevertheless, Nigeria's economic growth has no impact on human development progress (Accelerating Progress to 2015 Nigeria, 2013). Thus, social ills and economic problems remain daunting concerns in the Nigerian society.

Over the past three decades, Nigeria has witnessed political instability, corruption, oil price volatilities, religious violence and civil conflict, such as the Niger Delta Crisis and the Biafran crisis (Ojo, Aworawo, & Ifedayo, 2014; Tolulope, 2012). These problems endangered national growth and development, particularly economic and social development. Most communities in Nigeria lack adequate infrastructure and amenities

such as health, housing, electricity supply, good roads and quality education (Iman, 2012), resulting in gross inequality in the provision of basic services. The World Bank reveals that Nigeria reduced its poverty rate by 33.1% in 2012/2013 (World Bank, 2013), although the prevalence of poverty is still obvious. Millions of Nigerians still experience poverty, disease and illiteracy (Nigeria Millennium Development Goals, 2015). The greatest impact of these social ills are rampant in the rural areas (Nigeria Millennium Development Goals, 2015), where infrastructure and amenities are dilapidated, limited or totally absent. Figure 4.3 below shows the gross inequality between Nigerian rural (left) and urban (right) public schools as reflected in the physical infrastructure, furniture, clothing and population of the learners.

Figure 4.3: Inequality in Nigerian rural and urban public schools

Source: http://www.informationng.com/2017/04/nigerians-advises-fg-sacking-unregistered-teachers.html

The absence of a sustainable social and economic support system in Nigeria contributes largely to the inequality in the provision of basic services, including education. Inadequate school infrastructures, teaching tools and qualified teachers interfere with access, participation, achievement and the quality of schooling (Accelerating Progress to 2015 Nigeria, 2013). In spite of the free and compulsory basic education endorsed by the Nigerian Government (FME, 2015), parents/guardians still have to bear the cost of other requirements. Eskay and Oboegbulem (2013) reveal that most parents cannot afford to buy uniforms and other

necessities for their school children due to the socio-economic problems confronting the country.

Consistent with the international fraternity, inclusive education is a fundamental legal right of all children, regardless of their individual differences and circumstances in Nigeria. Nigeria has ratified several international human rights instruments and passed national policies and legislation that enshrine the right of all children to quality, equality, access, achievement and participation in education (Ajuwon, 2011; Iman, 2012). However, most children experience educational exclusion because legal requirements are not always complied with (Eskay & Oboegbulem, 2013), thus eliminating the chances of these children to realise their academic dreams. Girl-children, children living in poverty, nomads, pastoral and farmers' children (FME, 2008; UNESCO, 2009), as well as children with disabilities and the Almajiris (Wike, 2013), are vulnerable to educational exclusion in Nigeria. Almajiris are children who aid or assist blind beggars or women beggars in soliciting for alms. Reports show that the Almajiris children constitute large numbers of children not attending school in Nigeria (Wike, 2013). Figure 4.4 below shows images of Almajiris with their parents begging for alms.

Figure 4.4: Almajiris children with their parents begging for alms

Source: https://ask.naij.com/culture/what-are-social-problems-in-nigeria.com

The next section discusses the educational system and policies in Nigeria.

4.4 Educational system and policies in Nigeria

Similar to several African countries that underwent colonial sovereignty, Nigeria had gone through several educational changes dating back from the time of colonial rule. The first education policy in the country was the Nigeria Educational Ordinance of 1948 (Fafunwa, 2004) that was passed by the British regime. This was followed by the Macpherson Constitution of 1951 (FME, 2015) that resulted in the passage of different regional laws, including the Western Region Education Law of 1955, the Eastern Region Education Law of 1956, and the Northern Regions and the Lagos Education Ordinance of 1957 (Iman, 2012). Nigeria passed its first indigenous education policy in 1977 (FRN, 1977) after attaining political independence from the United Kingdom in 1960. The 1977 National Policy of Education (NPE) was founded on the provision of education that is contextually relevant to Nigeria and the promotion of unity, laying the foundation for national integration (Iman, 2012), and thus served as a departure from the colonial regime’s education. The objective of the NPE is to safeguard the provision of quality education and to provide a uniform standard of education throughout the country to promote growth and development in the country (FME, 1999). The formulation and amendment of the educational policy is the dual responsibility of both the federal and state government, as highlighted in the constitution of the country (Omede, 2016). Thus, a top-down approach is used in the passing and amendment of educational policies in Nigeria and teachers are mere recipients of these policies. According to Ololube, Egbezor and Kpolovie (2008), the federal government is responsible for tertiary education in Nigeria, while the state government is responsible for secondary and primary education (Ololube et al., 2008). The federal government coordinates all formal and non-formal education programmes and ensures uniform standards and quality control nationwide, liaising with national, non-governmental organisations and corporate bodies to ensure the realisation of mass literacy, the development of the curriculum and didactic materials, the training of manpower for State Agencies and the provision of a nationally recognised basic education certificate (FME, 2014).

The state implements and manages the national policy on mass literacy including adult and non-formal education programmes. The state plans, researches, organises, develops, monitors and ensures quality control, sets up and supervises the activities of literacy network committees, liaises with non-governmental organisations for the implementation of the mass education programmes, trains grassroots personnel and provides support services for adult and non-formal education, including curriculum development, mobile and rural libraries, television viewing and audio-listening centres and studio-visual teaching and learning aids at the state level (FME, 2014).

Nigeria practises a 6-3-3-4 educational system; the 6 and first 3 translate into 9 years of basic education which include 6 years of Primary School education and 3 years of Junior Secondary School education; the 3 and 4 represent 3 years of Senior Secondary School education and 4 years of higher/tertiary education (FME, 2015; National Policy Brief, Nigeria, 2005). Pre-primary education (early childhood) was recently introduced by the government. The early childhood pre-primary education is offered to children between 3-5 years before they enter primary school (FME, 2015). Primary education is for children between 6-12 years for a duration of six years which is compulsory and free under the country's Universal Basic Education (UBE) law (Iman, 2012). Junior Secondary School education is also free and compulsory and consists of both pre-vocational and academic education for the duration of three years (National Policy Brief, Nigeria, 2005). Senior School Secondary education is for the duration of three years and is aimed at widening learners' knowledge and viewpoints for future academic pursuit. Tertiary education is provided after Secondary School education in universities, colleges of education and polytechnical colleges (National Policy Brief, Nigeria, 2005). Table 4.1 below presents the sub-sectors of the Nigerian educational system.

Table 4.1: Sub-sectors of the Nigerian educational system

Sub-sector	Institutions
Basic Education	- Early Childhood Care and Education - Primary Education - Junior Secondary Education - Adult Education - Non-Formal Education
Post-Basic Education	- Senior Secondary Education - Technical Colleges - Vocational Enterprise Institutions (VEIs)
Tertiary Education	- Polytechnics, Monotechnics and Universities - Colleges of Education - Innovation Enterprise Institutions (IEIs)

Source: Roadmap for the Nigerian Education Sector, March 2009.

The subsequent section discusses teacher education in Nigeria.

4.4.1 Teacher education in Nigeria

Teacher education in Nigeria was introduced by the early Christian missionaries, including the Roman Catholic Church, the Church of Scotland, the Church Missionary Society and the Wesley Methodists, who focused mainly on preparing primary school teachers (Durosaro, 2006; Ejima, 2012; Shoja, 2012) before Nigeria's attainment of political independence in 1960. The first teacher's college was established by the Christian Missionary Society in Abeokuta around 1859 (Cherechi, 2018). However, Abbas and Abdulwahab (2017) reveal that missionary teacher education was criticised due to its focus on religious tenets rather than teacher professionalism. The Nigerian Government took charge of teacher education with the introduction of the National Policy of Education in 1977. The adoption of the National Policy on Teacher Education in 1981 and its amendment in 1989 (FRN, 1981, 1998) was aimed at the enhancement of the quality of teacher education in the country. The government recognised that no educational system can rise above the quality of its teachers (FME, 2004). In an endeavour to improve teacher quality, Section 8 (b) of the National Policy on Education (FME, 2004) mandates the professional preparation of Nigerian teachers. The objective of teacher education is to produce teachers who are highly motivated,

intellectually qualified, efficient and committed to their profession (FRN, 2013). Nigerian teacher education comprises pre-service and in-service training (Durosaro, 2006). Pre-service training prepares prospective teachers while in-service training develops the knowledge and skills of the current teachers in terms of continuous professional development (Abbas & Abdulwahab, 2017; Nakpodia & Urien, 2011). Teacher qualifications standards, according to the National Commission for Colleges of Education (NCCE) in Nigeria, are the curriculum and practicum of initial teacher training programmes at certificate (NCE), degree (B.A. & B.Sc., B.Ed.) or postgraduate diploma (PGDE) level. The National Certificate in Education (NCE) is the minimum requirement or qualification to teach in a Nigerian primary school (National Policy Brief, Nigeria, 2005). The previous minimum requirement was a Teacher Grade Two certificate, which was phased out in 1998.

The Nigerian Government aims to improve teacher status, increase the teaching force and provide ongoing training to motivate teachers (FME, 2008). The National Teacher Education Policy states that “In recognition of the pivotal role of quality teachers in the provision of quality education at all levels, teacher education shall continue to be emphasised in all educational planning and development” (FME, 2007:1). Against this backdrop, various higher education institutions, such as teacher training colleges, departments of education in universities, and polytechnical colleges for teacher education, were established to enhance teacher quality and quantity (Obiakor & Offor, 2011; Ololube et al., 2008). Similarly, the National Commission for Colleges of Education (NCCE) was established to regulate colleges of education by accrediting courses and to ensure that the minimum requirements are adhered to (Abbas & Abdulwahab, 2017). In the same vein, the Teacher Registration Council of Nigeria (TRCN) was introduced to regulate the teaching practice and profession and to register qualified teachers (Teachers Registration Council of Nigeria [TRCN], 2007). Thus, teacher education institutions in Nigeria provide standard training to teachers across the country. The next section discusses the development of inclusive education in Nigeria.

4.5 The development of inclusive education in Nigeria

Consistent with the international world, historically the attitude towards people with disabilities in Nigeria was not favourable (Eskay & Oboegbulem, 2013), owing to negative beliefs and superstitions. Pre-historically, Nigerian society viewed persons with disabilities as unfit to co-exist among people and unable to struggle for survival (Eskay, 2009). Any forms of disability were considered a curse resulting from sins committed or witchcraft practices (Eskay, 2009). Consequently, persons with disabilities were isolated, maimed or massacred. In Nigerian society, religion and cultural beliefs had a great influence on how people interacted, valued and treated persons with disabilities (Etieyibo & Omiegbe, 2016). For instance, in the Yoruba community of South-West Nigeria, men with physical disabilities were not allowed to be chiefs (Ojebiyi, Akanbi, & Lawal, 2016). Similarly, the Ibo people of Eastern Nigeria felt it was taboo for individuals with hearing impairment to be an Igwe (king) (Ewa, 2016). Societal treatment of people with disabilities differs, depending on the type of disability and community perceptions align with the multi-voiced-ness principle of the CHAT that informed the present study. In some communities in Nigeria, individuals with angular kyphosis and mental illness were killed for rituals because they were seen as being taboos (Etieyibo & Omiegbe, 2016). Likewise, albinos were killed for rituals because some communities believed that albinism earned fortune and prolonged life (El-Kurebe, 2010; Oji, 2010). In Northern Nigeria, children with disabilities were used for alms begging (Purefoy, 2010). The perpetrators of children beggars justified their actions with certain Koranic verses and Islamic Almajiri practice (Etieyibo & Omiegbe, 2016). Nevertheless, the acts violated the dignity and self-esteem of children with disabilities as enshrined in Article 1 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UN, 1948).

In Nigeria, consistent with the international fraternity, children with disabilities were excluded from education. Afolabi, Mukhopadhyay, and Nenty (2013) reveal that the stigmatisation placed on children with disabilities affected their education. As indicated in Section 1.2, special education was offered to children with disabilities in Nigeria, however, this required the segregation of these children in either isolated schools or self-contained units in regular schools (Nkechi, 2013). Fakolade et al. (2009) posit that children with disabilities were called special needs children who were unable to adapt

in regular classes like their typically developing peers. Consequently, they required different or special education provisions. Similar to most developing countries, education provision for children with disabilities was not prioritised by the Nigeria Government at the initial stage (Chitiyo & Chitiyo, 2007). These children were educated by the early missionaries or charity organisations (Agunloye, Pollingue, Davou & Osagie, 2011; Oluremi, 2015). For example, the Sudan United Mission established the School for the Blind in Faliya, Bauchi State in 1935. Similarly, the Society for the deaf established the Wesley School in 1956 and a catholic priest established the Pacelli School for the Blind in1962 (Obiakor & Offor, 2011).

In line with the international world, the Nigerian Government sought to enhance the provision of education for all children and youth in the country through passing the National Policy on Education in 1977 (FRN, 1977). The adoption of the National Policy on Education in 1977 marked a turning point for children with disabilities in the country. Section 8 of the policy supported special education programmes (FRN, 1977). The policy mandates the provision of meaningful education and the equalisation of educational opportunities for all people, including children and adults with disabilities in order to enable them to play their role in national development (FRN, 1981). Consequently, the government established several special schools, such as the School for the Blind in Kaduna, the Ogun School for the Handicapped and Benin School for the Deaf between the years 1977-1985 (Obiakor & Offor, 2011). Similar to the global world, special education in Nigeria was embedded in the medical deficit of disability that was characterised by exclusion, stigmatisation, labelling and the provision of separate services for children with disabilities (Garuba, 2003; Offor & Akinlosotu, 2017). The medical model of disability viewed children with disabilities as the problem and teachers had to make special provision for them (Florian, 2010). However, this is not consistent with the objective and outcome of the CHAT that informed the present study, which is founded on the professional preparation of teachers who can teach and manage all children, including those with unique varied needs, in the regular education setting. Consistent with the global world, the exclusion philosophy, coupled with inadequate special schools, funding, infrastructure, and resource problems that branded the provision of special education in Nigeria, led to the adoption of the inclusive education philosophy (Adetoro, 2014).

Nigeria is a signatory to numerous global and regional human rights instruments that enshrine the educational rights of all children (UNESCO, 2015). These include the EFA Jomtien Declaration (UN, 1990), the Delhi Declaration (1993), the Durban Statement of Commitment (1998) and the OAU Decade of Education in Africa (1997–2006) that require all African states to generalise access to quality basic education (FME, 2015). The country adopted inclusive education in its National Policy of Education in 2004, and it was amended in 2008 (FRN, 2004) in compliance with civil rights as expressed in various global and regional human rights that mandate on child rights. However, inclusive education is not a new concept in the Nigerian educational context. The 1977 National Policy on Education raised the notion of inclusive education. The issue of educational disparity, such as access, quality, resource allocations, including the education of those vulnerable to marginalisation and exclusion, such as girl-children, pastoral and nomadic children, was addressed in the 1977 policy (FRN, 1977). Similarly, the government introduced Universal Primary Education (UPE) in 1976 (Adeosun, Oni, Oladapo, Onuoha, & Yakassai, 2009). This was envisioned to close the educational gap and reduce the illiteracy rate of children aged between 6 to 12 years in the country (Iman, 2012). However, not much was achieved through the introduction of Universal Primary Education (FME, 2015). Critics of UPE highlighted the acute lack of quality teachers as a major challenge that plagues the programme (Adeosun et al., 2009). The following section presents an understanding of inclusive education from the Nigerian context.

4.6 Understanding of inclusive education in Nigeria

The National Policy on Education of 2004 and its revised edition of 2008 define inclusive children as “Special Education created as a formal special educational and training given to people (children and adults) with special needs” (FRN, 2004:47). Section 7 of the 2008 revised National Policy on Education states that inclusive education will be provided for children and youth in the country with special needs (FRN, 2008). The National Policy on Education reiterated that “Access to education shall be provided and inclusive education or integration of special classes and units into ordinary/public schools under the Universal Basic Education (UBE) scheme. Persons with special needs shall be provided with inclusive education services in schools which normal persons attend, in age appropriate general education classes

directly supervised by general teachers" (FRN, 2013:65). There are three groups highlighted for inclusive service, in a programme tagged special education, the first group being persons with various disabilities such as physical, visual, hearing, mental, emotional, social, speech, learning and multiple disabilities; the second group being the migrant fisher folk, migrant farmers, hunters and nomadic pastoral children; and the third group being gifted and talented (children and adults), who have high intelligent quotients and are endowed with special traits in arts, creativity, music, leadership, intellectual precocity, and who find themselves insufficiently challenged in the regular schools (FRN, 2004).

The main focus of inclusive education in Nigeria is on children with special needs, similar to other countries such as Australia (ARACY, 2013), India (Bhatnagar & Das, 2014), and Zambia (Serpell & Jere-Folotiya, 2011). The history of inclusive education might have informed the Nigerian perspective because inclusive education was revised at the Salamanca Statement and Framework for Action on Special Needs Education (UNESCO, 1994). The focus of the statement was on learners with special needs and disability. For example, Article 9 of the Salamanca and Framework for Action on Special Needs Education (UNESCO, 1994) supports the continuation of special schools for children who cannot receive adequate services in regular education schools or classes. Article 9 further states that countries with well-established special school systems for specific impairments can use these schools as valuable resources for the development of inclusive systems (UNESCO, 1994). As discussed in Sections 1.2 and 3.4, Nigeria has a well-established special schools' system. However, several Nigerian scholars, including Adetoro (2014), and Eskay et al. (2012), have argued that the understanding of inclusive education in the country negates international standards.

Consequently, the focus of inclusive education has since changed. UNESCO (2009) defines inclusive education as a process that strengthens the educational system to reach out to all learners and provides a strategy of achieving education for all. This definition embraces all children, including those with disabilities and special needs. The argument here is that when inclusive education is referred to as "Special Education", regular education teachers will feel that it is the responsibility of special teachers to teach children with special needs. Offor and Akinlosotu (2017) argue that

special education is a programme with a unique syllabus and curriculum designed and taught by unique teachers different from regular education teachers. Omede (2016) concurs that special education is for children who digress from normal standards with regard to physical, intellectual, social and emotional domains, among others. It can be argued that the consequence of narrowing inclusive education to special education is that learners included in regular school settings will continue to experience educational exclusion as teachers will feel that they are not responsible for these learners. Therefore, Nigeria cannot afford to have such a narrow perspective of inclusive education, especially as the country embraces the “Omoluabi” philosophical view that is aligned to inclusive education.

Comparable to the Ubuntu philosophy (Letseka, 2011; Phasha, 2016), “Omoluabi” is a philosophical view that is rooted in the inclusive education ideology. “Omoluabi” philosophy, symbolises an individual with good character or virtuous (Fayemi, 2009; Olanipekun, 2017). Mohammed (2014) reveals that the Yoruba people of south-west Nigeria believe in appropriate human behaviour which constitutes the Omoluabi philosophy. The aim of Yoruba indigenous education is to develop an Omoluabi individual, that is, an individual of good character who will add values to society (Akanbi & Jekayinfa, 2016). The elements/attributes of “Omoluabi” include “iteriba”, meaning respect, “inurere”, meaning a good mind or good intention, and “iwa”, meaning character (Fayemi, 2009). Olanipekun (2017) submits that “iwa” (character) is one attribute that cannot be underrated if society really wants harmony and order. To this end, the “Omoluabi” philosophy can be described as having a good attitude, kindness, being of value or having the esteem of the people, and includes those who are vulnerable and individuals with disabilities. All these attributes express the inclusive educational concept that was discussed in Section 3.3, as inclusive education advocates acceptance, democracy, equal opportunity, human rights and social justice (Kim & Lindeberg, 2012; Pantic & Florian, 2015), which are summed up in the “Omoluabi” concept.

Similar to international communities, scholars in Nigeria have a different understanding of inclusive education. According to Ajuwon (2008), inclusive education is a philosophy and the practice of educating learners with disabilities in the regular classroom settings. Eskay and Oboegbulem (2013) define inclusive education as the

full integration of learners with or without special needs into the same school and classroom, and exposing them to the same learning opportunities. Garuba (2003) defines inclusive education as the full-time placement of children with various disabilities, such as mild, moderate and severe exceptionalities, in the regular education classrooms. The views of the above authors on inclusive education mirrored integration that entails the placement of children with disabilities in regular education classrooms. However, Okwudire and Okechukwu (2008) define inclusive education as the progressive increase in the participation of learners, and the reduction of their exclusion from the cultural affairs, curricula, and communities of local schools. These researchers further argue that inclusive education means all learners are in school, regardless of their strengths or weaknesses in any area, and become part of the school community. It is a place where learners are seen as equal members of the classroom without being marginalised. However, studies revealed that teachers' understanding of inclusive education is narrowed to the placement of learners with special needs and disability in regular classrooms. Olukotun (2015) examined 164 regular teachers from Ilorin West, Kwara, and found that 95% of them approved the full adoption of inclusive education for learners with disabilities and indicated that inclusive education boosts social interaction between learners with disabilities and their peers without disabilities. Oluremi (2015) examined 200 special and regular teachers from Southern Nigeria and found that the majority of them felt children with special needs cannot cope academically in regular schools. As previous studies reveal the divergent understanding of inclusion of teachers, this current study examined the understanding of inclusive education of primary school teachers. The following section discusses teachers' practices in implementing inclusive education.

4.7 Teachers' practices in implementing inclusive education in Nigeria

In Nigeria, consistent with the global world, teachers employ various methods in implementing inclusive education (Akpan, Uwandu, & Ekanem, 2012; Igbokwe et al., 2014). Lazarus (2015) examined 281 teachers' teaching practices in regular primary schools in Oyo State, and found that the entire sample scaffolded learners with disabilities during reading lessons. Similarly, Galadima's (2012) survey of regular primary and high school teachers in Sokoto established that these teachers used child-centred instructional techniques and strategies to facilitate the learning of all children

in regular classrooms. However, a descriptive survey of 100 teachers from public secondary schools in Ilorin revealed that 84.5% of the sample was not aware that concrete media can be used to teach abstract mathematics to learners with learning disabilities, and as a result did not use it (Adebayo, 2015). A descriptive survey of 112 teachers from both public and private pre-primary schools in Nsukka revealed that although the majority of the teachers indicated they had trained personnel for pre-scholars, they felt that the use of the rote learning approach and whole group instruction was appropriate for these learners (Onu, Obiozor, Agbo, & Ezeanwu, 2010). A survey of 50 special teachers selected from integrated and special schools in Ibadan, Lagos and Ilorin established that the nature and degree of disabilities created stress for teachers, as 90% of them reported that learners with more than one disability created extreme stress for them (Adeniyi, Fakolade, & Tella, 2010). In situations where teachers perceive stress in the work environment, the necessary support required by learners with special needs is denied, thus violating the rights of these learners.

Differentiating instruction or curriculum is a strategy that teachers employ worldwide to implement inclusive education in the classrooms (Tomlinson, 2015). In Nigeria, instruction is differentiated for learners in inclusive settings. Igbokwe et al. (2014) surveyed 214 secondary school teachers in Owerri Imo State and established that these teachers used different teaching methods, reduced the number of assignments and gave extra time to accommodate learners with special needs in regular classrooms. Despite the importance of differentiated instruction to learners, not all teachers use this strategy in their classes. Offor and Akinlosotu's (2017) descriptive survey of 342 teachers in Edo State revealed that these teachers felt that not all children should enjoy equal rights from their teachers, whether with or without disabilities. This implies that the regular teaching methods are employed by teachers, and children who require support in terms of differentiated teaching strategies are denied their rights. In another study, Akinfe, Olofinniyi, and Fashiku's (2012) quantitative study of 200 learners randomly selected from senior secondary schools in Ondo State found that although the majority of the students indicated that their teachers taught comprehensively using simple illustrations to introduce new topics, 40% of the students felt that these teachers were not able to identify students with difficulties during their teaching. Thus, the failure of teachers to diagnose the

difficulties of students could result in their difficulty to provide instruction that would suit the individual needs of the learners.

Consistent with the global trend, the co-teaching strategy has gain popularity in Nigerian classrooms (Kamai & Badaki, 2012; Tijani & Oketunbi, 2010). Fakola et al., (2009) posit that for children with disabilities to derive optimal benefit in regular classrooms, teachers should be able to collaborate with special teachers. Co-teaching, according to Anani, Badaki and Kamai (2016), involves a group of teachers that set goals and evaluate lesson together to teach learners purposefully, regularly and cooperatively. Lagoke, Taiwo, and Ojebisi (2010) postulate that co-teaching is an approach in which two or more teachers get together to plan, implement and evaluate instructional activity. The strategy is employed by teachers to enhance learners' academic performance (Tijani & Oketunbi, 2010). Ezenwosu, Esomonu, and Akudolu's (2015) quasi-experimental study of 156 learners selected from four public senior secondary schools in Onitsha, Anambra State, established that learners taught in the Team Teaching Approach (TTA) class performed higher in English essay/letter (4.81) than learners taught in the Single Teacher Teaching Approach (STTA) class with a performance of 1.98. Equally, Olowo, Oseni, and Asiyanbi's (2015) quasi-experimental study of 80 pre-service teachers randomly selected from a cohort of 1 500 students of the Federal College of Education (Special), Oyo State, found a significant difference of higher academic achievement in students taught by team-teachers than students taught by solo-teachers. An experimental study of 120 senior secondary school students from Akwa Ibom revealed that students taught in team-teaching classes performed better in Biology than those taught in small group classrooms (Akpan et al., 2012). Another quasi-experimental study on junior secondary school students in Abeokuta, Ogun State revealed that team teaching was more effective than the traditional model as student performance was higher with team instruction compared to students taught in the conventional classroom (Uwameiye & Ojikutu, 2008). Anani, Badaki, and Kamai (2016) used both experimental and descriptive designs on students, teachers, team-leaders, and the vice principal in Yola Senior Secondary School, Adamawa State, and established that the majority of the students indicated that team-teaching enabled regular and thorough inspection of their notebooks; 93% stated that more work was covered and there was improvement in each aspect covered under team-teaching than in the traditional single teaching

model. However, a survey of 214 secondary school teachers in Owerri, Imo State established that the lack of co-operation from peer teachers and school administrators (Igbokwe et al., 2014) interfered with the use of team teaching. This study examined the professional preparation of primary school teachers to use co-teaching in the implementation of inclusive education in Nigeria.

Compared to the above-mentioned countries, among others, parental involvement has a significant impact on the implementation of inclusive education in Nigeria (Olatoye & Ogunkola, 2008). A survey of 76 respondents that comprised parents, siblings and relatives of children with Autism Spectrum Disorder (ASD) selected from both Lagos and Ogun State, established that most respondents agreed that parental involvement was a necessity, even with the early intervention programme (Ayorinde & Eni-Olorunda, 2015). However, Afolabi et al. (2013) found in their review of literature that parental engagement in the education of children is not fully explored in Nigeria and there are limited studies on the topic. Onu et al. (2010) established that most of the teachers in their survey of 112 pre-scholar teachers indicated there was a need to involve parents and the community when teaching these learners. Babudoh (2014) conducted a study on five primary school learners with intense hearing impairment and their families, and the researcher found that these learners were at the edge of dropping out of school due to parental neglect. This study examined the professional preparation of primary school teachers in facilitating parental involvement in the implementation of inclusive education in Nigeria.

Class management is a teaching strategy that teachers employ internationally, similarly in Nigeria (Nicholas, 2007; Umoren, 2010). In Nigeria, the academic achievement of children is attributed to the ability of teachers to effectively manage and control the class during instruction (Asiyai, 2011). A survey of 200 learners from a senior secondary school in Uyo, Akwa Ibom State found that learners who received verbal instructions on how to conduct themselves succeed academically, whereas those who did not receive such instruction did not succeed (Goerge, Sakirudeen, & Sunday, 2017). Jaiyeoba's (2011) survey of 448 teachers from Ibadan, Oyo State, established that 77.69% of the teachers felt that their duty was to train the character formation of learners. In another study, Asiyai's (2011) survey of 300 samples of teachers, principals and vice principals selected from public secondary schools in

Delta State revealed that the classroom management of teachers increased the participation of learners in class activities, aroused their interest, made them willing to learn and do their assignments. However, a survey of learners and teachers from senior secondary schools in Shomolu, Lagos State, revealed that there is no significant difference between the performance of learners and classroom management (Adeyemo, 2012). This study explored the professional preparation of primary school teachers in classroom management in the implementation of inclusive education in Nigeria in view of the above-mentioned inconsistent findings of the previous studies. The following section discusses the teachers' concerns regarding the implementation of inclusive education in Nigeria.

4.8 Teachers' concerns regarding the implementation of inclusive education

Despite the policy and strategies to strengthen teacher education, several studies carried out in Nigeria revealed a dearth in the quality and quantity of teachers (Adeyemi & Adu, 2012; Nwogu & Esobhawan, 2014). Only two-thirds of Nigerian teachers have the minimum required qualifications (EFA/GMR, 2015). The report of teachers' qualification statistics in Nigeria between the periods of 1999-2003, indicated that an average of 45.1% of primary school teachers were qualified (FRN, 2005). The figure included both the National Certificate of Education (NCE) and the Teacher Grade Two certificate. It can be argued that more than 54.9% of teachers were not qualified to teach at this level, because the Teacher Grade Two certificate was phased out in 1998 and holders of such certificates were required to upgrade their qualifications by 2006 since the country's minimum requirement for primary education is the NCE. Equally, Durosaro (2013) found that of the 1 599 teachers selected from the Kaduna State teaching work-force who wrote the Grade 4 level basic literacy and mathematics test, only 250 teachers got between 50% to 75%, and 1 300 got below 25%. This revealed the poor quality of the teachers teaching 21st century learners at the most esteemed level of education, "primary school".

Nwideeduh and Adieme (2016) observed that National Youth Corp Members, who do not possess teaching qualifications, are still recruited for teaching in the country. However, among the duties of the Teachers' Registration Council of Nigeria (TRCN) mentioned above, is to regulate and censor teacher professionalism (FME, 2015). It

can be argued that there is negligence of service by the TRCN if unqualified teachers are still being recruited into the classrooms. Recruiting unskilled teachers jeopardises inclusive practice. This study examined the professional preparation of primary teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria as the above studies were done some time ago.

Ejima (2012) posits that the quality of teachers is a reflection of their initial professional preparation programme. Adeosun (2012) observed that teacher education institutions are failing to prepare teachers who are grounded in instructional and content knowledge and who have the ability to collaborate professionally. Ololube et al. (2008) found that the education policy and teacher programmes are not up to internationally accepted standards and out-dated curricula are used in Nigeria. Likewise, Igbokwe et al. (2014) revealed that teacher training institutions do not offer foundational courses in inclusive education to all teachers. The researcher found that the University of Nigeria, Nsukka, has the largest Faculty of Education in sub-Saharan Africa, although it did not mandate special education courses in its teacher education curriculum (Igbokwe et al., 2014).

Lately, the standard for enrolling students into initial teacher training has been criticised and it was found that most teacher candidates are not competent to enter the profession (Nnokam & Sule, 2017). Akinbote (2007) examined 1 200 student teachers who were selected from seven colleges of education across the South Western States of Nigeria and found that only 293 (24.0%) had the minimum university requirement of five credits and above at the GCE O/L or its equivalents. The majority of the student teachers are not qualified. Adewuyi (2012) advances that the unqualified university candidates were the result of poor education that stemmed from primary and secondary educational levels. This study explored the influence of the quality of professional preparation of primary school teachers in the implementation of inclusive education in Nigeria.

According to Ejima (2012), teachers are the critical element of any educational system. Teacher quality is inevitable for the realisation of sustainable development goals. A correlation survey of 400 registered teachers from the Secondary Education Board (SEB), Ebonyi State, found that the qualifications of teachers had a positive impact on

their contribution toward sustainable national development in the state (Nwite & Nwankwo, 2017). Ahiauzu, Diejoriye, and Onwuchekwa (2011) administered questionnaires to 150 teachers, who were selected from 10 public secondary schools in Rivers State, and established that the performance of teachers increased based on the level of their training. Kpiken and Edet (2014) established that teacher qualifications and the quality of the teachers' education determine the success or failure of an educational system. Adeyemi and Adu's (2012) survey of 2 450 respondents, selected from a cohort of primary school teachers and head-teachers in Ekiti State, found that there is a significant relationship between teacher quality and the internal efficiency of primary schools. They found a decrease in repetition rates and an increase in promotion rates. This study examined the influence of the quality of professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria and the internal consistency of teachers to ascertain the findings of previous studies.

Comparable to several other countries, the shortage of teachers is a plague to the Nigeria teaching workforce (EFA/GMR, 2015). Abbas and Abdulwahab (2017) postulate that the number of teachers churned out from teacher education institutions annually in Nigeria is far below the number of teachers needed in the country. It was envisaged that the primary school sector will require about 400 000 teachers between 2012 and 2030 (EFA/GMR, 2015). Like most developing countries, the teaching profession is not attractive to people in Nigeria due to uncompetitive salaries, teaching workloads and the low status of the profession (Abbas & Abdulwahab, 2017; Adeyemi, 2011). Jaiyeoba (2011) randomly selected 448 primary school teachers from Ibadan, Oyo State, and using a quantitative design found that 60.71% of these teachers felt that teaching is not a lucrative profession; similarly, 54.24% of the teachers admitted that there is no contentment in teaching, and 56.47% derived no pleasure from the teaching job. Obanya (2012) narrated the true life scenario of two Nigeria brothers who chose different careers and how their choices affected their self-esteem. Table 4.2 below depicts the tale of Akka and Akko.

Table 4.2: The Tale of Akka and Akko

LIFE PATH	AKKA	AKKO
1. Formal qualification at age 18	Senior Secondary School Certificate	Senior Secondary School Certificate
2. Choice of university course	Mathematics/Physics	Mathematics/Physics
3. On-the-job further education opportunities	Post-Graduate Diploma in Education (2nd year of career) Master's degree in Education (6th year of career) 2-week integrated science workshop (7th year)	Basic marketing course (1st year) Annual marketing seminars (1st year onwards) Overseas attachment (2nd year) ICT applications in marketing (4th and 5th years) New product development seminar (6th year) Finance in Marketing (7th year) Fellowship of the Institute of Marketing (8th year) Study tour of Asian emerging markets (10th year)
4. Position 10 years after Graduation	Secondary School Principal	Executive Director (Client Services)
5. Personality features 10 years after graduation	Meek and humble, timid, limited exposure to new ideas, limited social and intellectual horizons, low self esteem	Wide exposure to the world and to new ideas, accumulated skills in a variety of areas, cosmopolitan, high self esteem

Source: Obanya (2012)

From the table presented above, it can be argued that the teaching profession is perceived as limiting opportunities to social, economic and other aspects of life. This

study revealed the status of teaching as a profession in teachers' implementation of inclusive education.

Another concern is the challenge of achieving quality and equitable education for all in the country. It is documented that inadequate public awareness and social mobilisation, poor infrastructure, a lack of teachers and resources, overcrowded classrooms, gender inequality, inadequate funds, and poor management impede the realisation of Education for All (EFA) in the country (FME, 2015). Omede (2011) observed that inequalities and education inaccessibility remain problems in Nigeria. It was reported that school completion rates remain below 70% in Nigeria (FME, 2015). As mentioned in Section 1.2, Nigeria has the highest number of out-of-school children and learners with disabilities are more vulnerable to exclusion in education. A lack of legislation for the rights of persons with disabilities (Obi & Ashi, 2016) could partly be to blame for the exclusion of children with disabilities in the country. Nigeria lacks appropriate policy frameworks to stimulate an inclusive education practice (Omede & Momoh, 2016). It was also reported that Nigeria lacks professionals who are well informed enough to implement and actualise inclusive goals (Dommak, 2013).

Another concern is teacher attitude. Similar to several international studies, the attitude of teachers in Nigeria can either promote or inhibit inclusive education (Oluremi, 2015). Sambo and Gambo (2015) posit that the negative attitudes of teachers may be seen in their choice of poor instructional methods, not providing support to learners and calling them slow learners. Omede (2016) argues that if teachers have a negative attitude towards children with special educational needs, it is doubtful that they will provide appropriate inclusive services for these children. Akinfe et al.'s (2012) quantitative study of 200 students randomly selected from senior secondary schools in Ondo found that most of the students (75%) indicated that their teachers' attitudes did not encourage them to choose the teaching profession as a career in the future. Also, a descriptive survey of 342 teachers from Edo State public secondary schools revealed that most of the teachers had negative attitudes towards students with special needs (Offor & Akinlosotu, 2017).

Ajuwon's (2012) quantitative study of 141 special teachers found that the majority of them indicated that they tolerated learners with diverse behaviour. In another study,

Chukuka (2012) examined 120 teachers from regular schools in south-west Nigeria and established that teachers were positive towards the implementation of inclusive education. A report of a survey carried out on 200 special and regular teachers from south-west Nigeria found that the majority of them had positive attitudes towards learners with special needs, although 71.5% of the teachers lacked the knowledge of special needs but they were still enthusiastic about teaching these learners (Oluremi, 2015). The positive attitude demonstrated by teachers in the above studies may be due to the Omoluabi concept that is rooted in the way of life of the south-western communities in Nigeria. This study explored the attitudes of primary school teachers towards the implementation of inclusive education as the findings of the cited previous studies are inconsistent. As discussed in Section 3.6, Omoluabi symbolises inclusive education. The following section discusses strategies to enhance the professional preparation of teachers for inclusive education.

4.9 Strategies to enhance the professional preparation of teachers for inclusive education

Nigeria has institutionalised several innovations and regulations to enhance Education for All. The Child's Rights Act was endorsed in 2004, including the free Universal Basic Education Act, No. 66, 2004 (FRN, 2004). Introduction of the free Universal Basic Education (UBE) scheme is an effort to accomplish EFA goals in Nigerian basic education (Igbokwe et al., 2014). The UBE Act mandates free, compulsory primary and junior secondary education for all children (FME, 2015). Two per cent of Nigeria's Consolidated Revenue Fund (CRF) was set aside to fund the programme (Omede, 2016). In 2006, the National Action Plan (NAP) was launched to facilitate the implementation of the Universal Basic Education programme (FME, 2008). The main agenda of NAP is to eradicate illiteracy in Nigeria through the achievement of appropriate literacy and numeracy levels that will serve as a foundation for life-long learning (FRN, 2013). Similarly, the Education Sector Support Programme in Nigeria (ESSPIN) was introduced (ESSPIN, 2013). The programme expected to encourage all marginalised groups, like the girl-children, nomads, out-of-school youth and the Almajiris children to enrol in school (Obanya, 2009).

Other strategies include the National Policy for Integrated Early Childhood Development in Nigeria, the 2007 National Policy on gender in basic education, the

guidelines for identification of children who are gifted in 2006, the implementation plan for a special needs education strategy in 2007, and the National Policy on HIV/AIDS for the education sector in Nigeria (FME, 2008). Equally, the government introduced School Based Management Committees (SBMC) in all primary and junior secondary schools (ESSPIN, 2013). The SBMCs are responsible for improving school access through the identification of out-of-school children and reducing barriers to schooling and learning by tracking the attendance of teachers and learners (ESSPIN, 2013). All these innovations were put in place to enhance the education of all Nigerian citizens. As expressed by UNESCO (2003), inclusive education is unlikely to expand unless the government at a national level makes rigorous efforts to promote mainstream approaches.

The government has established various commissions in order to achieve the innovation plans. These include the Universal Basic Education Commission (UBEC), the National Commission for Nomadic Education (NCNE) and the National Commission for Mass Literacy, Adult and Non-Formal Education (NMEC), the National Teachers' Institute (NTI), the Nigerian Education and Research Development Council (NERDC), the National Commission for Colleges of Education (NCCE) and the Teachers' Registration Council of Nigeria (TRCN) (FME, 2015). However, as revealed in most international studies, policies and legislation are not adequate in the implementation of educational innovations, including inclusive education, because it is the attitudes, knowledge and skills of the stakeholders, including teachers that matter (Florian, 2012; Loreman et al., 2013; Rouse, 2010). This study explored the needfulness of policy and legislation in the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria.

Comparable to several international countries, Nigeria is making enormous strides in terms of the inclusion of learners in regular education. Since the launch of UBE, the enrolment rate in primary school education has increased (FME, 2015). The number of primary school children have risen from 21 857 011 in 2009 to 24 071 559 in 2013 and there is progress on gender parity (FME, 2015). Also, literacy rates have risen from 64% in 2000 to 66.7% in 2014 (Nigeria Millennium Development Goals, 2015). The Girls Education Initiative (GEI), a strategy supported by the Education Sector Support Programme in Nigeria (ESSPIN) to reduce gender disparity in education,

reported that about 65% girls have been promoted from primary to Junior Secondary School (ESSPIN, 2013).

Various international studies reveal that the development of knowledge and skills is the major strategy to enhance the professional preparation of teachers for inclusive education (Graham & Scott, 2016; Loreman et al., 2013). Also, in Nigeria, the knowledge and skills of teachers are crucial in implementing inclusive education. A survey of 122 special teachers carried out in Oyo found that 90.3% of these teachers possessed satisfactory knowledge required for the early intervention of learners with intellectual disabilities (Eni-Olorunda, 2015). However, Ajuwon (2012) examined 141 special teachers and established that the majority of them lacked confidence in their professional ability to manage the behaviours of learners with SNE. Likewise, a survey of 214 secondary school teachers from Owerri, Imo State found that these teachers lacked the knowledge to implement inclusive education (Igbokwe et al., 2014).

Offor and Akinlosotu's (2017) descriptive survey of 342 teachers from Edo State revealed that these teachers indicated it was challenging to teach children, especially those with various degrees of special needs. In another survey of 516 teachers from primary and secondary schools in Nigeria and the DRC, it was found that these teachers felt that they lacked the professional preparation to teach children with disabilities together with their typically developing peers, and reported that it was not their responsibility to teach children considered different in their classes (Aghamelu, 2014). Ajuwon (2012) concludes that the competency and confidence of teachers are crucial for inclusive education. Equally, Dada (2015) recommends regular workshops for primary school teachers on how to identify and address learners with ADHD in classes.

Across the globe, as in Nigeria, the use of resource facilities, such as ICT and innovative technology, has gained recognition for enhancing teaching and learning (Yusuf & Balogun, 2011). Yusuf and Balogun (2011) suggested that ICT is a catalyst that enables access to quality education as it enhances teacher instruction and the learning of students. Despite the significance of innovative technology in Nigeria, literature reports that teachers in most schools preferred the traditional setting rather than the technology facilities (Ogunkunle, Ekwueme, & Charles-Ogan, 2013). One

major reason is the lack of teacher competency in using ICT facilities (Yusuf, 2005). Charles-Ogan and George (2015) examined 104 mathematics teachers teaching in senior secondary schools in Rivers State and found that most of these teachers recognised the importance of teaching mathematics in a meaningful way for learning to take place, although they were not aware of innovative teaching amenities such as a mathematics laboratory, ethno mathematics and had never implemented a problem-solving teaching strategy, or used a constructivist teaching strategy.

Another survey of 48 mathematics teachers selected from Delta State public schools established that only 15.36% were aware of tele-conferencing, YouTube, and Skype (Onaifoh & Ekwueme, 2015). Oluremi (2015) found that 165 (82.5%) of the 200 secondary school teachers selected from south-western Nigeria indicated that they were interested in teaching learners with special needs if educational resources were made available. Another survey of 382 pre-service teachers from the University of Ilorin, Kwara State, established that more than half of them showed positive attitudes towards ICT. However, 40.06% indicated having a phobia for ICT equipment and 56.28% stated that the condition of infrastructural facilities discouraged them from using ICT (Yusuf & Balogun, 2011). Salami and Ojediran's (2017) quantitative study of 1 052 students and lecturers from the Obafemi Awolowo University revealed impoverished teaching conditions, a lack of adequate equipment and their struggle to see the board or hear the voices of the lecturers. This study examined ICT as a strategy to enhance the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria.

Reviewed literature found that gaps exist in conceptualizing, strategies, and practices of inclusive education, which suggests the need to focus on teacher preparation for inclusive education. The rights of learners are still threatened despite the enactment of policies, decrees, and legislation in the pursuance of inclusive education. Not all learners are enjoying educational access and full participation. Therefore, this study used a qualitative approach to examine the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria. In so doing, I seek to propose strategies and a model to enhance their professional preparation.

4.10 Conclusion

The chapter discussed the Nigerian perspective on inclusive education and how this perspective relates to the focus of the present study. The discussion was structured around the sub-headings derived from sub-research questions of the study, namely, teachers' understanding of inclusive education; teachers' practices in implementing inclusive education, teachers' concerns regarding the implementation of inclusive education and the strategies to enhance the professional preparation of teachers for inclusive education. The Nigerian context was also discussed. In the following chapter the research methodology and design is discussed.

CHAPTER 5: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN

5.1 Introduction

The present study examined the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria as the context for proposing strategies and a model for enhancing their professional preparation. The previous chapter presented the Nigerian perspective on inclusive education. The current chapter presents the research methodology and design used in the study. It presents the research paradigm, the research approach and design, population and sampling, data collection techniques, the pilot study and the description of research sites. This chapter also presents data analysis, as well as the trustworthiness of the data and the ethical considerations of the research. The following section presents the research paradigm that underpinned the study.

5.2 Research paradigm

Research paradigms are worldviews of the researchers that guide their choice of studies (Denzin, 2012). Bogdan and Biklen (2016) view research paradigms as loose collections of logically related assumptions, propositions, and concepts that orient thinking and research. Research paradigms help to determine assumptions and beliefs that form the researcher's opinion about an inquiry or a study (Schwandt, 2007). The basic belief systems on which research paradigms are founded include ontology (the nature of reality), epistemology (the relationship between the knower and the known), and methodology (the process of investigation) (Leech, Dellinger, Brannagan, & Tanaka, 2010). Research paradigms that orient the researcher's thinking include positivism, post positivism, critical theory and constructivism (Denzin, 2012). Guba (1981) postulates that a researcher needs to use a research paradigm whose assumptions best suit the phenomenon under investigation. The constructivism research paradigm underpinned the present study. The constructivism research paradigm is based on subjective and multiple belief systems and how people feel about their world (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). This study examined the experiences, feelings, views and perceptions of primary school teachers about their professional preparation for inclusive education in Nigeria as the context for proposing strategies and a model for enhancing their professional preparation.

Ontologically, the constructivism research paradigm postulates that there is no absolute reality but that multiple realities exist which are dependent on a given context or situation (Krauss, 2005). The professional preparation of primary school teachers was investigated to gain insight into their varied understandings, practices and concerns regarding inclusive education and the strategies required to enhance their preparation in line with the multi-voiced-ness of the CHAT that informed the present study. The constructivism research paradigm believes that individual reality differs and is subjective (Lincoln, Lynham, & Guba, 2011). This research paradigm was used to understand and explain the different perspectives, perceptions and experiences of individual primary school teachers regarding their professional preparation for inclusive education in Nigeria as the context for proposing strategies and a model for enhancing their professional preparation.

The epistemological assumption of the constructivism research paradigm is that individuals construct their own knowledge of reality (Lincoln & Guba, 2013). Merriam (2009) posits that the construction of realities is socially based. The professional preparation of primary school teachers was understood through studying them in their various schools. This enabled the researcher to gain insight into each primary school teacher's understanding of inclusive education, the practices they applied in implementing inclusive education, their concerns about inclusive education and the strategies to use to enhance their professional preparation for inclusive education. This was consistent with the socio-cultural viewpoint of CHAT that contends that individuals cannot be observed separately from their social and cultural context (Wilson, 2014).

Methodologically, the constructivism research paradigm mode of inquiry is through a qualitative approach (Neuman, 2006). Grut and Ingstad (2005) opined that the research aim and research questions are the bases on which the selection of the research method rests. The constructivism research paradigm's aim of inquiry is to understand and interpret the meanings phenomena attributed to issues under investigation (Lincoln et al., 2011). The constructivist research paradigm enabled the researcher to gain insight and clarification of how primary school teachers were professionally prepared for inclusive education in Nigeria.

The constructivism research paradigm argues that the perfect way to comprehend the phenomenon under investigation is to be immersed with the participants and with interaction within their social context (Merriam, 2009). The paradigm allowed the researcher to submerge herself in the four primary schools in Ikorodu local educational district in Lagos State, Nigeria, where the study was conducted, through the use of individual interviews and non-participant observation for the collection of data. This encouraged interpersonal relationships between the primary school teachers and the researcher. As a result, the researcher was able to gain the participants' trust and this facilitated in-depth data collection. The next section discusses the research approach.

5.3 Research approach

There are three types of identified research approaches, namely the qualitative, the quantitative and the mixed method approach (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). This study used the qualitative research approach. The qualitative research approach allows an in-depth understanding of individuals' beliefs, actions, opinions and meanings that they ascribe to issues and situations in their world (Bogdan & Biklen, 2016; Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). The approach was used to examine the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria in order to understand the experience and the meaning each of them constructed regarding their preparation for it. The qualitative research approach allows the investigation of societal experience and behaviours from the perspectives of the participants who experience the phenomenon under investigation (Babbie & Mouton, 2010). The approach was used to explore each primary school teacher's understanding, practice and concerns regarding inclusive education. The qualitative approach involves gathering empirical materials, such as personal experience, life stories, introspectives, interviews, artefacts, observations, cultural texts and production, historical, visual texts and interactional materials that describe issues, moments, routines and meaning in people's lives (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011). The professional preparation of Nigerian primary school teachers for inclusive education was solicited through individual interviews, non-participant observation and document analysis.

The qualitative research approach is context specific and events, actions and experience can only be well understood in their natural occurrence (Babbie & Mouton,

2010). Creswell and Creswell (2018) states that a qualitative researcher collects data in the settings where issues are experienced. Denzin and Lincoln (2011) add that the qualitative research approach is a situated activity which allows researchers to examine things in their natural context. Primary school teachers were observed during teaching and learning in their natural/daily school environment without manipulating any variables to ascertain their professional preparation for inclusive education.

Researchers are the primary instruments when they use the qualitative research approach (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016), since data collection involves them personally. The researcher visited the four participating regular primary schools to personally carry out individual interviews with 16 teachers, to conduct non-participant observation in their various classes during lesson presentations and to obtain relevant documents, such as ESSPIN lesson plans for primary 1-5, teachers' lesson plans, learners' workbooks and ESSPIN guidelines for analysis.

In the qualitative research approach, researchers are more concerned about the process rather than the outcome (Merriam, 2009). Maxwell (2013) adds that qualitative researchers do not neglect outcomes but they are more interested in what led to the outcome. Knowledge and information about the process of the professional preparation of participating primary school teachers for inclusive education were investigated by exploring their understanding, practices, concerns and strategies to enhance their preparation. This enabled the researcher to gain a holistic insight into the process of primary school teachers' professional preparation for inclusive education in Nigeria.

Unlike the quantitative approach that is precise and uses statistical or numerical data (Merriam, 2009), the qualitative research approach involves comprehensive, extensive rich descriptions of the phenomena under study (Marshall & Rossman, 2016). This study used narrative words to fully examine, interpret and describe the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria. The following section discusses the research design.

Qualitative research is not without of weaknesses, the approach may leave out social sensitivities and pay more attention on meanings and experiences (Silverman, 2010).

Like the Phenomenological approach that tends to discover, analyze and appreciate the participants' experience (Wilson, 2014). According to Berg and Lune (2012), qualitative research is a difficult task with elusive data on one side and rigorous requirements for analysis on the other. Research analysis takes a significant amount of time and one may be attempt to generalise the results (Flick, 2014). Harry and Lipsky (2014) added that the smaller sample size usually raise the issue of generalisation.

5.4 Research design

A research design is a blueprint that logically and coherently incorporates the different components of the study, such as the plan for data collection, and the measurement and analysis of data, thereby ensuring that the researcher effectively addresses the research problem (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011). Qualitative research designs include the case study, phenomenology, grounded theory, critical qualitative research, narrative analysis and ethnography (Merriam, 2009). The present study used a multiple case study research design. A multiple case study research design involves two or several cases in a single study which provide extensive details of the phenomenon being investigated (McMillian & Schumacher, 2010; Yin, 2014). Four regular primary schools participated in this study in order to ascertain the professional preparation of 16 teachers (four from each school) for inclusive education in Nigeria.

A multiple case research design study involves holistic descriptions and thorough analysis of bounded systems (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). The bounded system could be a programme, event, individual or activity (Stake, 2005). Merriam (2009) argues that if the phenomenon under investigation is not bounded intrinsically, it cannot be regarded as a case study. The bounded system in this study was the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education in the four participating regular primary schools in Ikorodu in Nigeria. Multiple case study research designs allow the use of several data sources to gather data which enables a rigorous exploration for deep understanding of a researched phenomenon (Yin, 2014). Individual interviews, non-participant observation and document analysis were used to collect data for an in-depth understanding of the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria.

A multiple case study research design yields strength to precision, stability and validity of study findings (Yin, 2014). It helps to strengthen the findings as the researcher is able to analyse data within each case and across cases (Baxter & Jack, 2008). A multiple case study research design enables scrutiny of a case wholly within its real-life context (Yin, 2014). Flyvbjerg (2006) adds that the advantage of a multiple case study research design is its richness, detail and extensiveness. The design enabled a thorough interrogation of the primary school teachers' understanding, practices, concerns and strategies to enhance their professional preparation for inclusive education due to the use of four study settings. Stake (2005) asserts that multiple case study research designs are chosen because they lead to better understanding and better theorising about the collection of cases. Mertens (2010) postulates that the researcher may not know about all cases until the study commences and new issues start coming up which may suggest that other cases are necessary. During data collection several issues emerged. For example, conflict in the adoption of the literacy and numeracy curriculum and ESSPIN training emerged. These issues require follow-up research. A multiple case study research design enabled the researcher to further probe the issues in different sites which then led to more insight, clarity and comprehensiveness on the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria.

Merriam (2009) postulates that managing a multiple case research design can be challenging. However, Bogdan and Biklen (2016) suggest that researchers using multiple case study research designs should deal with one site at a time, rather than concurrently gathering data from different sites. The researcher focused on one site at a time and this enabled easy management of data. Likewise, the researcher was able to identify necessary topics and areas of concern in the ensuing case. The next section discusses population and sample selection.

5.5 Population and sampling

The population of a study is the entire set of individuals who possess the characteristics and meet the required standards set out for a particular study (Polit &

Beck, 2012). Primary school teachers working in regular schools in Ikorodu, Lagos State, Nigeria, constituted the population for this study.

Sampling is a process of selecting participants from the entire population (Maree, 2012). The purpose of sampling in research is to allow reduced time and effort. Qualitative researchers employ purposive sampling for the identification and selection of rich informants that will probably provide insight and comprehensive information about an investigated phenomenon (Merriam, 2009). The rational and power behind purposeful sampling rest on selecting information-rich cases for thorough analysis. Information-rich cases provide in-depth understanding and insight about issues of importance to the purpose of study (Patton, 2015). There are numbers of purposive sampling techniques, including maximum variation, extreme or deviant case, typical case, homogeneous, critical case, expert, criterion and total population sampling (Patton, 2015). A criterion sampling strategy was used to purposively select participants for this study.

Criterion sampling is the process of setting up criterion and recognising cases that meet the criterion useful for quality assurance (Mertens, 2010). The inclusion criteria set for participant selection in this present study included at least a bachelor's degree with endorsement in primary school education. The participants must have obtained their degrees from institutions that offered inclusive education or related modules on inclusive education across their teacher education programmes. The participants ought to be teaching in regular primary school classrooms in the Ikorodu local education district that has at least one child with a disability or any other unique need. Finally, participants must have one year's minimum working experience after the completion of their degree and must have consented to participate in the study.

Merriam (2009) argues that study criteria should not only be spelled out but its significance should be indicated. The research focused on primary schools because research incidence into education exclusion revealed that large numbers of learners who are of primary school age are not attending school (UNESCO, 2016). It was also revealed that early identification of barriers to access and participation will help abate school drop-out and failure among learners (DBE, 2010). Equally, since universities are renowned for preparing academic professionals, the adequacy of professional

preparation of teachers who had degrees for inclusive education were investigated. This allowed researcher to find out whether universities are providing grounded preparation (content, process and product) for inclusive education to a degree holder. Schools in Ikorodu local education district consitutes diverse learners which mirror schools in Nigeria for the transferability of findings. The selection of schools with at least one child with a disability or some other special need allowed the researcher to investigate teachers who had taught diverse learners.

The sample selection started with approval received from the appropriate bodies for the research to be carried out (see the section on ethics for details). A list of all primary school teachers was subsequently collected from the principals of the schools identified. The participants were screened telephonically using the above-mentioned inclusion criteria. Initially, twenty four primary school teachers (six from four identified regular primary schools) who met the inclusion criteria were invited to participate in the study. Meetings were then convened to explain the purpose of the study (see Appendix F for participants' information sheet). Howerver, when data redundant was reached, maximum variation was employed to decide on sixteen participants (four from four identified regular primary schools).

A qualitative research approach sample size is relatively small, because the study on human experiences needs to be intensive and thorough (Polkinghorne, 2005). The qualitative research approach is more concerned about data saturation, that is, obtaining data until sustainable information is obtained from informants (Charmaz, 2006; Saldana, 2011a). Data collection ended when data saturation was reached after the participation of 16 primary school teachers. Data saturation was realised when no additional knowledge was accumulated regarding the themes and sub-themes of this study. In the following section, data collection techniques are discussed.
Purposive sampling is highly predisposed to researcher bias. Since creation of sample is based on researcher judgment (Sharma, 2017). There are possibility of either poorly considered or ill-conceived judgments. Researchers must provide proof that the decision used in the purposeful sampling to select the different units or individuals was sufficient for the processed ones used. In almost every case, the high levels of subjectivity cast an unavoidable cloud of doubt on the findings (Sharma, 2017). To avoid this situation trustworthiness was strictly adhered to (see section 5.).

5.6 Data collection techniques

A data collection technique is the means of gathering research data for the purpose of achieving the research aim and objectives (Mertens, 2010). The qualitative approach uses several techniques to collect data, including interviews, observations, document analysis, artefacts, photographs and video tapes (Rossman & Rallis, 2012). Since the study used a qualitative multiple case study design, individual interviews, non-participant observation and document analysis were employed to obtain data. Each data collection instrument is discussed below.

5.6.1 Individual interviews

An individual interview is a reciprocal dialogue that involves the gathering of data from participants by the interviewer in order to understand their assumptions and behaviours (Creswell, 2014). The qualitative researcher uses individual or focus group interviews to gather information from participants about a studied phenomenon (Mertens, 2010). Individual interviews were used to examine the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria. The interview questions were adapted from interview guides of previous research on the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education, including Majoko (2019). Individual interviews enable a researcher to solicit mental constructs of the participants regarding a researched phenomenon (Patton, 2015). It enabled the researcher to examine and investigate primary school teachers' views, feelings, perceptions and perspectives about their professional preparation for inclusive education in Nigeria.

Individual interviews are a valuable way to safeguard participants who might not be comfortable with group discussions (Boyce & Neale, 2006). Individual interviews with each primary school teacher facilitated the establishment of the interpersonal relationship between the researcher and the participants, which enabled them to express themselves without any uneasiness. For instance, some sensitive issues, such as support from the school head, training on implementing the curriculum and the provision of instructional materials were disclosed easily. Individual interviews provide rich information which cannot be obtained using observation only (Wiersma &

Jurs, 2009). Individual interviews are in-depth, making use of extensive probing and open-ended questions which provide valuable information (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). In-depth interviews enabled the researcher to comprehensively investigate relevant areas identified for inclusive education practice and training through enabling her to ask context-specific questions.

Fundamentally, there are three types of interviews, which include structured, semi-structured, and unstructured interviews (Corbin & Strauss, 2015; Saldana, 2011a). A semi-structured interview was used in this present study. Semi-structured interviews enable some degree of consistency over the topics that are covered in all the interviews (Corbin & Strauss, 2015). Before commencing the interviews some topics were chosen to maintain consistency throughout each interview (see Appendix I for interview guide). The topics chosen were informed by literature searched and the researcher's experience in the field of inclusive education. Semi-structured interviews allow some degree of flexibility and the researcher does not have to adhere strictly to the pre-interview guide (McMillian & Schumacher, 2010). The flexibility of semi-structured interviews allows probing or follow-up questions that enables the researcher to acquire more insight and detailed information on the issues under investigation (Merriam, 2009). Each primary school teacher was asked tailor-made questions and the researcher was able to rephrase questions and probe for clarity on specific answers. The participants were given the chance to express their minds and focus on areas that seemed to be of more significance and concern to them. Each interview lasted for about 50 minutes to one hour. All the individual interviews were conducted outside of working hours in the classrooms of the individual participants. The interviews were audio-recorded with the permission of the participating primary school teachers to facilitate the accurate capturing of data.

There are a number of shortcomings in using individual interviews in the collection of data in research. It can be time consuming to recruit and conduct, and can be expensive due to cost of travling and time. For instance, the interview dates were altered several times by some participants. As a result, the researcher had to travel several times to the research location. The next section discusses non-participant observation.

5.6.2 Non-participant observation

Observation refers to a methodical way of recording and taking notes of behaviour, actions, objects, events and occurrences about a researched phenomenon in its natural setting without necessarily interrogating (Marshall & Rossman 2016; Rossman & Rallis, 2012). Through observation, participants' realness can be captured (Corbin & Strauss, 2015). Observation enabled the researcher to cross-examine claims made by the participating primary school teachers on their professtional preparation for inclusive education during the individual interview sessions. Qualitative researchers employ participant observation and non-participant observation (Marshall & Rossman, 2011). Non-participant observation was used to collect data from 16 participants during their delivery of lessons in their respective classrooms.

Non-participant observation entails observing as a spectator or discreetly observing in ways that participants will be unaware of the observer's presence (Rossman & Rallis, 2012). Prior to the observation, the researcher was introduced to the observed classrooms by the individual teacher participants. Thereafter, parent consent and learner assent forms were given to learners who agreed to participate in the observation process. Detail of the research, particularly the research profile, was explained to the learners in their various classes. The letters addressed to parents contained the details of what the research was about, which enabled the parents to give assent, based on the adequate information provided (see Appendix H). In the process of observation, the researcher was a non-participant/spectator in all 16 classes observed. The researcher sat at the back of each classroom which enabled all mundane and other activities to be observed and recorded. This was done after the researcher had visited each one of the observed classroom three times to familiarise herself with the learners.

Non-participant observation can be foreshadowed using structured and detailed notations of behaviour, actions or incidence guided by checklists (Rossman & Rallis, 2012). Observation was carried out with the aid of checklists to understand how professionally prepared for inclusive education in Nigeria the participating primary school teachers were. The checklist was developed based on studies of the professional preparation of teachers for inclusive education, including those of Majoko

(2018), Pantic and Florian (2015), and Black-Hawkins and Florian (2011). Aspects observed were the inclusivity of the teaching and learning content, the process, environment and the product. These included the organisation of the classroom, assessment, teaching methods, teaching mediation, support, subject matter, class management, resources and infrastructure (see Appendix J). The use of a checklist facilitated the systematic collection of data as similar aspects were observed across the 16 participants.

Non-participant observation enabled the researcher to capture the interactions of the teacher and the learners and vice versa, which enabled the researcher to interpret the findings objectively and to be able to compare them with the findings of individual interviews. Rossman and Rallis (2012) postulate that to create lasting records of events, observation can include video-recording. Relevant pictures of events and the physical environment of the research sites were taken after permission was obtained from the primary school teachers, school authorities, learners and parents of the learners in each observed classroom. Participants were observed teaching diifferent primary school curriculum subjects, including mathematics and English. These observations lasted 30 minutes, each in line with the official time allocation per primary school subject per lesson in Nigeria. The following section discusses document analysis.

5.6.3 Document analysis

Document analysis involves examining significant documents that provide valuable data to resourceful investigators (Merriam, 2009). Researchers use document analysis to strengthen the findings obtained from interviews and observations (Marshall & Rossman, 2016). Documents are textual material and images recorded without the intervention of the researcher (Bowen, 2005). Different types of documents for analysis include personal documents, official documents, textbooks, public records, physical evidence and artefacts such as tools, toys and historical weapons (Marshall & Rossman, 2016; Mertens, 2010). Merriam (2009) adds that congressional records, individual programme records, and statistical databases on education statistics are documents that the researcher may find valuable in educational enquiry. In the present study, the researcher analysed the lesson plans of teachers, workbooks

of learners, ESSPIN training manuals, national policies and legislation on education, class timetables, ESSPIN lesson plans and parent participation records from the 16 primary school teachers to augment the data collected through individual interviews and non-participant observations. Official documents, such as the National Policy of Education, Lagos State policy on inclusive education and ESSPIN documents were retrieved from the Internet by the researcher because most of the participating teachers had no access to these documents or were not aware of their existence.

The components for analysis focused on the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education with respect to the content, process, product and environment of teaching and learning. These components were gleaned from previous studies on the professional preparation of teachers for inclusive education. These included Allday et al. (2013), Voss and Bufkin (2011), and Yang and Rusli (2012). Maree (2007) reveals that when a document is used as a data collection technique, it is important to focus on any written communications that will give insight into phenomenon under study. Document analysis enabled the researcher to verify some issues that arose during interviews and non-participant observation. A pilot study is as discussed in the ensuing section.

5.7 Pilot study

A pilot study is a preliminary small version study carried out in preparation for the actual study (Wheeler, 2010). A pilot study examines the research procedures, method and data collection instruments and helps to identify any problem (Polit & Beck, 2010). A pilot study can be used to refine and address any identified problem in the research procedure and instruments before the time and resources are invested on the actual research project (Chenail, 2011). A pilot study was conducted to determine the feasibility of the execution of the full-scale study on the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria. The pilot study enabled the researcher to pre-test the individual interview questions, the non-participant observation checklist and the documents obtained for document analysis.

De Vos, Strydom, Fouché, and Delport (2011) state that the practical aspects of getting access, making contact with participants and conducting detailed interviews

should be employed in the pilot study. The permission to carry out the pilot study was sought and secured from the Lagos State Ministry of Education. Four primary school teachers, two males and two females, were selected from two regular primary schools in the Ikorodu local education district, Lagos State. In line with a suggestion by Mertens (2010), samples selected for the pilot study were similar to the main study population but were not involved in the full-scale study. Thus, these participants met the inclusion criteria to participate in this study. Approval to carry out the pilot study was granted by the principals of the two primary schools where the participants were selected. A meeting was arranged with the individual primary school teachers where the researcher explained the intention of the study. Participants were informed that the pilot study was to be used to identify any potential problems with the research procedure, research instruments and to help determine the feasibility of the main study. Participants were also informed of their voluntary participation, and confidentiality and anonymity, in line with research ethical considerations. The four primary school teachers were given consent forms that they signed before their participation in the pilot study.

Leon, Davis, and Kraemer (2011) opines that the pilot study helps to develop and test the adequacy of the research instruments, assesses the feasibility of the full-scale study, determines resources needed, examines the realistic nature of the research protocol and establishes whether sample frame and technique are effective. The pilot study began with individual interviews with the selected primary school teachers which lasted for 50 minutes on average. The interviews were audiotaped with the informed consent of the participants. This enabled the researcher to establish the feasibility of the interview length in the actual study. The pre-test questions helped the researcher to establish whether the sub-research questions were addressed. Questions that warranted yes or no responses were identified and removed. The pilot study enabled the researcher to merge individual interview questions that had similar concepts which avoided repetition, for instance “how do you teach diverse learners”, and “how do you respond to the needs of diverse learners” were rephrased because they connoted the same concept. Equally, non-participant observation was piloted with the individual primary school teachers in their separate classes during lesson presentation and relevant documents were obtained from them. The pilot study helped to refine the

observation checklist and identified relevant documents for document analysis. The next section discusses the description of the research location.

5.8 Description of the research locations

Ikorodu is a coastal city in Lagos State and one of the indigenous divisions that make up Lagos known as IBILE. The I stands for Ikorodu, the B stands for Badagry, the I stands for Ikeja, the L stands for Lagos Mainland and Island and the E stands for Epe. The semi-urban town is situated in the north-east of Lagos State and shares boundaries with Ogun State to the north, the Lagos lagoon to the south and Epe town in the east (Nigeria-Galleria.com, n.d.). Historically, Ikorodu is an extension of Ijebu and the people there the Ijebu dialect. Traditional occupations in the area include fishing, trading and farming. With modernisation and migration, Ikorodu has become one of the most densely populous cities in Lagos, with over four to five million inhabitants. Major townships around Ikorodu are Bayeku, Ibeshe, Ofin, Isanwo, Egbin, Ijede and Igbogbo.

Ikorodu has 57 public primary schools, 12 secondary schools, several private schools and one tertiary institution (ikoroduoga.net, n.d.). Lagos State has six educational districts and the four regular primary schools selected for the study were under Educational District II Maryland. The schools catered for learners with diverse unique learning needs including learning disabilities, visual impairment, hearing impairment and physical and motor disabilities. The description of each school is presented below. The original names of the schools were not used as they were given pseudonyms to protect their identities in line with the research's ethical consideration of safeguarding the anonymity and confidentiality of participating institutions and individuals. Figure 5.1 below shows the map of Ikorodu.

Figure 5.1: Map of Ikorodu

Source: ikoroduoga.net

Research location 1: Obas

The school was established in 1955. It is located at the centre of Ikorodu, adjacent to several shopping complexes and close to a shopping plaza. The school shares a compound with two other primary schools and has a population of 920 learners and 35 teaching and non-teaching staff. The school has a School Based Management Committee (SBMC) headed by the head teacher with the involvement of some community members. The school has a counselling unit that provides counselling sessions to both learners and parents when the need arises. Although the playing field appears to be in good condition and the toilets in good shape, overcrowded classrooms presented a challenge to teaching staff due to limited space.

Research location 2: Akete

The school was established around 1982 with just one class, two teachers and a head teacher. Two years later learners were brought from different schools to occupy space in the school. At the time of this study, the school had 21 teachers, 11 non-teaching staff and 814 learners. The school shared a compound with a secondary school that had a population of about 3 000 learners. One major challenge in the school was limited space due to over-population. The school has 12 classrooms; 6 classrooms were not in good shape, and consequently, the remaining 6 classes were congested.

For example, one classroom hosted at least 150 learners. The school toilets lacked sanitary water and the environment was fast deteriorating due to a muddy floor. When it rained, the muddy floors were slippery which endangered the wellbeing of learners. The school needs a library, computers, a sickbay, and furniture, including television sets and DVDs for ECCDE learners.

Research location 3: Gbogbo

The school was founded in 1955 by one educationist from the Ministry of Education of Nigeria. Later the school was taken over by missionaries but in 1975 Lagos State took over the school. At the time of the study, the population of learners at the school was 1 538 with 29 teaching and non-teaching staff. The environmental condition of the school was fast deteriorating, having dilapidated buildings, flooding problems, the lack of hygiene, the indiscriminate dumping of refuse and over-population of learners. The school lacked amenities such as a functioning library, computers, desks, benches and chairs for learners.

Research location 4: Eko

This is the oldest primary school within the Ikorodu axis which was established in 1892 by missionaries to cater for the indigent learners at the time. The school started with 40 learners and only one teacher, who was the head teacher. The school moved to its present location in 1946 and, at the time of the study, had 895 learners and 24 teaching and non-teaching staff members. The school was easily accessible and close to the main local market in the town and surrounded by old dilapidated buildings and untarred roads. From its inception, the school has not been well funded. Most classroom windows and doors were ramshackled and the school compound was not tarred and not maintained, hence its appearance was not conducive to teaching and learning. The school lacked adequate amenities incuding a functioning library, computers, desks, benches and chairs. The next section discusses the data analysis.

5.9 Data analysis

Data analysis is the methodical organisation and synthesis of research data (Polit & Beck, 2010). It involves a process of collating and reducing all data accumulated in order to develop an understanding of the data and to transform it into findings (Bogdan

& Biklen, 2016; Patton, 2015). Constant comparison analysis and content analysis were used to analyse data obtained through individual interviews, non-participant observations and document analysis, in line with Leech and Onwuegbuzie (2007), who recommend that using more than one type of analytical tools can enhance the understanding of data.

Content analysis involves the process of concurrently coding raw data and the creation of the categories that capture relevant characteristics of the document content (Merriam, 2009). Constant comparison analysis is the most common analytical tool in qualitative analysis (Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2007). Another term for this is "coding" (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Constant comparison analysis or coding is a construct generated by the researcher. It symbolises and attributes interpreted meaning to individual data chunks for later purposes of pattern discovery, categorisation, theory building and other analytical processes (Saldana, 2011b). Both analytical tools can employ inductive reasoning because codes, themes and patterns emerge from raw data (Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2007; Merriam, 2009). An inductive approach was used during data analysis as it allowed the researcher to immerse herself in the data corpus and this enabled the emergence of new insight.

Some authors argued that there is no standardised procedure for data analysis in a qualitative study (Patton, 2015). However, the researcher adopted the analytical model recommended by Miles et al. (2014) to analyse data collected through individual interviews, non-participant observations and document analysis, in this study. Miles et al. (2014) identified three steps of qualitative analysis which include data reduction, data displays and drawing conclusion/verification.

Data reduction involves transcribing, editing, segmenting and summarising the data collected and then coding, creating categories, and finding themes or patterns (Miles et al., 2014). The researcher organised all audiotaped interviews, observation checklists and documents collected into workable units. Thereafter, audio-recordings of interviews were transcribed into textual format. Similarly, all observation checklists and scribbled notes from the observations, including notes jotted from the documents, were converted into expanded write-ups that were readable. The researcher read and reread all transcribed and edited data to ensure that no information was left out. The

data corpus was then broken into chunks or segments. According to McMillian and Schumacher (2010), segments are meaningful bits of data in the form of words, phrases, sentences or paragraphs. The researcher organised all segments to enable coding. Data coding entails assigning names, phrases or symbols to the data segment (McMillian & Schumacher, 2010). The researcher labelled all segments to generate codes, and then compared all codes to identify similar and different codes. All codes that were similar in nature and shared the same concepts were grouped to create categories. The researcher further analysed and sorted the categories to identify categories that share similar concepts. Thereafter, categories that shared the same concepts were grouped to create sub-themes, and all sub-themes were arranged using the sub-research questions in this study to generate themes.

The second step of data analysis is data display, which involves the process of compressing, organising and assembling information with the aid of charts, matrix tables, diagrams or graphs (Miles et al., 2014). Data displays are employed in all the stages of analysis because they enable organisation and summarisation of data. Drawing conclusion/verification is the third step of data analysis. The main aim of data reduction and data display is to help in drawing conclusion. The conclusion drawn needs to be verified in order to substantiate the findings (Miles et al., 2014). The researcher cross-checked all data analysed to ensure that all information was adequately captured.

Data analysis occurs in two stages in a multiple case study design. The first stage is involved within case analysis and the second stage is cross-case analysis (Merriam, 2009). Merriam (2009) further postulates that data analysis within a case is treated as a comprehensive case in and of itself. Saldana (2011b) added that there are diverse participants with diverse perspectives and diverse experiences within a single setting. Each case in this present study has four participants, and their views, feelings and experiences differ. Interview transcripts, observation checklists and scribbled notes from the observations and notes jotted from the documents obtained from individual participants were first analysed using the above-mentioned analytical model. Thereafter, data analyses of the four participants within a single case were compared and contrasted. Once each case had been analysed, a cross-case analysis was done using the same analytical model. The level of analysis in a multiple case study

research design can lead to a single description across cases, categories, themes or topology that conceptualises the data from across cases (Merriam, 2009). Categories, sub-themes and themes were derived across cases to produce findings of the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria. See Figure 5.2 for highlights of the cross-case data analysis process.

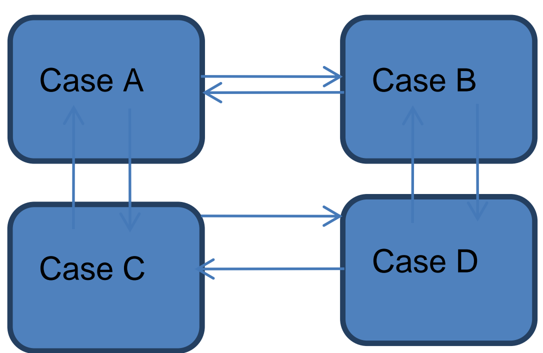


Figure 5.2: Representation of cross-case data analysis process

Source: Author

Saldana (2011b) argues that qualitative data is primary textual material but not exclusively non-quantitative in character. The researcher employed some statistics and percentages to illustrate issues like the biographic data of participants and the observation checklist. The next section presents trustworthiness of the study.

5.10 Establishing trustworthiness

Trustworthiness is the process of adhering to rigour in the entire process of qualitative study (Bowen, 2005). Trustworthiness is concerned with the extent to which study data is credible, truthful and standard (Schwandt, 2007). Truthfulness in this study was realised through researcher honesty in the entire process and paying careful attention to the data collection, methodology used, including data presentation and analysis. Rossman and Rallis (2012) posit that qualitative data should be conducted in an ethical manner, maintain acceptable norms in terms of practice and should be sensitive to the politics of the topic and setting. Credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability are the pillars for ensuring trustworthiness in a qualitative study (Merriam, 2009). The ensuing section discusses each pillar.

5.10.1 Credibility

Credibility deals with the truth value in the findings of a study (Bowen, 2005). According to Merriam (2009), credibility is concerned with the degree of consistency in the findings of a study. Triangulation, peer-debriefing and member-checking are employed in qualitative research to maintain credibility (Schwandt, 2007). Triangulation and member-checking were used to ensure the credibility and accuracy of the findings of the present study. Data triangulation involves the clarification of data against numerous data sources or participants to establish truth value (Baxter & Jack, 2008). Individual interviews, non-participant observation and document analysis were used to obtain data from primary school teachers on their professional preparation for inclusive education in Nigeria. See Figure 5.3 below displaying the triangulation of data sources.

Triangulation enabled the researcher to cross-examine the data collected through individual interviews against data obtained through non-participant observation and document analysis. Triangulation can also be done by employing two or more individuals to independently analyse the same data and making comparisons of the findings (Patton, 2015). The researcher gave the data corpus collected through individual interviews, non-participant observation and document analysis to two post-doctoral fellows that specialised in the field to separately analyse it and the two later met with the researcher to compare and share views on the analysed data. See Figure 5.3 below that shows the data triangulation diagram.

Member-checking entails the process of sending the analysed data back to the participants to cross-check and confirm the truthfulness of what was understood (Yin, 2014). Data obtained through individual interviews, non-participant observation and document analysis was e-mailed to the participating individual primary school teachers. This allowed the participants to cross-check and confirm the accuracy of the data. All the participants reported the data collected and analysed was a true reflection of their expressions. The next section discusses transferability.

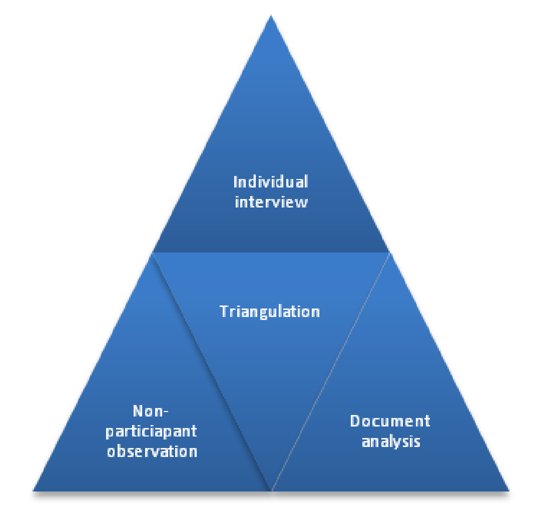


Figure 5.3: Triangulation by data sources

Source: Author

5.10.2 Transferability

Schwandt (2007) compared transferability to external validity. Transferability is concerned with the degree to which the findings of a study can be applied to other situations and contexts (Merriam, 2009). Transferability can be obtained through thick description of data and the study context so that other researchers/readers may find the applicability of the findings of a study to other contexts or similar contexts (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). In-depth descriptions of the four sites where the research was conducted were provided. The researcher fully described the primary school teachers' understanding, practices, perceived concerns and strategies to enhance their professional preparation for inclusive education in Nigeria. Equally, the details of the research method, research procedure and instruments were provided. Merriam (2009) argues that generalisation in the statistical sense cannot happen in qualitative study but that cannot rule out that something cannot be learned. The detailed description of the research procedure provided in the present study will enable readers to transfer the findings of the study to their contexts or situations. The following section presents dependability.

5.10.3 Dependability

Dependability refers to how consistent the findings of a study are over a period of time (Baxter & Jack, 2008). A complete record of the research procedure and design and method should be accessible in order to establish the merit of a study (Bryman, 2012).

An audit trail was used to realise consistency in the present study. An audit trail entails providing a comprehensive account of the research method, procedures and decision points in carrying out a study (Merriam, 2009). Full details of the research methodology and design were provided. The process of data analysis and decisions that led to the findings were clearly outlined. Thus, good qualitative researchers get their validity claims from the ability to prove convincingly how they got there. The next section discusses confirmability.

5.10.4 Confirmability

Confirmability, according to Schwandt (2007), is comparable to objectivity. Confirmability is the degree to which qualitative study is free from bias and preferences (Guba & Lincoln, 2005). It specifies the extent to which the findings of a study can be authenticated and are free from the perspectives and opinions of the researcher (Polit & Beck, 2008). The researcher remained objective throughout the entire process of the research by maintaining honesty and integrity. Creswell and Creswell (2018) postulates that participants should be afforded the opportunity to verify whether the findings of a study are the exact information they provided. Primary school teachers who participated in this study were afforded the opportunity to go through the data transcribed from individual interviews, non-participant observation checklists and document analysis in order to verify the accuracy of what was captured and to make sure that no preconceived or figment data was recorded. All participants reported that the presented and analysed data reflected their exact expressions. The subsequent section discusses ethical issues that were observed in the present study.

5.11 Ethical considerations

Complying with ethical issues is crucial in research (Corbin & Strauss, 2015). To a great extent, the validity and reliability of a study depends on the ethics of the researcher (Merriam, 2009). Since the researcher and participants often interact face-to-face in qualitative research, a strict measure should be laid down in order to obtain consent, ensure confidentiality and develop mutual trust (Corbin & Strauss, 2015). In this study, the researcher addressed the following ethical issues: permission, informed consent, confidentiality and anonymity.

5.11.1 Permission

Saldana (2011a) posits that study proposals should be reviewed by an affiliated body that a researcher belongs to in order to guarantee the ethical conduct of the work and safeguard the research design. Ethical clearance to carry out this study was obtained from the Research Ethics Committee of the College of Education, University of South Africa (UNISA) (see Appendix K). The permission to carry out a study in the Ikorodu educational district was obtained from the Lagos State Ministry of Education (see Appendices A and B). The approval letter received from the Lagos State Ministry of Education was taken to the four selected regular primary schools in Ikorodu where the researcher handed it to each school principal. Likewise, the letter requesting permission to carry out the study within the school premises was handed to each school principal (see Appendix C).

5.11.2 Informed consent

Informed consent is one of the grounding principles and legal requirements of research ethics (Marshall & Rossman, 2016). Potential participants must be fully informed about the research procedures, risks and benefits before seeking the consent to participate in the study (Patton, 2015). Before commencing data collection, the researcher convened a meeting with the individual primary school teachers where she explained the study's purpose, duration, procedures, benefits, potential risk and any discomfort that might occur. Corbin and Strauss (2015) argue that participants are volunteers who must be treated with dignity. The participants were informed that they were not obliged to participate in the study because participation was voluntary and they were free to withdraw from the study at any stage if they felt uncomfortable. After explaining the study detail, the researcher gave each participant an informed consent form and participants were allowed some time to reflect on the entire research process that was discussed to ensure they did not feel under pressure to respond or sign the form. The participants signed the consent form without any coercion (see Appendix G).

5.11.3 Confidentiality

It is important to protect the identities of participants in studies. Stake (2010) recognises that qualitative researchers are guests in the private space of the world, who should conduct themselves in good manner and adhere to a code of ethics. Individual interviews carried out with each primary school teacher facilitated the

protection of their privacy. The researcher and each participant had a private session without a third party involved which allowed the primary school teachers to express their views and divulge confidential information regarding their understanding, practices, concerns and needs about inclusive education without intimidation or embarrassment. Babbie and Mouton (2010) reveal that confidential information should be treated securely and safely for the protection of trust. Participants were assured that all information obtained during individual interviews, non-participant observations and document analysis was to be treated confidentially. The participants were guaranteed that all hard copies of data were to be kept safe and stored in a locked filling cabinet by the researcher, while electronic information was stored on a password protected computer for a period of five years. Thereafter, both electronic and hard copies of information would be permanently destroyed by the researcher.

5.11.4 Anonymity

McMillian and Schumacher (2010) posit that the identities of the participants need to be protected from the general public when reporting findings of a study. Qualitative researchers are advised to use pseudonyms or assumed names for places and individuals to protect their identities (Creswell, 2014). Pseudonyms were used to represent participants and their institutions in this study. The researcher ensured that the participants were not recognisable through prints or pictures and the pictures taken during non-participant observations were edited to protect their identities.

5.12 Conclusion

This chapter discussed the research paradigm, research approach, research design, population and sampling method employed in the study. This chapter also presented the data collection instruments such as individual interviews, non-participant observation and document analysis. A pilot study, data analysis, trustworthiness and ethical considerations were established. The following chapter presents data presentation and analysis.

CHAPTER 6: PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF FINDINGS

6.1 Introduction

The present study examined the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria as the context for strategising and proposing a model for enhancing their preparation. The previous chapter presented the research methodology and design of the study. This study was embedded in the qualitative research method and multiple case study design and utilised individual interviews, non-participant observations and document analysis to collect data from 16 teachers in regular primary schools in Nigeria. The collected data was thematically analysed using the sub-questions of the study as the organising framework. The constant comparative method was used to analyse data that was gathered through individual interviews and non-participant observations, while content analysis was used to analyse data that was collected using document analysis. As indicated in Section 5.9, the data was initially analysed within each case and later across case analysis was carried out in accordance with the multiple case study design analysis framework. Four major themes derived from the sub-research questions of the study and their respective sub-themes that emerged from the data are presented. Verbal quotes of the participants were used to present data for authentication of the findings of the study. This study addressed the following main question and its sub-research questions:

6.2 Main research question

How professionally prepared are primary school teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria?

6.3 Sub-research questions

- How do primary school teachers in Nigeria understand inclusive education?
- How do primary school teachers in Nigeria implement inclusive education?
- What are the perceived concerns, if any, of primary school teachers in Nigeria regarding implementing inclusive education?

- What strategies can be proposed to enhance the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria?
- What model can be proposed to enhance the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria?

6.4 Profiles of participants

The profiles of sixteen teachers that took part in the study are presented in the four tables below. Pseudonyms were used to guarantee the anonymity and confidentiality of the participants in compliance with research ethical considerations. For example, MideSchA means teacher Mide in school A. The tables present the participants' qualifications, age, gender, teaching experience, grades, the categories of diverse unique needs of learners and the total number of learners in the respective classes that participated in the study. The rationale behind the provision of profile information was to afford readers with the generic background and experience of the participants that were involved in the study to promote their contextual understanding of the findings of the study.

Table 6.1: Profiles of participants at school A

Participant	Teaching Experience (years)	Number of learners in class	Age of Participant	Gender	Grade	Qualifications	Diversity categories
Mide	3	60	26	Male	5	B.Ed.	Visual impairment, learning disability, physical and motor impairment
Dayo	6	65	35	Male	4	B.Ed.	Learning disability, attention deficit hyperactivity disorder, hearing and visual impairment
Ope	2	64	29	Female	6	B.Ed.	Physical and motor disabilities
Yemi	2	60	22	Female	5	B.Ed.	Emotional and behaviour disorders, hearing impairment

The table above presents the demographic information of teachers and the classes that participated in the study in school A. The participants were two females and two males. All participants had bachelor's degrees in education and their ages ranged

between 22-35 years. The teaching experience of the participants ranged between 2-6 years and the number of learners in their classes was between 60-65 learners. The categories of the unique needs of the learners reported by participants, likewise identified in their record books and seen during non-participant observations, were visual impairment, learning disability, physical and motor disability, attention deficit hyperactivity disorder, hearing and visual impairment, emotional and behaviour disorder.

Table 6.2: Profiles of participants at school B

Participant	Teaching Experience	Number of learners in class	Age of Participant	Gender	Grade	Qualifications	Diversity categories
Jide	5	76	34	Male	4	B.Ed.	Socio-economic problem
Bisi	15	102	40	Female	2	B.Ed.	Socio-economic challenges, emtional and behaviour disorder, hearing and visual impairment
Titi	5	150	35	Female	6	B.Ed.	Down syndrome, visual impairment
Bose	3	150	35	Female	5	BSc/Ed.	Learning disabilities, behaviour problems

The table above presents the demographic information of teachers in school B. The participants were three females and one male. All participants had bachelor's degrees

in education. The ages of participants ranged between 34-40 years and their teaching experience ranged between 3-15 years. The number of learners in their classes was between 76-150 learners. The categories of unique needs of learners reported by participants, likewise identified in their record books and seen during non-participant observations, were visual and hearing impairment, socio-economic challenges, behaviour and emotional disorder and Down syndrome.

Table 6.3: Profiles of participants at school C

Participant	Teaching Experience	Number of learners in class	Age of Participant	Gender	Grade	Qualifications	Diversity categories
Doyin	2	90	37	Female	3	B.Ed.	Socio-economic problems, behaviour problems
Bukky	2	80	30	Female	1	B.Ed.	Socio-economic problems, behavioural problems, gifted and talented and learning disability
Tayo	16	75	36	Female	3	B.Ed.	Gifted and talented, learning disability
Toyin	15	62	37	Female	4	B.Ed.	Learning disability, visual and hearing impairment, behaviour and emotional disorder

The table above presents the demographic information of the teachers in school C. The participants were four females and they all possessed bachelor's degrees in education. The ages of the participants ranged between 30-37 years and their teaching experience ranged between 2-16 years. The number of learners in their classes was between 62-90 learners. The categories of unique needs reported by participants, likewise identified in their record books and seen during non-participant observation, were visual and hearing impairment, gifted and talented, learning disability, socio-economic challenges and behaviour and emotional disorder.

Table 6.4: Profiles of participants at school D

Participant	Teaching Experience	Number of learners in class	Age of Participant	Gender	Grade	Qualifications	Diversity categories
Kemi	5	60	32	Female	7	B.Ed.	Behaviour and emotional disorder
Shola	2	55	29	Female	2	B.Ed.	Dyslexia, gifted and talented, socio-economic challenges
Segun	3	65	31	Male	6	B.Ed.	Dyslexia, socio-economic challenges
Bayo	8	65	39	Male	5	B.Ed.	Physical and motor impairment, gifted and talented and learning disability

The table above presents the demographic information of teachers in school D. The participants were two females and two males. All participants had bachelor's degrees in education. The age of the participants ranged between 29-39 years and their teaching experience ranged between 2-8 years. The number of learners in the participants' classes was between 55-65 learners. The categories of unique needs reported by participants, likewise identified in their record books and seen during non-participant observation, were behaviour and emotional disorder, dyslexia, giftedness and talentedness, socio-economic challenges, physical and motor impairment and learning disability.

Cross-analysis of the demographic information of the participants presented in the four tables above revealed that (n-11) were female and (n-5) were male. The age of the participants ranged between 22-60 years. Regarding teaching experience, the tables indicate that most teachers (n-13) had between two to eight years of teaching in regular classrooms. Participants (n-3) had 15 to 16 years of teaching experience in the regular classrooms. The tables further show the diverse categories of learners that teachers confronted in their various classes. Ten categories of unique needs were identified (Tables 6.1 to 6.4). These include physical and motor disabilities, visual impairment, residual hearing, Down syndrome, learning disability, gifted and talentedness, dyslexia, behaviour and emotional disorders, socio-economic challenges, and attention deficit hyperactivity disorder. All participants possessed bachelor's degrees in education which were obtained between the years 2001-2015. The following section presents the study's findings.

Table 6.5: A summary of themes and sub-themes that emerged from the analysis of data

Themes	Sub-themes
Teachers' understanding of inclusive education	• Integration • Special education • Literal understanding • Educational process • No understanding of inclusive education
Teachers' practices in the implementation of inclusive education	• Management of teaching and learning environment • Teaching strategies • Support • Management of the implementation of inclusive education
Teachers' concerns regarding the implementation of inclusive education	• Initial teacher preparation • Practices of inclusive education • Disposition and beliefs
Strategies to enhance the professional preparation of teachers for inclusive education	• Human and material resources • Modules required for initial teacher preparation

6.5 Theme 1: Teachers' understanding of inclusive education

Participants (n-13) revealed a divergent understanding of inclusive education. This included an understanding of inclusive education as integration, special education, literal understanding and educational process. Overall, all the participants demonstrated a lack of understanding of inclusive education as they were short of articulating its fundamental components. Inclusive education is founded on the access, participation, acceptance and success of all learners in the process, content, product and environment of their neighbourhood regular school classrooms in their natural proportions regardless of their individual differences. The following section presents the participants' understanding of inclusive education as integration.

6.5.1 Sub-theme 1: Integration

Participants (n-4) revealed that they understood inclusive education as integration in education. These participants exhibited that they understood inclusive education as the teaching and learning of learners with special needs or disabilities, including those who experience marginalisation, challenges and academic underachievement, in regular classrooms together with their peers without special needs or disabilities. Thus, inclusive education was understood as the exposition of learners with and without special needs or disabilities to the same teaching and learning in the regular school classrooms without the thrust of meeting their individual learning needs. Such education was reported to be in compliance with the right of both children with and without special needs to learn together. Nevertheless, participants were short of articulating that the use of child-centred pedagogy takes centre stage in inclusive education, as revealed in the following excerpts.

MideSchA stated that:

> *"Inclusive education is the education where you actually bring together children with disabilities in the normal classroom with children that are not having disabilities. And, moreover, there is more to that. Inclusive education refers to children having challenges or maybe children that are marginalised or children that are underachievers in the school settings who have been merged together with children without challenges."*

According to TayoSchC:

> *"Inclusive education is for every child. It may be those with disabilities and non-disabilities they have to participate. They have a right to learn together in the class because they have equal right in this world. They are all children."*

OpeSchA stated that:

> *"Inclusive education is the model where students with special needs are taught in the classroom alongside their general education peers. Or should I say, a student with special needs learns under the same roof or they share the same physical place and interact in academic work."*

JideSchB further added that:

> *"Inclusive education is just when children with and without disabilities learn together in the same class and the teacher carry them along together. He/she doesn't separate them but teach them together as one."*

I observed that participants MideSchA, ToyinSchC, YemiSchA, TitiSchB, JideSchB, KemiSchD and SholaSchD strategically placed learners with specific disabilities in classrooms in seating positions that promoted their teaching and learning in response to their unique needs. In all five of the classes, learners with low vision were observed seated in the front row, close to the chalkboard to enable them the comfort of seeing work on the chalkboard. Learners with residual hearing were observed seated close to the teacher participants to help their hearing during teaching and learning. Learners with ADHD were observed seated close to the tables of the teacher participants for close monitoring and to keep them on-task during teaching and learning. Through follow-up discussions, participants revealed to the researcher that the seating positions of the above-mentioned groups of learners were adopted to intervene and assist with their respective barriers to teaching and learning. The National Policy of Education (NPE) of Nigeria (FRN, 2013) mandates that the education of learners with special needs in the regular education classrooms, together with their typically developing peers, should be without spelling out the content, process, and product of such education. While the management of the seating by the teacher participants was seen to promote access to the teaching and learning of the learners with specific disabilities, it can be perceived as promoting exclusion within inclusion as these learners had reserved sitting positions in their classrooms. The participants' understanding of inclusive education as special education is presented in the following section.

6.5.2 Sub-theme 2: Special education

Two participants exhibited that they understood inclusive education as special education. These participants demonstrated that they understood inclusive education as the education of learners with disabilities in specially designated schools that cater for specific disabilities. Inclusive education was understood as an alternative mode for

providing education to learners with disabilities in special schools to ensure that they accessed education, including literacy.

DayoSchA expressed that:

> *"Inclusive education; personally, what I believe is that it is the branch of education which covers for students or learners with learning disability or disabilities in special schools because disability could range from learning disability to physical disability."*

BisiSchB added that:

> *"Inclusive education is the teaching of children that are not really okay, who are separated for their own special education. They are separated for their own special education, for example, blind school, the deaf school. The handicapped that cannot walk but they must be literate so those are the inclusive ones. That is what I understand."*

I observed that the above participants seated learners with and without unique needs together, differentiated instruction and used child-centred pedagogy in their delivery of lessons. During the mathematics lesson, BisiSchB explained the concept of multiplication to the whole class using the Yoruba language which was the medium of instruction for Primary 2 (Grade 2). Although the mathematics textbook was written in English, the participant read out each question to the learners and translated it into the Yoruba language for learners to understand it. I observed that she grouped eight learners together and she stressed the concept to them using different examples and probed with follow-up questions to each one of them to ascertain their understanding. In the follow-up discussion, the participant informed the researcher that the eight learners were above the age required for the Primary 2 (Grade 2) class. These learners came from disadvantaged socio-economic backgrounds. Some of them were child domestic workers who were sent to school by those for whom they worked. The lesson plans of all the participants had no specific teaching and learning content, activities and assessment that were tailored to the individual needs of diverse learners. The participants' support of the above learners with diverse unique needs manifesting from age and language revealed that 'they walked their talk', that learners with visible

disabilities were the preserve of special schools. The following section presents the literal understanding of inclusive education of the participants.

6.5.3 Sub-theme 3: Literal understanding

Three participants exhibited a literal understanding of the phrase "inclusive education." These participants demonstrated that they understood inclusive education as the mere placement of learners with and without diverse unique needs in the same classrooms. In the demonstrated literal understanding of the meaning of inclusive education, participants revealed that learners should be placed in the same classrooms with their peers regardless of their diverse unique needs. This was illustrated by the following statements:

ToyinSchC stated that:

> *"When we say inclusive education, it means that we include any pupil in education. No matter the challenges of the pupils, we include them in education."*

TitiSchB added that:

> *"Inclusive education means when you include something in another one. Maybe you join the education of pupils without challenges together with those with challenges, when you combine them in the same classroom setting, in the same school building without separation."*

MideSchA further said that:

> *"When you talk about inclusive education, you have to look at diversity in race, ethnicity and religion. Children come from different backgrounds, different ethnic groups, and different races. So everybody has to come together; you have to build everybody together in one house, like accommodate them all together."*

Although learners with diverse unique needs and their typically developing peers were observed in classrooms of DayoSchA, BoseSchB, and BukkySchC, they were not participating in the teaching and learning activities. Their placement did not reveal inclusive education because the learning content, activities and assessment were not adapted to accommodate their individuality. The literal understanding of inclusive

education could be attributed to the presence of these diverse groups of learners in regular classes, coupled with the lack of training on inclusive education and the absence of school and government in its implementation. In 2008, the International Conference on Education 48th session titled “Inclusive Education: The way of the future” (UNESCO, 2009) articulated that inclusive education is a right-based vision that responds to the needs, characteristics, abilities and learning expectations of diverse learners and their communities. The following section presents the participants’ understanding of inclusive education as an educational process.

6.5.4 Sub-theme 4: Educational process

Four participants revealed that they understood inclusive education as a formal and informal pedagogical process that meets the diverse needs of learners in the same classroom for their advancement in life with respect to the acquisition of literacy, numeracy and norms. Such understanding was grounded in a regular classroom teaching process that maintains equity and equality for learners with diverse unique needs manifesting from individual and systemic variables, including disability, race, ethnicity, rurality, urbanicity, religion, morality, behaviour and age. Such expression demonstrated an understanding of learner diversity by the participants. Nevertheless, they were not articulate of other factors which are integral in addressing the diversity of learners in regular classroom teaching and learning, including pedagogical content, environment, assistive devices and assessment besides the process.

YemiSchA reiterated that:

> *“Inclusive education is a form of teaching or learning process, a situation where both children with disability and those that are not disabled are taught or learn in the same classroom. That is, children with disabilities in the form of different race, those from rural areas and the urban areas are mixed in the same class, being taught and learn in the same classroom, and also seen equal and deserve the same opportunity and experience.”*

ToyinSchC further stated that:

> *“Inclusive education is for all children no matter their age, no matter what they are passing through or any condition they have. We include them in education because education is for all, no matter how they are, their moral, their behaviour,*

their challenges, physical challenges. We include them in education for them to know, to come to the light because education shows light to all."

BukkySchC articulated that:

"If there is no opportunity of education some of these pupils will be hawking along the street but with the assistance of our able governor in Lagos State, almost all the pupils around in Lagos State have the opportunity of going to school. We don't have any pupils hawking around during the school hours any longer."

SegunSchD felt that inclusive education constitutes the infusion of formal and informal instruction to foster literacy, numeracy and social norms in learners. This was elaborated when he expressed that:

"Okay, inclusive education relates to all the aspects of education a child needs to acquire. Maybe bringing them up in a way that both the formal and informal method of imparting knowledge is embedded in them, they are able to comprehend in numeracy, literacy and in the general social norm."

Learners with diverse needs were seen in all observed classes of the participants. These included learners with learning disabilities, visual impairment, ADHD, hearing impairment, giftedness and talentedness, and learners from different socio-economic, cultural and linguistic backgrounds. In all classes observed, some learners had no uniforms, shoes, bags and stationery. In the class of DoyinSchC, the researcher observed that some learners were wearing incomplete uniforms and some had torn and dirty uniforms. After observation, DoyinSchC told the researcher that some of the learners came from less privileged socio-economic backgrounds, hence they lacked educational stimulation and could not afford stationery. The class registers of all the participants constituted learners from diverse socio-economic backgrounds, including those who were taken from the street, child-domestic workers, and those from poor economic backgrounds. Documents such as ESSPIN's Inclusive Education approach, achievements and evidence 2010-2016 (ESSPIN, 2016) and Lagos State inclusive education policy, Section 4.1 (2015) recognise inclusive education as an education system which meets the needs of all learners and an approach to increase school accessibility and to combat the out-of-school children issue. It spells out that inclusive education requires addressing the learning needs of diverse learners through

equitable access to appropriate functional education and life skill programmes so that learners can realise their goals in life. Participants demonstrated a limited understanding of inclusive education as they ascribed it to only a teaching and learning process that meets the individuality of learners, even though it constitutes other components. The next section presents the participants' lack of understanding of inclusive education.

6.5.5 Sub-theme 5: No understanding

Participants (n-3) exhibited a lack of understanding of inclusive education. These participants reported that they lacked the knowledge and information about inclusive education. Participants reported that they had not been trained on inclusive education and were hearing about it for the first time in the individual interviews.

DoyinSchC stated that:

"Please can you throw more light on that [inclusive education]?"

DoyinSchC further added that:

"I have not really gotten the picture of the inclusive education you are talking about. I wasn't trained."

Shola SchD articulated that:

"It is the first time I'm hearing the name inclusive education."

The above participants were observed using teaching and learning strategies that seemed to address the diversity of learners in their delivery of lessons. For example, during a counting and number pattern lesson in mathematics, SholaSchD drew number lines on the board and called individual learners out to write the missing odd numbers on the number lines. Learners who got the concept correct were applauded while those who missed the concept were encouraged. SholaSchD later retaught the concept of even and odd numbers to the whole class. Analysis of the daily lessons' plans of the participants revealed that they had singled out learners with special needs. The record book of BoseSchB, for instance, indicated names of learners who had learning disabilities and behaviour and emotional disorders respectively. DoyinSchC's

record book had the names of learners who had socio-economic challenges and behaviour and emotional disorders respectively. SholaSchD's record book indicated learners who had dyslexia, socio-economic challenges and those who were gifted and talented. Follow-up discussions with these participants indicated that learners with disabilities were officially identified by the participants, and NGOs that voluntarily partnered with schools and health professionals that visited schools to assess learners' needs. The above participants used child-centred pedagogy and intervened in the alignment with best practice in regular education though they were short of addressing the diversity of the needs of learners as revealed in their record books.

6.6 Theme 2: Teachers' practices in the implementation of inclusive education

Participants reported that they used diverse practices in implementing inclusive education. These included managing teaching and learning environments, teaching strategies, and the support and management of implementation. These practices were seen to meet the individual needs of all learners in regular classes.

6.6.1 Sub-theme 1: Management of teaching and learning environment

Various efforts to manage the teaching and learning environment to realise inclusive education in regular classrooms were mentioned. It was revealed that seating arrangements, a buddy system and ability grouping were strategically managed during teaching and learning in regular classrooms to realise inclusive education. The following section presents seating arrangements.

6.6.1.1 Seating arrangements

Three participants indicated that they strategically managed the seating arrangement of learners with disabilities, including those with partial hearing and residual sight, in implementing inclusive education. This included seating learners with disabilities in specific classroom positions in response to their observed and self-reported learning needs manifesting from their exceptionalities. The strategic seating arrangement of learners with disabilities was seen as an intervention that facilitated access to the teaching and learning of these learners. This included reducing the distance between teachers and learners with specific needs such as low vision and residual hearing

during teaching and learning which was felt to promote the accessibility of the taught content to these learners.

YemiSchA stated that:

> *"When I find out about the boy who is partially deaf, the first step was to bring him to the front of the class, bring him closer to where I would be."*

ToyinSchC reiterated that:

> *"We [teachers] put them close to the chalkboard. Some that have impairment to hear we put them near us. When we are teaching we put them near to us so they can hear us."*

TitiSchB elaborated:

> *"I change the child's seat. I can change the seat of the child. I ask the child to sit where he can see well. I ask, "Do you think this place will be convenient for you?" If he says no, I change to another place, or if it is the one that needs to move back a bit, maybe he's too close to the board, I try to adjust, and if the child now says "I'm okay here, I can see very well", at least I know I have done justice to that."*

I observed that participants MideSchA, ToyinSchC, YemiSchA, TitiSchB, JideSchB, KemiSchD and SholaSchD seated learners with different unique needs in strategic positions in their classrooms to promote the inclusion of these learners in their regular classrooms. Learners with low vision were observed positioned in the front row, close to the chalkboard, to facilitate their comfort of seeing the work written on it. Learners with residual hearing were observed seated close to the teachers to facilitate their hearing during teaching and learning. Learners with disruptive behaviour in the classrooms were seated close to the participants' tables in order to closely monitor these learners and to keep them on-task during teaching and learning. Information regarding learners' seating arrangements was clarified during discussions with the participants. Pictures 6.1 and 6.2 below show the seating arrangement of learners in TitiSchB's and SegunSchD's classes respectively. TitiSchB's class (Picture 6.1) had 150 learners. She arranged her learners in fours on a seat/bench and those with low vision were conveniently seated in the front row, close to the chalkboard. The seating

arrangement in SegunSchD's class (Picture 6.2) did not have the traditional row format. The class contained 65 learners and learners were arranged in threes on a seat/bench. SegunSchD reported that the double horseshoe seating arrangement enabled him to place learners with attention deficit hyperactivity disorder where he could monitor and contain their behaviour, and those with low vision were seated close to the chalkboard. Analysis of all the participants' lesson plans specified different strategic seating arrangements for learners with diverse unique needs. Although participants attempted to be inclusive by placing learners with specific disabilities in strategic seating positions in the classrooms to promote their teaching and learning, this form of seating arrangement had the potential to exclude these learners from the rest of the class. This was because the seating arrangement pronounced the individuality of learners as they were seated in specific classroom positions based on their deficits. This was because the focus was on what learners could not do instead of what they could do.

Picture 6.1: Showing seating arrangement

Picture 6.2: Showing seating arrangement

6.6.1.2 Buddy system

Participants (n-7) reported that they used the buddy system in implementing inclusive education in their regular classrooms. The use of the buddy system was felt to enable

typically developing learners to support their peers with disabilities during teaching and learning, to promote collaboration between typically developing peers and their peers with disabilities and assisted the teachers who could not afford to give individualised instruction to these learners. Thus, the buddy system was seen to promote meeting the needs of learners with learning disabilities in the classroom.

MideSchA reported that:

> *"I form study groups and I also paired the good ones with slow learners. The fast learners are mixed with the slow learners so that they can take part in the teaching and learning process."*

BoseSchB said:

> *"Like some of those children that learn slowly, I group them with those that learn fast. I give them group work so they can learn from that since I cannot go to them individually to explain. By grouping them together with those that learn fast and working together, they collaborate with that they learn better."*

TayoSchC added that:

> *"At times we mix them (extrovert learners) so that other learners can bemnefits from them. Some of them (extrovert learners) are so brilliant, they talk very well and they are very sharp."*

TitiSchB expressed that:

> *"We, teachers, since we know the boy challenge, we tried to assist him. We sometimes assist him in writing since he cannot write fast like others. We put him beside very brilliant pupils so that they can assist him to meet up."*

ToyinSchC explained that:

> *"We had a seminar where they taught us how to help these children. They said we should group them. We should have group work for them. And we should mix them together with gifted children and should not downgrade them. We should encourage them and try not to downgrade them. Even if they say the right or wrong answer, we are told to encourage them. So, therefore, we go back to the class, we practise those things. Like those pupils that have challenges in their*

eye, difficulty in reading the book and reading what you are writing on the board, we include them by teaching, by arranging the way they sit. So we ask gifted children in the class to help them."

BayoSchD added that:

"The introverts find it difficult to have rapport with others. You know children learn better with their peers. But the introvert finds it difficult to go on with others who are extrovert, like playing football or engaging in extra curriculum activities. So what we do now is to group them. We don't allow them to sit down together in the same row. So one extrovert, like, they are three using a long chair, so two extroverts and one introvert on a chair, because the ratio of the extroverts are more than the introverts in class. Since they will learn better with their peer, they will get him along and this has been somehow helpful."

From a different perspective, SegunSchD reported that he paired a learner who was absent for a long time due to family crises with a learner who was always present in the classroom to assist him to catch up with school work.

SegunSchD expressed that:

"Then we group him among those that are punctual in attendances. Those regular pupils, we pair them together so that he will be able to catch up, aside from the extra sacrifices the teachers have to do. So that is the way we help him come along, I mean to catch up with the basic things left undone for the period he was absent."

During my observation, only participants MideSchA, ToyinSchC, SegunSchD and BayoSchD used the buddy system. ToyinSchC had 62 learners in her classroom. She divided them into 8 groups; while 6 groups had 8 learners each, the remaining two groups had 7 learners each. Each group constituted boys, girls, learners who were gifted and talented and those with learning disabilities, as she self-reported after observation. ToyinSchC gave them the task of listing examples of livestock. The learner, who was gifted and talented, and who was appointed as a team leader, was observed explaining the meaning of livestock to his peers who needed clarification, helping them to perform the task. Also, BayoSchD employed the buddy system by

sitting two learners, who were extroverts, and one learner, who was an introvert, together. He later explained that the learners who were introverts were placed among learners who were extroverts so they could assist during the teaching and learning process. The need to meet the individuality of learners in the context of large class sizes informed the participants' use of the buddy system. Although during the interview session BoseSchB acknowledged using the buddy system in her pedagogical practices, observation of her mathematics lesson that lasted for 40 minutes revealed otherwise as she was observed employing ability grouping. BoseSchB assigned learners to convert fractions into decimals and learners that performed the task were separated and seated on the right side of the classroom. Those that struggled to carry out the task were seated at the left side of the classroom and she retaught the concept to them while her colleague assisted with overseeing those who were at the right side of the classroom to carry on working on a class activity on the same topic from the textbook. A further discussion with BoseSchB revealed that the limited timeframe, classroom space and large population of learners hindered her from implementing the buddy system. Analysis of documents, such as literacy and numeracy lesson plans primary one to five, and ESSPIN guidelines for conducting pupil assessment to support teaching and learning primary one to three (ESSPIN, 2016), specified the use of the buddy system to enhance the teaching and learning of learners with special education needs.

6.6.1.3 Ability grouping

Participants (n-3) reported that they separated learners with learning disabilities from their typically developing peers to address the needs of these learners during teaching and learning in implementing inclusive education. Ability grouping was perceived as a strategy of intervention for learners with learning disabilities during teaching and learning. It was believed to enable participants to meet the individual needs of learners with learning disabilities in the community of the regular classroom. SegunSchD, who claimed to use the strategy with 20 learners, identified with dyslexia, explained that:

> *"So, the selected ones that can't read, then we also group them into different groups; the 20 of them we split them into groups, five in each group, then we give them a daily work to do."*

He added that:

"After the class we organise a separate lesson for them."

OpeSchA declared:

"When I have two periods which is 80 minutes, I will separate the ones that are learning well from the ones that are not learning well. Probably I will group them (learners with special needs) and bring them closer to myself and start explaining again, and from there I'm achieving something."

DayoSchA averred:

"I would divide the class so that it will not be physically seen that these learners are having learning challenges. My attention is always on the individual needs of the learners. It just an issue of identifying the child's needs, and the topic should be taught in a way that will cater for the children without each of them knowing one is deficient in one way or the other."

In all the 16 classes observed, only BoseSchB and BisiSchB separated learners in order to afford them additional support during teaching and learning. There was no evidence of separation or ability grouping in the lesson plans of all the 16 participants. Thus, these participants were practising what they had not planned. Although participants BoseSchB and BisiSchB indicated that separating learners with special needs from the rest of the class enabled them to respond to their learning needs, this strategy contradicts inclusive education that is rooted in the avoidance of exclusive practices which might perpetuate stigmatisation and the labelling of those learners separated from typically developing peers.

6.6.2 Sub-theme 2: Teaching strategies

Participants reported that they used various teaching strategies in pursuit of the realisation of inclusive education in their regular classrooms. These included a caring ethic, identification of special needs, question and answer, role play, reinforcement, homework, differentiated teaching strategies, repeated instruction, adapted instruction and individualised instruction.

6.6.2.1 A caring ethic

Five participants reported that in practising inclusive education, they established and nurtured positive social relationships with their learners in order to be acquainted with them and vice versa, and as a springboard for fostering in them the readiness to learn. This was felt to be embedded in the use of interactive teaching and learning strategies. Participants indicated that their caring ethic made learners feel free to express themselves, to relax and be jovial, which was perceived to enhance their teaching and learning. This was reflected in the following selected excerpts.

YemiSchA indicated that:

> *"The first thing I did when I started was to make everyone feel comfortable with me. I make every one of the students feel comfortable with me. I make them feel happy. It wasn't really strict. I didn't present myself as a really strict person that will deal with them. I make everyone friendly. I try to get to know their names, get to interact with them before going into lesson."*

TitiSchB expressed that:

> *"But we carry out an interactive session in some cases, an interactive session where you can see things between them yourself. You want every one of them (learners) to talk, to participate. You want to see what each (learner) can bring out."*

TayoSchC further elaborated that:

> *"At times, I use a discussion method. Like during the teaching, I will ask them a question. I will also tell them to ask me a question so that we mix up together. I will sit with them and behave as if we are equal so that they will not fear me."*

KemiSchD added that:

> *"I make my class interactive class not teacher-centre but student-centre, so I can hear the opinion of students. This makes me know what students understand. It also helps slow students because they were able to discuss with their mates and their mates can explain what I am teaching to them (learners with special needs)."*

DayoSchA further said that:

“I have basic interaction with my students.”

I observed that participants YemiSchA, DayoSchA, OpeSchA, TitiSchB, KemiSchD, TayoSchC and BayoSchD used interactive teaching and learning strategies, including discussion, quizzes and puzzles that promoted the active involvement and participation of learners during teaching and learning. In TitiSchB’s class, I observed that about one quarter of the learners were participating in a class discussion on cultural heritage during cultural and creative arts lesson. The participant focused on learners, who were seated close to the front rows, and rarely engaged learners in the middle and extreme back seats in the class discussion. Nevertheless, TitiSchB was assisted by a peer teacher to monitor and ensure that learners were not disturbing the class during teaching and learning. Learners at the extreme end and a few seated in the middle were quiet and were not participating in the class conversation. Some learners were observed drowsing during the discussion. Thus, although participants used interactive teaching and learning strategies in practising inclusive education, they were not a guarantee of the active involvement and participation of all learners in teaching and learning as they required them to be attentive to all learners.

Analysis of learner textbook “ESSPIN literacy and numeracy lesson plans primary one – five” (ESSPIN, 2016), earmarked the use of an interactive approach such as class discussion, quizzes and puzzles to facilitate learner engagement during teaching and learning.

6.6.2.2 Identification of special needs

Participants (n-9) revealed that they used formal and informal strategies to identify learners with special needs to inform teaching and learning in their regular classrooms in practising inclusive education. Assignment of class tests, projects and tasks to learners as well as daily interaction with learners and interviewing them were felt to enable participants to identify learners with special needs. The formal and informal collection of information about learners was seen to promote the participants’ holistic understanding of them individually, which informed needs-responsive teaching and learning of these learners.

DayoSchA articulated that:

"My first point of course is getting to know my pupils. When I get to class, what I usually do in my first class, I do general introduction, so I introduce myself and everybody introduces themselves that will help me to know them. I have basic interaction with my students. I may not get all the information in my first class but the subsequent class I will be able to diagnose through interaction and class exercise. I will be able to know who is who."

ToyinSchC added that:

"So when they first enter like the first term, we use this period to identify them, knowing their names, knowing what they are passing through. Then we identify them and know their weak area; those that have a problem with hearing, those that have a problem with vision and those that have a problem with tuition then we recognise them in our first time."

BukkySchC elaborated that:

"If I see any pupils having challenges, I called them to me personally. I will interview him or her because the challenges may not even be in school, the challenges may be from home. There are some pupils maybe he or she have not eaten or maybe he or she is being maltreated at home by the stepmom. At least by interviewing the child, I will know the kind of challenge the child is facing. Most of the challenges are not always in school. It is always from home; like the child that don't eat from home. From interviewing her, we got to know that she didn't eat from home."

TitiSchB reported that:

"We have our normal test, we do project. We do practical but you realise that some of them are not good when it comes to a test and a test majorly is not the major factor to determine how brilliant or how dull a child is."

OpeSchA reported that learners with special needs were identified during teaching and learning.

According to her:

"When they give their own ideas and I see the ones keeping quiet, probably the ones with learning barrier not saying anything, you know, through questioning, when I asked questions. When I'm teaching, I will ask them different questions so their responses will make me know if they are learning or not; so I would use their responses to work on that."

MideSchA added that:

"Maybe you give them a task to do and he/she is unable to do the task. Note there are some that would grasp very fast, while some grasp very slow. This is how you will determine this one is a slow learner and this one is a fast learner."

YemiSchA further added that:

"So you should be able to actually know those who follow and actually get your point and those who aren't while teaching. Then you will be able to realize that their minds are possibly somewhere else."

SegunSchD expressed that:

"Yes. I can identify with the level they comprehend the subject matter. Those who are extroverts you easily identify when they understand you but the introvert you need to move close to them to talk to them properly."

JideSchB added that:

"By the virtue of teaching them, you see some of them are having that kind of disability."

At the time of non-participant observation in all classes, there was no test or examination administered to assess learners. However, I observed that participants were scaffolding learning, adapting the learning environment for some or differentiating instruction where necessary. Follow-up discussion with participants revealed that those learners that received interventions in the form of scaffolding, adapted learning environment or instruction were previously identified as experiencing barriers to learning.

All lesson plans of the 16 participants showed there were learners with special educational needs in all the classes. A combination of formal and informal diagnosis of learners facilitated the identification of learners with special needs that informed teachers' practices in implementing inclusive education in regular classrooms.

6.6.2.3 Question and answer

Participants (n-3) reported that they used question and answer during teaching and learning in implementing inclusive education in regular classrooms. The use of question and answer was seen to motivate learners to learn, to reveal the baseline knowledge of the learners and to illuminate the new topics that they needed to learn as it revealed their knowledge gaps. The use of question and answer was also believed to promote the understanding of taught concepts and the active participation of learners who were introverts during teaching and learning in regular classrooms.

BayoSchD explained that:

> *"The approach we use is children centre. It makes it more interesting because we have more of the extroverts. We throw questions at them, they tell us what they know about the topic you are talking about, and when children provide answers to what you are teaching them they give you clues on the new topic you are about to teach. It makes them participate better. When they participate better in the class, they understand better what you are introducing or what you have taught them."*

OpeSchA added that:

> *"I will first like ask the children what they understand by what I'm teaching and what the topic means."*

TayoSchC further expressed that:

> *"The introverts are the ones that hardly talk even if I'm teaching them. I force them to ask a question or ask them questions because they will not raise their hands. They are not so sharp."*

In all observed classes, participants used question and answer to enhance the teaching and learning of all learners. Participants questioned learners in the introduction phases of their lessons to captivate their interest and accumulate information on their previous knowledge to establish their entry competence. For instance, BayoSchD introduced the lesson on elementary science by asking learners to describe plants. Some learners were giving chorus answers but he deliberately called a few learners to answer the question. Two learners among those called were unable to describe plants. BayoSchD code-switched to the vernacular (Yoruba) to interpret the question, and only then were the learners able to respond to the participant using the vernacular. After BayoSchD posed questions to the class, he then introduced the topic of that day to the class, which was "photosynthesis".

Analysis of the textbooks of learners, particularly Basic Science and Technology Book 4, revealed that it encouraged the use of question and answer to promote the active participation and involvement of learners during teaching and learning process. Participants used question and answer, which is, in general among the best strategies used to teach.

6.6.2.4 Activities based

Two participants reported that they used activities-based teaching and learning in practising inclusive education in regular classes. This included the use of role play, rhyme, song and dance in teaching and learning. Activities-based teaching and learning was seen to foster belongingness and understanding of taught concepts of learners.

SegunSchD reiterated that:

> *"At times I make use of the role play method. In the sense of maybe the topic I'm teaching has to do with acting so I select those ones that can really act or speak. So the method I use for such kind of teaching is inclusive making sure that even the emotionally challenged, the slow learner, the brilliant ones participate. When they act in that drama, I mean that with role play every one of them will participate and thereby they will all have a sense of belonging in the teaching and learning process."*

KemiSchD added that:

"Like that playing method now, like the Yoruba subject. There is time. We need to go outside to do something, maybe the rhyme they will sing, they will dance, and they will jump up and down so by that they will grasp the topic."

In all classes the researcher observed, there was no evidence of role play during teaching and learning. In social studies, physical education and cultural and creative arts classes, participants explained and discussed the concepts. There was no role-playing, simulating or dramatising the concepts. However, analysis of the document "Making the education system inclusive for all children: ESSPIN's Inclusive Education approach, achievements and evidence 2010-2016" (ESSPIN, 2016) indicated that drama and role play will boost learners' ability.

6.6.2.5 Reinforcement

Participants (n-7) reported that they utilised both positive and negative reinforcement for learners with special education needs in implementing inclusive education in regular classrooms. This included the use of role models and a blend of material and non-material rewards to motivate these learners to learn. Motivation strategies, such as reassuring and not condemning when learners performed below expectation, including the praising and giving of prizes to achieving learners, were reported to be used during teaching and learning. Nevertheless, participants reported that they were not always successful in the use of reinforcement for learners to learn. This was elaborated in the following selected extracts.

KemiSchD expressed that:

"I don't discourage them when they raise their hands up and give wrong answer. I will take it easy and say no that is not the answer, you are not correct, this is the correct answer."

JideSchB added that:

"You have to try to make them understand that they are all the same, but the student should focus on his or her education."

TayoSchC said that:

“Introverts at times are too slow, slow in writing, slow in talking. Unless you push (motivate) them, they won’t push themselves. I will motivate them at times, some will be fast but some still will not finish till the period runs out.”

YemiSchA expressed that she used herself as a role model. This was elaborated in the following quote:

“So when I saw she was really interested in the way we look, I tried to encourage her that if you know you want to be like us you need to go to school. You need to forget about marriage. I gave examples of others using things I know she would like. Like if she wants to live a luxurious and flashy life, she has to read and leave this village and try to better herself after schooling and go to the university.”

TitiSchB reported that:

“We give appraiser; sometime it might not be appraiser on mouth alone. We give merit and sometime we say that if you are able to be through with your work and you get it, we have a gift for you. That will cheer them up to want to do more. We give prizing, we have prize giving day. It’s not that we totally condemn those who fail, we just let them know that it is just like a game. In a game we must surely have a winner and one of them must surely be the first.”

DoyinSchC added that:

“I will motivate them by calling those ones that got 5 out of 5 or 4 out of 5 and I will ask the class to clap for them so that others can improve. At times, I’m giving them something, like pencils, pens, rulers. Before we start the lesson, I will tell the children that if they get 5 out 5 or 4 out 5 I will give a gift like a pencil, a ruler or so. I will rate the gift so that they will be motivated.”

ToyinSchC further expressed that:

“We use a different approach to cheer them up. Like we have pupils that praise to cheer them up to make them pick up.”

I observed in all the classes that participants used reinforcement to promote the teaching and learning of learners with learning disabilities in regular classes. Learners who were able to provide correct answers during social science in TayoSchC's class were applauded and praised. I observed BisiSchB motivating learners identified as above the age required for Grade 2 placed in her class. Participants' reinforcement, both positive and negative, seems to have been directed only at learners with learning disabilities that could have resulted in their segregation and marginalisation by their typically developing peers.

The analysis of documents, specifically, classwork books of learners, revealed that teachers used motivational words such Excellent, Very Good, Good and Try again in commenting on written exercises.

6.6.2.6 Repeated instruction

Four participants reported that they used repeated instruction in the teaching and learning of learners experiencing barriers to learning in practicing inclusive education in their classrooms. Repeated instruction was perceived to facilitate mastery of taught content for learners with learning disabilities. This was because it was seen to meet the individuality of learners with learning disabilities.

OpeSchA articulated that:

> *"Those with challenges or disability, I have to go over and over repeating it to them, going step by step until they understand and get what I am teaching very well."*

DoyinSchC added that:

> *"You have to teach and teach them all over again before they could get it."*

BukkySchC further said that:

> *"When the fast learner finishes, I still need to go back to the slow learners, that's what I do in my own case. Those who don't understand, it means I will repeat it again and in the next class I am going to repeat the lesson before going to the next topic."*

According to ToyinSchC:

"We have slow learners. The system we are using to carry them along is by repeating what we say. We do repetition for those pupils in the class. We make sure we repeat what we say so that they will catch up in their teaching and learning."

All participants observed were using repeated instruction and reinforcing important concepts for more clarity to meet the needs of learners with learning disabilities. ToyinSchC was observed explaining the meaning of livestock during the agricultural science lesson. She repeated several times, using different examples for learners to get a clearer picture of the concept.

Analysis of learner textbook "ESSPIN literacy and numeracy lesson plans primary one – five" (ESSPIN, 2016) revealed that it encouraged the use of a repetition strategy to enhance teaching and learning.

6.6.2.7 Homework

Three participants reported that they used homework in practising inclusive education in their classrooms. Homework was felt to close learning gaps in learners and afford them revision of learnt concepts. States in Nigeria were reported to mandate the assignment of homework in a specially designated workbook of learners, namely a continuous assessment book, as shown in the following selected excerpts.

TayoSchC stated that:

"We give them an assignment every day. It is very compulsory in Lagos State. Homework is very compulsory. Even in our lesson notes we have to put it. If any teacher did not put an assignment at the end of it, the lesson note is not going to be marked. The headmaster or the head mistress will not mark it. It is very compulsory but at times it is only English and Maths. Our assignment is only English and Maths but on Friday there is a book called CA (continued assessment). This CA is for homework. All the subjects are in the book. The children go home with it on Friday and submit it on Monday so that during the weekend they will not play too much."

SegunSchD expressed that:

> *“To fill in the vacuum, we (teachers) give him some take home assignments where he will be able to go and read. We give him some revision work to do.”*

YemiSchA4 further added that:

> *“I tried to explain further to him and give him an assignment.”*

In all classes I observed, participants assigned homework to all learners at the end of each lesson. I observed that TitiSchB assigned her learners to describe different customs, foods, languages, dialects and dresses found in the south-west and south-south area of Nigeria as the homework that they were required to submit after a week. Equally, BoseSchB assigned a homework exercise on fractions to learners which they were expected to submit in the following mathematics lesson.

Analysis of all lesson plans of the participants indicated that homework was assigned to learners at the end of each lesson. In follow-up discussions, participants explained that homework was compulsory and also contributed to the continuous assessment of learners. Thus, the assignment of homework to learners could have been done by participants to comply with State policies.

6.6.2.8 Differentiation of teaching strategies

Participants (n-3) reported that they differentiated teaching strategies in practicing inclusive education in their classrooms. This was indicated to entail the use of specific teaching strategies in response to the uniqueness of individual learners. Differentiation of teaching strategies was believed to meet the diversity of learners as it was felt to address their individuality, including their unique styles, pace and modalities of learning.

MideSchA expressed that:

> *“I actually differentiate methods to suit their needs, to suit the needs of children having challenges so that everyone is easily carried along in the teaching and learning process. So I do differentiate my teaching methodology often so that they (learners) are carried along in the teaching and learning process.”*

He continues that:

> *"For a slow pupil like that, what I need to do is that, maybe there is a need, maybe my teaching methodology is not that good, I have to implement another teaching strategy maybe a play way method, using another method just to carry the pupil along, so that he or she is not left out of the teaching and learning process."*

OpeSchA reiterated that:

> *"These pupils don't learn at the same rate. Some by just explaining, they already get what you are saying. Those are the pupils without learning barriers. But those ones with a learning barrier, you need to start from the scratch by giving different examples."*

DayoSchA elaborated that:

> *"Those that learn through audio, they are audio learners. Some are visual learners so my own task in language class is make sure they all participate and learn at their own rate. I adopt different methods to make them learn. I feel it is something that should be adopted in all subjects. My attention is always on the individual needs of the learners. For some, I slow down my teaching to accommodate them, especially those with attention problem. For a normal developed child, I assigned a task of a higher rate because some learn at a faster rate, so I assigned different task."*

The researcher observed in all classes that participants varied teaching methods but these methods were used for all learners in the class except in certain instances. For example, BisiSchB differentiated a task to learners identified to be above the normal required age for the Grade 2 class. These learners were grouped together and she gave them extra support and assigned different tasks to them during class activity. During the follow-up interview, BisiSchB revealed that she had two categories of learners who experienced barriers to learning in her class. These included those who were underage for the grade and those who were above the required age for the grade. During observation, I saw that BisiSchB primarily supported learners who were above the required age for the grade. A follow-up discussion with BisiSchB revealed that those underage learners had a nonchalant attitude and were not mature mentally and

emotionally ready for the grade so she purposely did not support them so that they could repeat the grade.

Apart from participants BisiSchB's and SegunSchD's classes, analysis of workbooks of learners obtained from all observed classes revealed that class activity was not differentiated for learners. Learners were assigned the same tasks for class activities and homework. Workbooks of learners who were above the required age in BisiSchB's class constituted assignments that were tailored to their individual needs. In the same way, SegunSchD tailored assignment to certain learners' needs. In a further discussion, SegunSchD revealed that those learners were having challenges and one was absent for a long time due to home circumstances. The lesson plans of all the participants did not specify class activities or tasks tailored to the individual needs of diverse learners. Thus, participants selectively differentiated teaching strategies for learners in practising inclusive education in their classrooms.

6.6.2.9 Adapted Instruction

Participants (n-5) reported that they adapted instruction in practicing inclusive education in their classrooms. Adapted instruction was perceived to include affording learners contextualised pedagogy, simplified English language, probing questions for formative evaluation of learning and supportive learning materials. The use of adapted instruction was seen to address the individual learning of all learners.

YemiSchA expressed that:

> *"Since it a rural environment, I tried to use words they are more conversant with not big grammar. I tried to make them use English they are more conversant with."*

DayoSchA added that:

> *"I also get extra books that explain or simplify the work for pupils."*

OpeSchA expressed that she taught at learners' level of understanding; this was elaborated in the following except:

"I will try to bring the topic down to their own (learners) understanding so they can say something from their own point of view; from there we will start developing the topic gradually. If I see they are not getting it, I would go back to their level, starting with examples that will make them understand, until they get the topic."

BukkySchC added that:

"What I usually do is to come down to that particular child level. You know when you are teaching them in a class, you have the fast learners and we have the slow learners, so I need to come to his level, I don't need to rush through."

KemiSchD further added that:

"For them you can't just assume that as you are teaching everybody understands at the same time so that is why I ask questions."

In eleven classes, I observed that participants switched the medium of instruction, which was English for the grades, to the Yoruba language to explain and clarify lesson concepts and to accommodate learners who were struggling with a second/additional language. I observed JideSchB reading the English lesson to learners; thereafter, he explained some words in Yoruba. During the lesson I observed that he code-switched repeatedly to Yoruba. I observed BukkySchC teaching at her learners' pace and using easy words for her Grade 1 learners to comprehend. She taught addition in mathematics using Yoruba throughout the lesson. She simplified concepts by using different examples.

Analysis of the Lagos State inclusive education policy document Section 4.1 reveals that it required teachers to adapt the curriculum in order to accommodate all learners without discrimination. However, the lesson plans obtained from all participants did not specify teaching and learning content, activities and assessment that were tailored to the individual needs of diverse learners.

6.6.2.10 Individualised instruction

Six participants expressed that they used individualised instruction in practising inclusive education in regular classes. This was reported to entail participants' teaching of learners with unique needs individually after whole class teaching and dialoguing with individual learners to identify their support needs. Individualised teaching was believed to address the learning needs of individual learners.

DayoSchA stated that:

> *"My learner with an attention problem I do a lot of individual work with him. My work don't stop with the 40 minute class period."*

YemiSchA added that:

> *"I tried as much as possible to dialogue with everyone in the class. I dialogue with them one-on-one to know where they really need extra helps."*

TitiSchB said that:

> *"I can call him sometime to bring his notes. I will look at the notes. I will try to bring him closer to me."*

BukkySchC further added that:

> *"As a class teacher, when I have taught all the pupils, the one with hearing problem I taught her separately because she can hear. I take her one-on-one so she will be able to hear me very well."*

SegunSchD explained that:

> *"The child is taken through a process and it's basically an individual thing between the teacher and that child where the academic work that was done when the child was absent will be provided for the child."*

BayoSchD expressed that:

> *"You need to move close to them, talk to them probably when you are less busy, when others might have gone on break. Then I called them one-on-one to know whether they have understood the lesson."*

None of the 16 participants the researcher observed utilised individualised instruction to accommodate or support learners with special needs and there was no evidence of such practice in their record books and lesson plans.

6.6.3 Sub-theme 3: Support

Participants reported that support to learners, via educational media, involvement of parents, co-teaching, school-based support and support from NGOs promoted their implementation of inclusive education in their classrooms. The following presents additional support to learners.

6.6.3.1 Additional learner support

Participants (n-6) reported that they provided additional learning support to learners who experienced barriers to learning in practising inclusive education in their regular classrooms. This was indicated to include affording learners, who experienced barriers to learning, more attention during teaching and learning in comparison to their typically developing peers, affording these learners specialised teaching, extra time during tests, segregated teaching, after-school classes and extra lessons. This was seen to address the needs of individual learners who experienced barriers to learning.

MideSchA explained that:

> *"I just give them more attention in class because they are having challenges. So I give them more attention in class than the other students so that they are not left out in the teaching and learning process."*

BukkySchC articulated that:

> *"I have a special teaching where I pay special attention to the child. Since the child can still hear so I will only give her extra attention."*

SegunSchD reported that:

"After the class, we organise a separate lesson for them where the charts drawn for them are given to each of them to read and to study."

YemiSchA reiterated that:

"What I do is to offer extra classes. When the child is free during break I tried to explain further to him."

TayoSchC explained that the school had organised after-school class where learners with special needs were supported. This was further elaborated in the following excerpt:

"During lesson period I will ask them to take their notes back and write so they won't disturb others during the teaching. The lesson period is after the normal school periods. We have 8 periods per day. We start teaching from 8.10 to 2 o'clock. After that 2 o'clock, we have a period called school lesson that is one hour from 2-3. The reason teachers pressurise for that period is for the slow learners so that they will complete their notes and all difficulty can be handled in that time."

From a different perspective, YemiSchA explained that she gave the learner extra time to finish his work but during examination she has no authority to give additional time; this was reflected in her illustration:

"So I give him more time to meet up with others."

She further explained:

"But during exams, it took him time to be able to put things down, is not like he didn't know what to write but it took him time to be able to recollect and actually write them down, so in his case he would have needed extra time but it wasn't in my power to give him extra time."

At school A, the researcher observed that DayoSchA moved around the class to provide assistance to learners during English lessons. He spends an extra 5 minutes with learners seated at the back and front rows. In a further discussion, DayoSchA explained that there were 9 learners in the back and front rows respectively who had

difficulties in reading. Likewise, MideSchA spent an extra 10 minutes with two groups who had difficulties in mathematic calculations. During religious studies, I observed that OpeSchA gave extra time for learners to complete the class activity. The provision of additional support to learners who experienced barriers to learning on their time and space in regular classrooms compromised the essence of inclusive education as these learners are expected to be taught in the community of their typically developing peers.

Analysis of the Lagos State policy on inclusive education section 5.5 (2015) reveals that it requires teachers to provide extra time for learners with learning difficulties. Analysis of workbooks of learners obtained from BisiSchB and SegunSchD classes revealed that participants assigned extra work to learners with special needs apart from the homework assigned to all learners. However, all lesson plans of the participants did not specify extra work.

6.6.3.2 Educational media

Nine participants indicated that they used teaching and learning media in practising inclusive education in their regular classrooms. This was reported to include charts, pictures, drawings, environmental features, toys and concrete/real objects. These were believed to promote visual learning, multi-sensory learning, motivation and understanding of taught materials of learners.

SegunSchD expressed that:

> *"We use a chart to also demonstrate the teaching. We draw on the chart; from there pupils can view and they can see."*

KemiSchD added that:

> *"You use pictures, you let them see what you're teaching them and you don't just tell them. They see it, they feel it, and I also bring the material to class for them to see. This makes them understand what I am teaching."*

BayoSchD expressed that:

"The time you show them pictures they will start giving you a lot of things even those things teacher might have not come across. They start telling you and by the time they give you two or three examples they will come up with definition themselves."

BukkySchC further elaborated that:

"We use instructional materials with our lesson note; instructional materials are real. Anything I'm teaching them, I use the instructional materials for pupils to understand what I'm teaching them. For instance, if I'm teaching them social studies or agric, I will make those books very real; that is my instructional materials for the pupils to understand what I am saying. Even the slow learners will understand what I am saying when my instructional material is real and my explanation."

OpeSchA added that:

"Pupils like pictures, something that can catch their attention, so when they see good instructional material they tend to understand better."

BoseSchB expressed that:

"We don't just come to class and talk from A to Z but the pupils see pictures of concrete objects. They see material you are talking about and it lasts longer in their brain. Even when they are writing exams, some of them may not understand but remembering the pictures they saw will make them write so many things on the topic."

TayoSchC further said that:

"In my class, I use teaching aids. Like during mathematics I gather some stones together or the bottle tops for the counters. I'm using them very well. This is helping the children in my class, it makes them understand quickly. In the basic science, I use aids like knives, cutlasses that I brought from home to show the children that is the older method. At times, we don't have the real teaching aids but we draw it on a cardboard paper to show the pupils."

DayoSchA added that:

"By engaging a child through pictures and sound helps a child with attention problem."

MideSchA reported that:

"For the children who are disabled, I use educational toys to teach them."

From different perspectives, five participants reported that they used song or activities in the environment to arouse learners' interest during teaching.

OpeSchA illustrated that:

"I use things in their (learners) environment to teach. Things they (learners) see every day to give example."

YemiSchA added that:

"I gave them things they have to go find out how things are done in their community and when they bring it to the class I tried to compare it to ways things are done in the urban side."

ToyinSchC explained that:

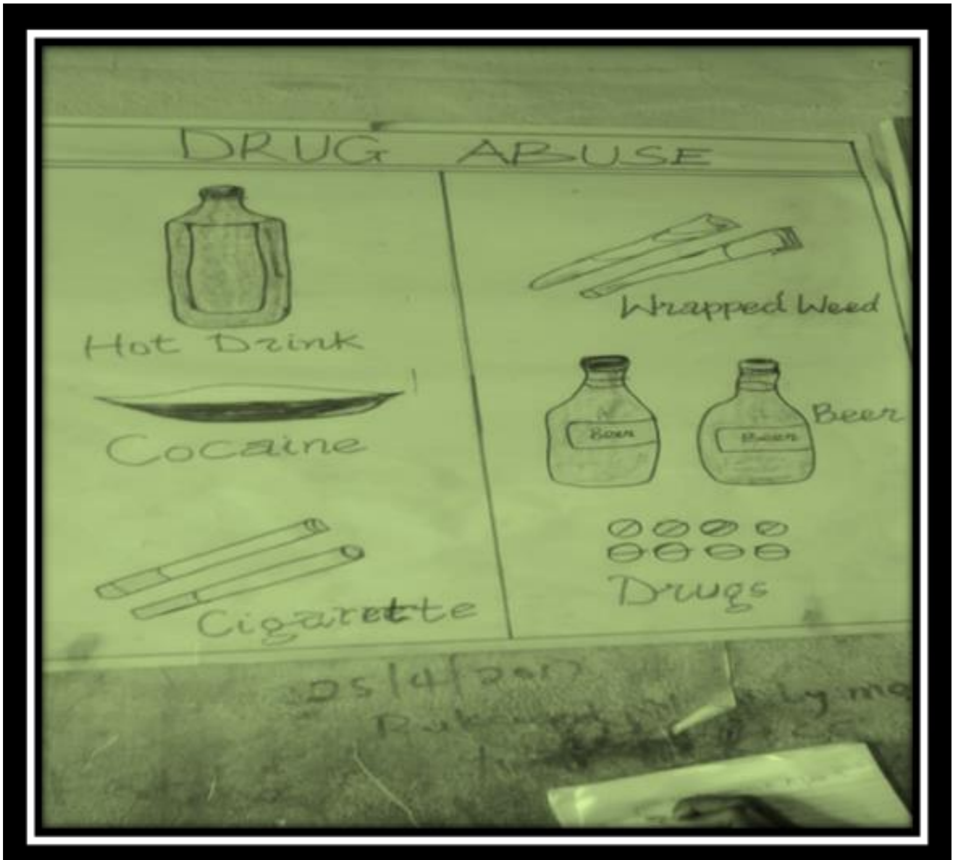
"During the class teaching, we start arousing their interest; sometimes we start by singing to arouse their interest."

In all classes observed, participants used teaching and learning media inclusive of posters, charts, art work, pictures, and counting objects during their delivery of lessons. During mathematics, the researcher observed that learners in BisiSchB's, DoyinSchC's and SholaSchD's classes used bottle tops as counters. A follow-up discussion with participants revealed that counters were mostly used as they simplified teaching and the learning of calculations for learners. KemiSchD used posters and pictures to demonstrate Yoruba cultural practices to the learners. See Picture 6.3 below for posters used by the participant. KemiSchD told her learners that the upper part of the poster (A-D) showed the tribal marks used in Yoruba land to identified Yoruba people. The lower part of the poster (E-F) showed how Yoruba children greet their elders; a boy will prostrate to greet while a girl will kneel to greet the elder. Picture 6.4 below shows a poster used in YemiSchA's class during a social studies lesson on

substance abuse. Participants used teaching and learning media that is used in best practices in teaching and learning in practising inclusive education.

Analysis of all participants' lesson plans and the document "Making the education system inclusive for all children: ESSPIN's Inclusive Education approach, achievements and evidence 2010-2016" (ESSPIN, 2016) specified the use of instructional aids, song and rhymes to facilitate teaching and learning.

Picture 6.3: Different types of Yoruba cultural customs



Picture 6.4: Substance abuse

6.6.3.3 Involvement of parents

Participants (n-7) revealed that they involved parents in implementing inclusive education in their regular classrooms. It was felt that parents understood their children better and information solicited from them was a springboard for improved teaching and learning practices in pursuit of the realisation of inclusive education. The involvement of parents was felt to enable participants to update them about their children's academic performance and welfare and to advise them on how to support children at home. Parental involvement was believed to enable teachers and the parents to supplement and complement each other in the teaching and learning of children in regular classrooms. The following illustrations highlighted participants' assertion on the matter.

OpeSchA expressed that:

“I also ask parents for support because you know that the parents know their children more. Sometimes I ask the parent about their children, what they like, what they know and then I use that to teach the children.”

DoyinSchC explained that:

“We have visiting day where we allow parents to come and check the outcome and books of their children. They ask questions, in fact we have record of that. We ask them to sign and comment on what they see or what they observe about the pupil and what we observe about the pupil we tell them. We tell parents where the children are lacking and we tell them any possible solution to the problem.”

ToyinSchC added that:

“At times we do parent forums, like twice in a term. We don’t do everything alone. We make parents understand that teachers cannot do it alone.”

BukkySchC further explained that:

“When parents have complained based on the class work, maybe complain that some pupils did not take their assignment home, we (teachers) let the parents know that we always give assignments. We teachers do our best at school and we also encourage parents to monitor their child at home. When parents come we show them their children’s text books. We show them textbooks we use for maths, the textbook we use for English and we encourage that if you (parent) can get the textbook, you can use it to assist them (learners/children) at home.”

TitiSchB said that:

“At times I advise the mother to buy a second exercise book, a writing book for him to be able to master his writing properly, so that the teachers can be able to see his writing properly.”

From a different perspective, two participants advised parents to get extra assistance, like a private tutor for learners who were absent from school in order to improve their academic performance.
BoseSchB articulated that:

"What I only do is that I advise their parents to get a private teacher for them after school because it is making the teacher to go back; it is causing a setback for the teacher. So I advise the parent to get a lesson teacher for them at home to teach on those topics we have learnt when they are not around in other to meet up with the class."

BisiSchB added that:

"We (teachers) called on the parent and they put him in evening lessons at home."

The parental participation records obtained from all participants revealed evidence of parental involvement. Parental participation records obtained from SholaSchD revealed complaints reported to parents regarding habitual lateness of seven learners and a learner who was defiant and who refused to comply with class rules. SholaSchD reported in a follow-up discussion that three among the learners, who were often late to school, had not changed their behaviour even with parental intervention. She further explained that the learner, who was defiant and aged 12 years, was the oldest in the class. His parent transferred him from a village school due to poor academic performance and the boy felt embarrassed among children of 7-9 years in Grade 2. The parental participation record obtained from ToyinSchC documented two learners who were often absent from school. Their parents were informed and gave reasons for the learners' absentee. The record showed parents signed an agreement that the learners were going to improve on their behaviour and attend school regularly.

6.6.3.4 Co-teaching

Support from colleagues in the form of co-teaching was mentioned as a strategy that participants used in practising inclusive education in their regular classrooms. Participants (n-5) indicated that their colleagues helped to monitor learners in large classes and provided necessary assistance during teaching and learning. This was seen to afford the participants the space to deliver teaching and learning free from interruptions.

BisiSchB said that:

"When one is teaching, the other one will be going round to make sure the pupils settle and listen to the teaching. They (other teachers) are not sitting down."

Similarly, BoseSchB reported that:

"The other teacher will be at the back to monitor the pupils' notes. You know some of them (learners) will be at the back playing while I'm teaching but she (colleague teacher) will be the one controlling learners at the back so they can pay attention. So whatever I need maybe I need to display my instructional material she will help me with that."

BukkySchC articulated that:

"When someone is teaching, I will assist to take the book and also monitor the pupils in order for them to listen to the teacher and when the pupils see I'm around they won't be able to make noise and they will be silent."

From a different perspective, YemiSchA explained that:

"We all have different subjects to teach. So what I did was the things I notice in my pupils, I will tell my other colleagues. I will tell them what I notice in any learner so when the person (colleague teacher) enters the class he should be able to take note and pay attention to the child."

OpeSchA added that:

"What I do is probably to invite any of my colleagues."

The researcher's observation revealed that co-teaching was used in classes that had a large population of learners. The researcher observed that DoyinSchC was assisted by her colleague to distribute bottle tops used as counters during a mathematics lesson. The colleague later moved around and was stationed at the back of the class to monitor learners seated at the back. Likewise, the researcher observed in TitiSchB's, BisiSchB's, BoseSchB's and BukkySchC's classes that their colleagues assisted with maintaining discipline, where possible, while participants taught the learners. Participants taught the subject alone in all classes observed. Colleagues were observed assisting to display posters, distribute teaching and learning materials and resources to learners and monitor learners. Participants primarily used their

colleagues for maintaining discipline in their classrooms. Analysis of all the records of the participants, particularly lesson plans, did not indicate peer support or co-teaching.

6.6.3.5 School-based support

Four participants revealed that they were afforded school-based support in practising inclusive education in their regular classrooms. Head teachers and schools, in general, were reported to pool teaching and learning media, and assistive devices such as teaching aids and crutches. In the same way, head teachers were seen to monitor, evaluate and advise participants on areas of improvement in their practices in inclusive education, as well as motivating learners to freely engage with teachers on difficulties they confronted in their teaching and learning. Head teachers were also felt to afford moral support to participants although their support was overall felt to be inadequate.

According to MideSchA:

> *"Like my school, they actually provide teaching aids for some people (teachers). Also they provide items like crutches for students with disabilities."*

Likewise, DayoSchA added that:

> *"The school realises that in my class there are different group of students. They know as a teacher who is teaching a student with special needs I need extra support. For instance, I need visual aid, and support in terms of getting materials for these students. The school is trying in regards to support but more support can be appreciated. The school does his bit in providing support because it's never enough what you need, more needs to be done."*

From a different viewpoint, YemiSchA elaborated that:

> *"Like the principal comes into the class to see how the students are catching up then also to talk to students to ask me questions when they don't understand things that's all."*

ToyinSchC added that:

> *"I do have my head teacher coming to my class to watch my teaching and recording things down. Sometimes he will say that your class management is*

50% because some (learners) are playing at the back, some (learners) were talking with friends and not concentrating."

She further added that:

"The head teacher will sit at the back and look at the learning outcome, look at the teaching aids, look at how you carry the children along, how you follow the steps, how you write your lesson plan, telling you your weak area and what needs to improve during teaching. At the end of the monitoring, he will tell you to do like this and like that next time."

Although participants reported that schools supplied them with teaching and learning aids and assistive devices, there was no evidence of such resources in all the classes observed. All the classes observed used the old traditional chalkboard. There was no information and communication technology devices like computers, internet, magnifying devices and augmentative and alternative communication (AAC) devices in all the classes observed. Similarly, lesson plans of all the participants did not indicate school support or the supply of teaching aids or assistive technology. However, analysis of the ESSPIN's Inclusive Education approach, achievements and evidence 2010-2016 (ESSPIN, 2016) revealed that it specified various supports that can ease teaching and learning. Equally, analysis of the Education Sector Support Programme in Nigeria; Inclusive Education Approach Paper (ESSPIN, 2013) indicated that it specified that stakeholders needed to ensure the provision of hearing aids to learners, who were hard of hearing, and solar lights to learners with visual impairment to facilitate their learning.

6.6.3.6 NGO support

Participants (n-4) revealed that NGOs supported them in their practice of inclusive education in their classrooms. Such support was seen to include the provision of assistive devices, stationery, health education and the diagnosis of disabilities. These were viewed to promote inclusive teaching and learning as requisite resources were pooled.

BayoSchD stated:

"When the NGOs came around they asked for any learner experiencing challenge, so I introduced the boy to them. They interrogated him and they gave him some aids to assist him. The boy has improved ever since."

For example, TitiSchB added:

"Some NGOs do come. Maybe some will come to give some pupils sandals and some will give school bags. At least we still have Pepsodent come. They gave talk on how to brush teeth day and night and the importance of taking care of our body."

DoyinSchC elaborated that:

"I can see some people came during polio outbreak. They came to give our pupils vaccine immunisation. One month ago we have like NGO people that brought sandals, books for free, so they gave to the less privileged among the children."

From a divergent perspective, ToyinSchC reiterated:

"Recently they sent some health people, like opticians to our school to test the eyes of pupils. They just test their eyes recently; they write down name of pupils with eye problems."

At the time of non-participant observation, there were no NGOs present. However, through a follow-up discussion, all participants showed the researcher the education items supplied by the NGOs, including sandals, uniforms, toothpaste, toothbrushes and books. The researcher was also introduced to learners that benefited from those items. There was nothing on NGOs recorded on teachers' register or records, but a visitors' log book at the head teachers' office where visitors registered their identity indicated NGOs visit and the purpose of their visit.

6.6.4 Sub-theme 4: Management of implementation of inclusive education

Strategies to manage the implementation of inclusive education emerged from this study. Participants revealed policies and regulation, punishment, summoning of parents and appointment of class leaders were used to manage learners' behaviour

and maintain discipline in school in practising inclusive education in their classrooms. The following section presents policies and regulation.

6.6.4.1 Policies and regulations

Two participants reported that school and class policies and regulations underpinned their implementation of inclusive education. It was felt that the enforcement of policies and regulations fostered discipline in learners at school and classroom levels. The enforcement of school and classroom policies and regulations was also perceived to make parents ensure the children's regular attendance of school to avoid irregularities to them that were associated with absenteeism.

DoyinSchC articulated that:

> *"We have a law in our class which the pupils must abide to. We have class laws and school laws. The class law, like you know, littering the floor with papers and nylons. We make sure they don't do that. Anyone we see doing that or having dirty papers under her desk, we make sure we give that pupil one punishment or the other. We might ask the pupil to pick all the papers in other pupil's desk even around the school. So we enforce it."*

BoseSchB added that:

> *"The policy I know is that when a child is absent for a whole term we assume the child is no longer in that class. If at all the parent want the child in school they have to start the normal process of registering the child again, so with that pain they have to go through it will make the child not to abscond from school."*

During non-participant observation, participants were seen informing learners to behave well and maintain discipline in class. In all classes observed, participants encouraged learners to desist from making noise and interfering with teaching and learning. Although DoyinSchC and BoseSchB reported that they had school and class policies and regulations, none of them were in possession of a written document. A follow-up discussion with DoyinSchC revealed that her class policy was communicated to learners verbally and not written down.

6.6.4.2 Punishment

Various types of punishment were reported to be applied for lateness to school and for different forms of classroom offences by school authorities and teachers in the practice of inclusive education. Participants (n-5) reported that they used physical punishment such as making learners to kneel down, raise hands up and weed grass to discipline them in their schools. Such punishment was felt to deter learners from misbehaving for fear of the pain associated with it. The use of physical punishment was seen as strategic to manage learners' defiant behaviour and bring regularity into the school environment. Nevertheless, punishment was reported to be against the national laws of disciplining children.

TayoSchC expressed that:

> *"I can ask them (learners) to raise up their hands and close their eyes. I can also ask them to kneel down".*

She reiterated that:

> *"They allowed discipline but they didn't allow teachers to have canes in Lagos State for now. The punishment we give is not for long because before 15 minutes they (learners) will start crying that "aunty, sorry. I won't disturb the class again. I will be humble in class". So I will say okay go and sit down."*

BoseSchB added that:

> *"At times we ask them to stand and raise their hands up."*

ToyinSchC added that:

> *"Some of them (learners) were asked to pull grasses outside the class in the morning and around 10.30am they (school authority) will release them. They can ask them to kneel down because there is no flogging in Lagos State, all canes have been seized. So we gave them punishment like pulling out the grasses, weeding the bush, and kneeling down".*

The researcher further enquired about learners who were serving punishment while a lesson was going on.

ToyinSchC responded that*:*

> *"Like in my case, I will go and plead for my pupils because I don't like them to be outside while I'm teaching. Sometimes I do go to the head teacher to plead on behalf of my own class, telling the head teacher that I want to start teaching. Some teachers do wait for them, saying they can't teach half of the class; they must wait for other pupils to come in."*

KemiShcD reported that:

> *"Like the aspect of punishment, in our time, there was punishment but now we are not allowed to punish pupils. Even the government don't allow corporal punishment in school again but is part of the things we were taught at the college that we can punish students to imbibe discipline in them."*

However, YemiSchA illustrated that her school allowed the use of a cane to control learners' behaviour; this was reflected in the following except:

> *"A student tried to raise his hand on me and it got to the notice of the school authority and they didn't do anything. The only thing they said was if anybody try to hit or slap you (teacher) just carry cane and beat the child and if you cannot beat the child, report the child to any other male teachers, let them beat the child."*

During the researcher's observation in school C, the researcher saw that some learners were in the bush cutting grasses, the younger learners were picking up papers on the floor. During non-participant observation in TayoSchC's class, four learners walked in quietly after the lesson had started and the task had been given to the class. The participant did not revert to discuss the lesson already covered with those learners who came late. The researcher observed that one of the learners was asking questions from peers while others just sat down, not engaging in class activities. TayoSchC later reported in a follow-up discussion that those learners who came late to class were serving punishment for lateness to school. She explained that the four learners had formed the habit of coming late to school and it was not fair to draw the whole class back because of them. Participants used the traditional method of disciplining children in practising inclusive education that was against Nigerian and international human rights laws that prohibit anyone from inflicting pain in others.

Section 1b, Article 221of the Nigeria Child Right Act (FRN, 2003) prohibits the use of corporal punishment and child abuse.

6.6.4.3 Summoning parents

The summoning of parents to school was revealed as a practice of teachers in inclusive education. However, this was reported to have an inconsistent influence on the behaviour of learners with respect to their adherence to school discipline. Participants (n-4) reported that they summoned parents to intervene when learner unruliness got out of control.

YemiSchA expressed that:

> *"If the thing (indiscipline) gets out of hand, we invite the parent of the child."*

DoyinSchC added that:

> *"Those that come late, we invite their parents several. They will say that the pupil will not come late again but you still see them coming late. So in that kind of situation, there is nothing you can do, you can't beat them. You called their parents and they are still coming late but I don't know how to handle them because you see the same set of people coming late."*

BoseSchB added that:

> *"So we invited their parents to inform them about it (learner lateness). Unfortunately, some of the parents were not aware because some of these pupils will leave home in the morning and they will say they are coming to school while they will not come to school, but will go somewhere else and after school they will go back home pretending to be coming back from school. But some of them (learners), their parents will give one excuse or the other, maybe that they travel or they are sick and all that."*

ToyinSchC further added that:

> *"When the parents come we tell them what we see in their children and we write it down, we call that teacher complaint. Most parents confirmed that their children have been behaving like that at home so they will give us their responce, they*

will write it down, if they can't write we help them to write. Then we warned the child and parent will promise to help us work on that issue. We (teachers) monitor the child's behaviour in the classroom and then we track the child every now and then, and if there is any complain, we write it down. Since all eyes are on these children, most of them use the period to change. We use this period to correct their behaviour."

No parents were observed summoned during the researcher's non-participant observations in the four schools. However, parent participation records obtained from all the participants revealed reports of parents that were invited to mediate and intervene when learners misbehaved in class or came late to school.

6.6.4.4 Class captains

Two participants reported that they appointed class captains in practising inclusive education in their regular classrooms. Class captains were seen to guide and monitor the rest of the learners during teaching and learning. The appointment of class captains was seen as a strategic approach to maintaining discipline among learners, as it supported the teachers in curtailing misbehaviour among learners.

ToyinSchC stated that:

"Each group has a leader. They (seminar) trained us that we should use the pupils to guide each other. So when someone is not writing, the other one will call my attention to those who are not writing, then I will move closer to them. Those gifted ones, we use them to guide other pupils; they report any indiscipline among themselves."

TayoSchC added that:

"I have a class captain. The class captain writes down the name of anyone disturbing the class and I will give him or her (learners who disturb the class) six lashes of cane, that is what I do every day."

During the researcher's non-participant observation, class captains were seen in two classes monitoring and ensuring orderliness. In TitiSchB's class, see Picture 6.5

below, the class captain was observed ensuring that peer learners copied their notes from the chalkboard while the teacher was busy marking other learners' work. Picture 6.6 below shows two captains trying to maintain discipline in JideSchB's class. The learners were asked to take a nap and relax in order to avoid chatting that would have generated noise in the class. The two captains were responsible for ensuring that learners adhered to the code of conduct of their classrooms. Participants' reliance on class captains to maintain discipline in classrooms reveals the inadequacy of their training in the management of classrooms with learners with diverse unique needs.

Although the seminar handbook document on Education Sector Support Programme in Nigeria (ESSPIN) obtained from participants indicated the use of class captains and class leaders for classroom monitoring, this compromised inclusivity. While the captains were busy ensuring that peers take a nap and copy their notes, they were missing out. Likewise, the use of physical punishment violated learners' human rights.

Picture 6.5: The class captain ensuring peer learners copy their notes

Picture 6.6: Class captains ensuring discipline in class

The subsequent section presents teachers' concerns regarding the implementation of inclusive education.

6.7 Theme 3: Teachers' concerns regarding the implementation of inclusive education

Participants reported several concerns regarding the implementation of inclusive education. These concerns related to initial teacher preparation, practices of inclusive education and disposition, attitude and beliefs toward inclusive education. The following section presents concerns related to initial teacher preparation.

6.7.1 Sub-theme 1: Initial teacher preparation

Participants raised dissatisfaction about the training they received during their initial teacher professional preparation. In particular, they were concerned about training on special education, theory-laden training and teaching practice experience. The following section presents training on special education.

6.7.1.1 Training on special education

All participants reported that they had undertaken a compulsory module on special education as part of their teacher professional training programmes. However, they regarded such training as superficial as they felt that it was limited to children with disabilities and the different types of special schools. Consequently, they were

concerned that they were not trained on inclusive education or the inclusion of children with diverse needs in regular education but on special education. MideSchA stated:

> *"There is no form of training whatsoever on inclusive education. What we had was special education and we are not into that fully."*

YemiSchA added that:

> *"Personally, I don't think they did, because during in my training time it was just on the general things. They told us about special needs children but we are made to understand that they have a special school for them, a separate school for them. They told us that the special children have special school like school for the blind, school for deaf and dumb and all that, they kind of differentiate the whole thing."*

Similarly, BisiSchB expressed that:

"There is nothing on inclusive education but we did a little on special education. It is there. We know that those who are deaf, dumb or have eye defects should go to their own school not to mix with the normal one."

ToyinSchC further added that:

"I will rate it like 60% because the training is not really focusing on what we are facing in the classroom. In the classroom we have some different children and the trainings are not 100% meeting our needs and what we are facing in the classroom situation."

Participants likewise indicated that the module on special education was mandatory for all education students in their universities.

TitiSchB stated that:

"Well, we have a compulsory course then, which we call special education. That was the only course I think. I took that in year three in my degree is on special education. They taught us that when we get to a school and we meet a child that is not a disabled alone, some are extra gifted."

BoseSchB added that:

"We did a course on special education. As long you are doing education, it is compulsory for you to take the course."

6.7.1.2 Theory-laden training

Participants (n-3) reported that the professional teacher training they underwent was theory-laden and it was felt that it lacked micro-teaching or that the micro-teaching component was not comprehensively done. It was felt that such training deprived them of the practice required of them to meet the diversity of learners in implementing inclusive education in their classrooms.

YemiSchA reported that:

"There was no micro-teaching whatsoever. I learnt they do things like that at colleges of education."

Equally, SegunSchD added that:

"Most of the training we received was based on theory from the textbooks we were given to study. They are based on theory. So those are the training we received. What I was trying to say is that the training is theory based on the subject content of the textbooks, like methodology in teaching pupils and so on."

MideSchA further added that:

"We only did a part not fully, not going into the methodology of teaching special children, no training, no practical aspects to teach children that are having disability in class, and we just use our intuition to teach the children."

Although participants indicated they received theory-laden training, in all classes observed, there was evidence of practical skills exhibited by the participants. For example, they were able to manage the learning environment, use different teaching strategies to address the diversity of learners in their classrooms. The lesson plans of the participants indicated that they had practical grounding in the use of diverse child-centred teaching strategies, such as the Socratic Method and discussion.

6.7.1.3 Teaching practice experience

Three participants voiced that there was a rift between the demands of the regular classrooms with learners with diverse unique needs and the content of their teacher professional preparation and their teaching practice experience. These participants felt that the content of their professional teacher education did not prepare them to address learner diversity in classrooms and their host teachers during teaching practice deprived them of the opportunity to practice what they were taught in their training. It was also believed that the host teachers lacked the knowledge on addressing learner diversity to transfer to the participants during their teaching practice.

OpeSchA explained that:

"The teachers then were not well educated about inclusive education so when they got to the classroom they saw that the case was different."

She reiterated that:

"... But not giving the opportunity to teach the pupils the way we were taught at the university. Teachers then have this mentally of this is the way we do it here; they don't believe in special education for children with inclusive education. All they (host teachers) believe is that they have to teach the children in the normal way (traditional approach of teaching) and when you try to tell them they find problem with that."

Similarly, MideSchA expressed that:

"We are not trained for lesson plans. We only prepare the lesson plan according to the mentor teacher way in the school during teaching practice. But it (lesson plan) does not actually bring diverse children into focus, we just prepare the lesson plan for all students like those having ability like one-way traffic for everyon, it does not cover diverse student at all. It is teachers (student teacher) that will use their intuitions to carry the students along, because the lesson plan does not specify how to teach children with diverse needs."

YemiSchA added that:

"But when we got there (teaching practice school) to actually practice what we are been taught, we find out that there are other things which were not included during the course of the teaching (training)."

Overall, participants were concerned about their perceived lack of theory and practice of addressing learner diversity in classrooms.

6.7.1.4 Overcrowded lecture halls

Two participants were concerned about the conditions of the professional teacher preparation. It was perceived that they trained in lecture halls that were overcrowded and that some of them had to learn while standing and that there was no public addressing system. This was seen to compromise the quality of their teacher professional preparation.

BoseSchB expressed that:

> *"So population is one of the problems. We are so many that people even stand outside to listen to the lecturers and there was no public address. Those standing at the back find it difficult to hear what the lecturer is teaching."*

DoyinSchC added that:

> *"Well I think what is lacking there they need more arm (more lecturers). But when students are too many in class there in no way effective learning can take place".*

The following section presents concerns related to practices of inclusive education in schools.

6.7.2 Sub-theme 2: Practices of inclusive education

Concerns regarding the introduction of a new curriculum, a lack of government support, non-supportive parents, disinterested learners, poverty and overcrowded classrooms were reported by participants. The next section presents concerns regarding new curriculum.

6.7.2.1 New curriculum

Participants revealed contrasting issues regarding the feasibility of the implementation of the new curriculum. One participant felt the literacy and numeracy curriculum introduced by the Education Sector Support Programme in Nigeria (ESSPIN) was not relevant to the context of the learners and was short of addressing their academic needs as it was not spiral in approach. Inversely, other participants (n-3) felt that both the numeracy and literacy curriculum was helpful because learners and teachers benefitted from well-organised lesson plans, guidelines, instructions and child-centred pedagogy. Participants indicated that they had trained and were well equipped for the curriculum.

BisiSchB stated that:

> *"There was a time they gave us literacy for English and numeracy for maths. We started this thing (literacy and numeracy) for five years or seven years ago and there was no improvement on the children because these children are not*

excellent in these two topics. Because in the literacy they used to do vowel sounds and everything like that, but they don't know how to read in the literacy. Numeracy it is at the middle. They took it up but the other method we have been using before we started from the unknown to known."

She reiterated that:

> *"The method we are using before is real complete general maths we are doing. Real complete English that they (learners) will do dictation; they will do new words; they will do reading; they will do grammar; they will do dictation but there is nothing like that in literacy. So the children don't know how to read. Now we have gone back to the normal one (old curriculum) and the children can easily read now. The school was complaining that this numeracy and literacy does not the help the children at all."*

From a different perspective, MideSchA was asked about his experience on the ESSPIN lesson plans.

He replied that:

> *"I feel the lesson plan (ESSPIN) is good because it talks about carrying diversity along. There is a guide for teachers on how to carry children along in their teaching and learning process."*

ToyinSchC added that:

> *"People (teachers) are lazy. You see they don't want to work. ESSPIN (new curriculum) is easy and we like it here. In our school we are still using both (old and new curriculum) ooh! We don't know where the government will bring exams from because we are doing general exams."*

Participants were asked if they received any training before using the ESSPIN lesson plans.

BayoSchD averred that:

> *"We had training for ESSPIN (new curriculum) on how to use the numeracy and literacy lesson plan."*

MideSchA added that:

"Yes, we went for ESSPIN seminar."

All classes observed used recommended textbooks for primary schools, not the ESSPIN literacy and numeracy textbooks. However, analysis of ESSPIN literacy and numeracy lesson plans primary one – five and ESSPIN guidelines for conducting pupil assessment to support teaching and learning primary one – three (ESSPIN, 2016) revealed well-organized lesson plans, guidelines and instructions for both teachers and learners.

6.7.2.2 Non-supportive government

Participants (n-4) reported that they were concerned about the lack of support of the government in their implementation of inclusive education in their classrooms. It was felt that teaching and learning resources, classrooms, and support for learners with special needs, inclusive of diagnosis of disabilities, and the maintenance of infrastructure was lacking in schools because the government was non-supportive. The lack of government support was seen to interfere with the implementation of inclusive education as requisite resources were not available.
According to BisiSchB:

"The government, even when they built school, they just leave the school there, they don't care. Even when we started complaining that this school is dilapidated they should come and look for a way to repair. When they even put everything down they will not come back and rebuild it."

Similarly, DoyinSchC expressed that:

"Here we are not receiving help. In fact, we have a building here that they supposed to come and renovate. We have been calling them (government) that we don't have enough classrooms. They have not been coming to do that. So for now we are not getting help."

ToyinSchC added that:

"Most of us tell them (government) that our classroom environments are not conducive and they just promise to do something but nothing was done."

She further elaborated that:

> *"The government is not helping us. They realise that we have those children in our class. I will shift everything on them (government). If they don't realise they will not be sending people to come and test their eyes, they will not be sending doctors to come and test these children eyes. They will not be telling us if someone is not hearing you very well, move him or her near the chalkboard. They realise but they are not helping us. There is no special thing for children with special needs to motivate their education."*

MideSchA further added that:

> *"Children with disability, children with learning challenges, they don't have resources that can aid their teaching and learning. So they are left out."*

Three out of the four schools observed were ramshackled and some buildings were abandoned. In all classes, the researcher observed that there were no bag shelves and learners were compelled to place their bags on the floor close to the chalkboard or on the floor beside their seat, see Picture 6.7 below. There was no ramp in any of the schools observed and the toilets were not accessible to learners in wheelchairs. The food vendor shacks in all schools were dilapidated and eight classrooms were still using chalkboards which were very old and not conducive for teaching and learning, see Picture 6.8 below. However, analysis of the "Education for All 2015 National Review Report: Nigeria" (2015) revealed that the government is making an effort to construct more primary schools, renovate dilapidated buildings and classrooms and ensuring that libraries, toilets, and water boreholes are in place and schools are well fenced to ensure safety.

Picture 6.7: Learners’ bags on the floor

Picture 6.8: Classroom floor and dilapidated food vendor shack

6.7.2.3 Not-supportive parents

Participants (n-3) reiterated that they were concerned about some parents who were non-cooperative when they were called them to intervene in the welfare of their

children at school in their implementation of inclusive education. Participants reported that some parents left the welfare of their children in their hands and did not monitor them at home. Participants believed that this was because these parents thought that the welfare of the children at school was the responsibility of the teachers and some of the parents did not value schooling.

ToyinSchC indicated that:

> *"We have some (learners) that their parents are not caring. So after calling the parent, we make sure we write to them. We give their number to the head teacher. If the teacher cannot handle it, we report to the head teacher. We give their number to the head teacher and we write a letter to them (parents). If they are still not cooperating there is nothing we can do but we (teachers/head teacher) know that we have tried our best."*

She reiterated that *"some parents don't help us. They (parents) just believe we are the one to do everything for the children".*

DoyinSchC added that:

> *"But funny enough, most of the parents in public schools are negligent and their negligence is adding to the problem of these pupils. They don't monitor their children when they get home, they don't care."*

OpeSchA further added that:

> *"But some people feel they don't have time for such (child education) and they rather prefer their children to go and learn a trade (trading). Some parents don't believe in education; they believe in sending their child to go and learn all these hand work (trading)."*

Throughout the period of observation there were no parents observed in the classrooms or at the four schools. Parent participation records of all the participants included reports that revealed that some parents were negligent and non-supportive of the welfare of their children at school. However, section 5.2 of the Lagos State inclusive policy (2015) encourage parents' involvement in children's schooling and instructed counsel to be given to parents on the importance of education.

6.7.2.4 Uninterested learners

Participants (n-4) reported that they were concerned about the learners' lack of interest in learning in implementing inclusive education. This was attributed to the young teachers whom learners felt were not old enough to teach them and young learners who were not ready for schooling. Participants reported that learners were not serious about their studies and even made jokes about the teachers.

YemiSchA reiterated that:

> *"Sometime you ask them a question and they don't answer, they just laugh over it and again they make it look like you are not doing anything. They were actually looking at me as a girl not old enough to know anything to teach them. So the major challenge was the pupils not really wanting to learn. They are not really eager to learn. But they are not really interested in education."*

KemiSchD added that:

> *"The problem is the lack of interest towards the subject. They (learners) see the language (Yoruba language) as low."*

BayoSchD further said that:

> *"Then the other problem is the issue of the nonchalant attitude of the child concerning her homework."*

BisiSchB illustrated that in her class there are children who are below the age required for Grade 2 and are not emotionally and mentally ready for the particular class. She reported that:

> *"There are some (learners) that are underage. They are not ready to work. They just sit down there and even sometimes eating, talking, sometimes they sleep off."*

The researcher observed in BisiSchB's class that about seven learners were not engaged in class activity and one among them was playing with a toy on the back seat. The participant was not paying attention to these learners. BisiSchB later reported in a follow-up discussion that those learners were underage for Grade 2 but their parents insisted they maintain the class but the learners are not emotionally and

mentally ready for the situation in Grade 2. In the class of BukkySchC, the researcher observed that some learners felt lost and were not concentrating during lesson presentation. While BoseSchB was writing the class activity on the chalkboard, her colleague was seen trying to monitor the learners. The researcher observed two learners seated in the extreme corner of the class playing dice. The classroom was so congested, seats were crammed together and there was no space in between to move freely. It was not easy to get through and the colleague teacher assisting could not access the back seat or extreme corner.

6.7.2.5 Poverty

Participants (n-5) revealed that they had learners that came to school dirty, wearing torn uniforms and looking shabby which inconvenienced other learners in their implementation of inclusive education. Participants explained that these learners lack stationary and attended school without food. Teachers had to buy food and stationary for these learners. Participants felt that learners that attended school on empty stomachs or eat food not meant for breakfast can interfere with effective teaching and learning.

BisiSchB expressed that:

> *"Some wear tattered dress, some are very dirty in the class and some that are very dirty. The dirtiness affects them. They don't dress them very well. They look tattered, very dirty. Even some carry these dreadlock hairs to school and this irritates others. These are the challenges I have in the class."*

Likewise, DoyinSchC added that:

> *"These pupils, you wonder if they have parents because their clothes are dirty and very untidy. They come to school as if they live in dunghill."*

KemiSchD further said that:

> *"You have children coming to school having dirty uniforms, their sandals are torn."*

From a different perspective, JideSchB articulated that:

> *"A student before they come to school their parents will give them some items to sell before they come to school. Some were asked to sell pap before they come to school in the morning. We also have some students that eat pap or garri in the morning to school to eat. What do you expect from these students in the classroom, they can't learn. This can't let the teaching and learning go effectively because this student that ate garri in the morning or a student staying with her stepmom or dad that was thinking of what will happen at home. By the time the student is thinking of all this, it would not make the teaching and learning effective."*

Similarly, DoyinSchC expressed that:

> *"But we have some that are less privileged; they are poor; they can't even afford to buy books. Teachers had to gather money together to buy them (learners) books, pencils and all of that."*

BukkySchC added that:

> *"Like the child that doesn't eat from home. From interviewing her we got to know that she didn't eat from home. We often get the child food from the food vendor and invite the parent to know why the child always comes to school without food and let the parent know the consequences of that. We cannot allow that kind of a child to faint. When a child is crying we buy food from the food vendor."*

When the researcher further probed about a feeding scheme, she replied that:

> *"We don't have a feeding scheme by the government in our school."*

The researcher observed in all classes that there were learners with incomplete and dirty uniforms. Some learners' shoes were torn. During lunch break, the researcher saw some learners in a queue waiting to get free food and fruits from the vendor. It was reported that there are no feeding schemes in all four schools so food vendors and teachers contributed money to secure food and fruits during lunch for learners from poor socio-economic backgrounds who could not afford it. Picture 6.9 below shows the learners waiting to receive free food and fruits from the vendors during lunch break. However, analysis of the document "Home Grown School Feeding"

(Nigeria.HGSF-global.org) indicated that the federal government of Nigeria had initiated a home grown school feeding programme which was tagged “a-meal-a-day” and most states, including Lagos State, had adopted the programme.

Picture 6.9: Poor learners waiting to get food from a vendor during lunch break

6.7.2.6 Large class size

Participants (n-3) reported that overcrowded classrooms increased their workload causing inconveniences in implementing inclusive education. They revealed that a large class population was difficult to cope with as it interfered with their management of teaching and learning in compliance with government policy. Participants felt that large class population was time-consuming, which prevented the provision of individualised attention to learners with special needs.

BoseSchB reported that:

> *"We are two in the class that manage the pupils. The workload is really affecting us because the government wants us to mark their notes, give them assignments; they want us to give them classwork that we must mark. They want us to give them tests so it is affecting the time. You know I said earlier that we have periods. Each period is 40 minutes and some are 35 minutes. Before you can say I want to mark their books, I want to give them attention and I want to explain better. Some of them that do not understand. I want to re-explain again all. These are affecting our time. You know if they are 50 pupils I can give them enough class work."*

DoyinSchC added that:

> *"It's not easy controlling 90 pupils in a class. Normally 50 pupils are for one teacher but we have 90 pupils, controlling them is not easy. You know they make noise."*

Equally, ToyinSchC expressed that:

> *"So we are not feeling all that good because any time we went to seminar we always give them suggestions which would not be carried out. As an educationist, we do give them suggestions because they will ask us after the seminar that what you have to say. We tell them that we are the ones you are sending to the pupils to go and do the work. These are the difficulties we are passing through and what can we do to these problems? They are not doing anything. They just promise us after the seminar they will do something but they are not doing anything. They will even tell us that shabee (meaning "you know")*

you have 62 pupils in your class. Others have 150 pupils and we provide same instructional materials for all and they were able to manage them. You should be able to manage just 62 pupils. It not convenient and some of us do complain."

All the sixteen classrooms observed had a large population of learners. Participants BisiSchB, DoyinSchC and BukkySchC had at least 80 learners in their classrooms while BoseSchB and TitiSchB had 150 learners in their respective classes. In seven classes, the researcher observed that learners were seated in fours. Some has even five on a bench, which made it uncomfortable for them to sit properly and write. The researcher saw some learners carrying their backpack bags while seated and some placed them on their laps due to limited space in the classrooms, a situation that could had an adverse effect on those learners. Picture 6.10 below shows a classroom where learners are crammed. The researcher observed two learners on the back seat who tried to leave the class and other learners had to make way for them. In a follow-up discussion, the participant reported that those two learners wanted to use the toilet. The participant indicated that whenever learners on the back seats wanted access to the toilet, it was often challenging because peers around them have to stand for them to move out. She continued that when learners stand or move for their peers to go out, they make noise and disturb the class. Picture 6.11 below also shows a congested classroom where learners copied notes from the chalkboard. The researcher observed that writing materials of some learners were not comfortably placed on the table and they found it difficult to write. Some learners at the back and extreme left side of the class could not easily access the board. The researcher saw these learners standing or stretching their necks to see through the board. However, analysis of National Policy of Education (FME, 2013) indicated that the ratio of teacher to learners should be 1:35, which would boost effective teaching and learning at the primary level. The next section presents the attitude towards inclusive education.

Picture 6.10: Congested classroom

Picture 6.11: Overcrowded classroom

6.7.2.7 Teachers' capacity

Three participants were concerned about the capacity of teachers to implement inclusive education. Participants felt that managing large numbers of learners in a class, without government intervention through the hiring of teaching staff, is beyond the capacity of a teacher to realise inclusive education. They reported that one teacher taught more than two subjects and the increased workload hindered them from paying attention to classroom routine, thereby compromising the implementation of inclusive education.

ToyinSchC reported that:

> *"Since government is not having enough staff and enough classrooms to make sure there are not many pupils in the class. Assume the government is helping the situation there should not be more than one teacher to 30 pupils in a class."*

BoseSchB added that:

> *"Okay, we are two. We are supposed to be four since the government says he's not employing for now so we have to manage what we have. So we are two in the class that manage the pupils."*

YemiSchA further said that:

> *"They lack enough teachers. You see one teacher teaching like three or four subjects and they teach several other classes. The workload was too much for them, so they are not really taking note of anything. The workload was too much."*

The ratio of teacher to learners in all classes observed are more than the recommended 1:35 ratio. Analysis of the "Education for All 2015 National Review Report: Nigeria" (2015) indicated that about 5.2 millions of teachers need to be hired at the primary level for the successful realisation of universal primary education.

6.7.3 Sub-theme 3: Personal dispositions, attitudes and beliefs

It emerged from this study that personal dispositions, attitudes and beliefs influence the implementation of inclusive education of teachers. Participants reported on the

diversity of learners and their mixed feelings. The following presents the diversity of the learners.

6.7.3.1 Diversity of learners

Five participants reported that it was difficult for them to manage learners with disabilities in regular classrooms. These participants felt that learners with disabilities could not cope in regular classrooms and they could also not cope with these children as they perceived that they were not trained to teach them. They believed that learners with disabilities should be placed in special schools that have trained teachers who can cater for their needs. Thus, these participants demonstrated negative attitudes toward inclusive education.

BisiSchB reported that:

> *"I will be complaining because handicaps cannot assimilate and rapport with others (learners). Even some cannot write, for them to write maybe you will be the one to help them write so they will be slow learners, very slow in the class. So it will be very hard for me, because I was not trained for those children."*

BukkySchC added that:

> *"When we have able and disable in the same class there is no way we can have some one that can't hear or someone that can't see in the same school. We have special schools for them and there is no way a disabled child is going to cope."*

SegunSchD further explained that:

> *"But I don't think it will be more effective in teaching and learning because there should be special schools to handle children of certain disabilities. They are handicapped in their ability to read, either eye sight challenge or hearing defect."*

BoseSchB added that:

"You know those are disabled pupils. We don't have them here. We have special schools for them. So teachers that went into special education will be able to handle those kinds of children."

DoyinSchC said that:

"There is one. Have even giving up on him. I'm not calling him again, because he's not changing for the past months, when we resume. I have been teaching them how to write. He will not change so I have given up on him."

Nevertheless, some participants (n-7) demonstrated positive attitudes towards inclusive education. Participants welcomed the idea of inclusive education because they felt it is a learner's right to have equal access to education and not to be neglected. They felt that inclusion in regular education eliminates discrimination and enables learners with and without diverse unique needs to embrace one another.

TayoSchC articulated that:

"For me I will allow children with disability in my class because now we are talking about inclusive education. All children have a right to learn."

DayoSchA expressed that:

"I feel inclusive education is the way to go, is the right approach to education. But here in the part of the world is not costly done. Here (Nigeria) we have students with special needs who are segregated and taught in different schools."

JideSchB shared a similar view when he expressed that:

"Yes I think is a very good idea. I welcome the idea of this inclusive education because when we are talking of disability we are talking of some pupils who have deficiency, so in this case we don't need to neglect them. Students with special needs, we don't need to neglect them. We need to move closer to them so to make the teaching and learning effective in a nation."

MideSchA added that:

> *"They have to be like included in the teaching and learning process so that no one is left behind. If you are saying equality, equality should come with inclusive education. Are you getting what I'm trying to say? Equality should come in because if you look at the National Policy of Education that is free and fair. if you want to be free and fair in your teaching and learning process, all children should have equal access to education, irrespective maybe they are having disability or not."*

BayoSchD likewise felt inclusion of children with disability would end discrimination. According to him:

> *"When they are group together, there won't be discrimination regarding learning. Because at the end of the day, none of them will be deprived and they will gain from one another."*

Similarly, TitiSchB felt that:

> *"They should not sideline them. Because they have challenges you just put them aside. They should mix them up, let them feel that they are among members of the society, of the class, members of the school. They should be treated well."*

OpeSchA acknowledged that the task of including all learners is not easy but it is necessary for teachers to include all learners. According to her:

> *"Will say it's not easy. But if you are a teacher and trying to inculcate in your students, you should be able to take everybody along although it not easy. But I try as much as possible to take both students, those with disability and the ones without."*

In all classes observed, participants were seen supporting learners except in some instances. For example, BisiSchB reported that she deliberately neglected learners who were not mature for Grade 2 so they could repeat the class as a strategy to adequately prepare them for the grade. BoseSchB, TitiSchB and DoyinSchC reported that they were interested in providing more support and individual assistance to learners with special needs but were constrained by overcrowded classrooms and limited time on the class time table. However, care and empathy were displayed by all

participants in their various classes. In one class, a participant had word cards written in large font size to facilitate easy visualisation of learners who had low vision. Learners with residual hearing were seated in front of the classrooms for their ease of hearing.

Analysis of documents, such as the ESSPIN guidelines for conducting pupil assessment to support teaching and learning (ESSPIN, 2016), indicated that there is a need to train teachers and to foster in them positive attitudes towards inclusive education.

6.7.3.2 Mixed feelings

Two participants revealed that they had mixed feelings about inclusive education. These participants felt that inclusive education promoted social interaction between learners with and without disabilities that facilitated the co-existence of these learners, provided the teachers were professionally competent in teaching these learners. Nevertheless, these participants also reiterated that teachers may attend to learners with disabilities during teaching and learning at the expense of those without disabilities.

Participants felt separate education might be in the best interest of learners or learners might feel rejected if being separated. Participants believed that learners should be included in regular schools provided adequate support is in place. KemiSchD expressed that:

> *"The positive aspect, you know, when they mingle together, they will be able to learn from their colleagues. Maybe somebody that is a slow learner or physically challenged sees others jumping, playing. They may want to do it but that the low esteem may kill it in them, but if we separate them now they will feel rejected."*

She further expressed that:

> *"... But the negative aspect of it, maybe the slow learners. Now you know that it will affect others that can learn fast. It can draw the learning to be slow for others."*

YemiSchA felt that:

> *"The government just wants everybody to be in the same class which I don't think is right. I think it should be separated. I think children with disability should be in*

another school, another class, while those that are okay should be in another class, and if at all they want everyone to be in the same class they should be able to take proper care, be able to understand each and every one of the learners in the class."

6.8 Theme 4: Strategies to enhance the professional preparation of teachers for inclusive education

This theme addresses strategies to enhance the professional preparation of teachers for inclusive education. The provision of necessary human and material resources and the co-optation of specific modules in initial teacher education programmes emerged as strategies to enhance the professional preparation for inclusive education. Human and material resources are presented in the following section.

6.8.1 Sub-theme 1: Human and material resources

Participants revealed various individual and capacity building initiatives that could enhance the professional preparation of teachers for inclusive education. These included information and communication technology, government support and training of teachers. The next section presents Information and communication technology.

6.8.1.1 Information and communication technology

Two participants reported that the training of teachers in modern information and communication technology in teacher education institutions could enhance their professional preparation for inclusive education. Information and communication technology that teachers were believed to need training in includes Internet facilities, tablets, computers and instructional materials. Teachers who were trained in information and communication technology were perceived to be able to work independently and use it to facilitate teaching and learning.

SegunSchD expressed that:

"We were not exposed to modern gadgets, Internet modern gadgets that we could apply in our day-to-day working experience. Presently, where I'm teaching, let's take internet for example, some of the equipment were obsolete, not

functional. So if we have been exposed to such equipment at school, like tablets and the rest, where one can really work independently. So that is the challenge we had."

He further reported that:

"I felt what should have been done was in terms of adequate instructional materials. Because of a lack of funds at our university, we weren't provided with enough instructional materials that could have been applied in our working experience now. So we also had insufficient material. We weren't really given materials to research on. Like the lecturers focused the materials within themselves."

KemiSchD added that:

"The dispensation, we are everything, is technology. So the university needs to improve in that aspect. So right from school, like some schools don't write on the board, they use tablets and all those things to teach. So from school (university) also things like that needs to be taught in higher institution. They (teachers) should be able to make use of computers, laptops, all those things, like tablet, android phone to impart knowledge to the kids and they (kids) will enjoy it. They (training instutitions) need to expose teachers to these things. Like most of the higher institutions don't have instructional materials. When we are in higher institution some of these things (technology) they did not show us."

All the four schools observed lacked modern gadgets and facilities such as Internet connections, computers and libraries. Analysis of Lagos State's inclusive education policy, Section 5.7 (2015) indicted that it recommended the provision of instructional materials and equipment for teaching and learning in order to address the diversity of learners in regular classrooms. The following section presents modules required for teacher training.

6.8.1.2 Government support

Five participants felt that government support of schools with requisite resources could enhance the professional preparation of teachers for inclusive education. These resources were felt to include physical and material resources. It was argued that the

provision of these resources could enhance the professional preparation of teachers to implement inclusive education due to the simplification of teaching and learning.

BoseSchB recommended that:

> *"The government should look into the school very well. It's the government that can help the school, and if there are any individuals that can help in building classrooms, providing board, chalk, providing Internet for pupils to learn better, it will be very effective. It will make the work easier and make the children to learn faster."*

MideSchA further suggested that:

> *"They (government and stakeholders) should actually provide more equipment that serves the needs of these diverse students. These are the recommendation when government come in and other stakeholders to help students with diverse needs. It will go a long way to solve their problems, actually it makes education very smooth for these children so that they are not left out."*

SegunSchD suggested adequate structures to accommodate learners with unique diverse needs. This was elaborated when he said that:

> *"So Nigeria's government can make sure there are adequate structures to cater for the diversity of children with special needs in order to grow a society that will benefit everyone. So there would be no segregation, or disparity, or favouritism in the teaching and learning process."*

All the four schools observed required more classrooms due to the overcrowding of learners, as well as libraries, Internet facilities, computers, electricity and the refurbishment of buildings. Analysis of "A Report Series to the UN Special Envoy for Global Education" (Accelerating Progress to 2015 Nigeria, 2013) indicated that it acknowledged the necessity for several initiatives and provisions, such as the establishment of the Enabling Education Network (EENET), school-based management committees (SBMCs), including the State Education Program Investment Project (SEPIP) to enhance inclusive education.

6.8.1.3 Training of teachers

Three participants reiterated that capacity building through the continuous professional development of teachers in special and inclusive education, coupled with the provision of a manual on the management of the behaviour of learners, could enhance the professional preparation of teachers for inclusive education. It was articulated that the Government of Nigeria could facilitate the provision of such training. Participants believed that such training could equip teachers with the competence to meet the diversity of learners in teaching and learning.

MideSchA said that:

> *"There should be massive training of teachers for inclusive education."*

He further said that:

> *"Government should try to train and retrain teachers for inclusive education and Government should also make sure that teachers do not stigmatise children who are physically challenged."*

ToyinSchC12 demanded that:

> *"I will just suggest that they should look for a way to give us more training and provide documents for us to manage them well, more than we have been doing. That will be my own suggestion. If our government can implement these things, it will help us a lot and it will help those children too."*

However, OpeSchA3 acknowledged that she and other teachers went for training on special education regularly. This was illustrated when she reported that:

> *"There is this training on special education that is going on where they teach us about that. Because now government is focusing on children with disability. They want to make learning easier for them so they send all these old teachers on training. Even we, the new teachers, they send us on this training regularly. In a year, maybe three or four times, you will go to training or seminar where you will be taught on what to do and how to teach them so that the children can understand better."*

Participants (n-5) reiterated that the provision of comprehensive training of teachers on inclusive and special education could enhance their professional preparation for the diversity of learners in teaching and learning. It was argued that such training could be mandatory and taught throughout the course of teacher training. Such training was seen to facilitate the professional preparation of teachers for the reality of the classroom, particularly, meeting learner diversity. For example, OpeSchA stressed that:

> *"I will recommend that the university should include more courses on inclusive education and special education in their courses while the teachers are being train so that they will know what they will meet when they get to field, when they get to the classroom, they will know to handle them in case the children start to behaving somehow, they will know what to do and they will know how to relate better with the students."*

YemiSchA added that:

> *"While I was in school we didn't really do much on that I think one or two lecturers just said we will meet children with special needs in our class, like some will be normal some will not and some will be stubborn while some will not be. But we did not really know about inclusive education if a process of training teachers on inclusive education and all, I think in this regard they should lay more emphasis on that (inclusive education). Train teachers more on what they will meet in school and provide guidelines."*

DayoSchA further said that:

> *"So to me inclusive education is the right methodology that should be approached and should be included in our curriculum here in Nigeria."*

BayoSchD reckoned that special education modules should be mandatory like general studies (GNS). This was elaborated when he said that:

> *"Instead of making it compulsory for just a semester it should be taken across the programme, I mean the number of years you are going to stay in university. It should be taken the same way just like GNS is taking in the university, like without the general studies a student cannot graduate even though it not part of their ..."*

TitiSchB added that:

"Inclusive education as I see is part of special education so what I think is that they should lay more emphasis on it."

She continues further:

"So the course should be a unit, a course that nobody will want to escape but they will put their body and mind on it. If they know there are three units or four unit course they will put all their effort on it. So when they get to the field they will be able to practice it more. Like me I never had a carryover but some that had carryover it was waived for them. They (university) waived it for them so that they can graduate with every one of us, but if students fail that course it should not be waived. They (university) should make sure that no matter how every student must pass the course. So they should make sure that without inclusive education students are not graduating."

Analysis of Lagos State's inclusive policy, Section 6.1 (2015) and the National Policy of Education (NPE) Section 2 no. 16 (FRN, 2013) earmarked the provision of training and re-training of teachers. Similarly, analysis of the Education for All: 2015 National Review Report: Nigeria (2015) stressed the need for capacity building and developing teacher status and professionalism so that the programme of Education for All can be a success.

6.8.2 Sub-theme 2: Modules required for initial teacher preparation

Participants revealed that specific modules needed to be infused into the initial training of teachers to enhance their professional preparation for inclusive education. Participants felt that the inclusion of modules on the identification of learners with special needs, international policies on inclusive education, management of behaviour and special education and inclusive education training could enhance the professional preparation of teachers for inclusive education. The next section presents the identification of learners with special needs.

6.8.2.1 Identification of special needs

Participants (n-2) reported that training teachers on the identification of learners with diverse unique needs could enhance their professional preparation for inclusive education. It was felt that such training could include equipping teachers with the competence to identify learners with invisible disabilities stemming from individual and systemic factors.

YemiSchA stated that:

> *"They should lay emphasis on how to identify the needs because there are some pupils that look okay but after questioning them you find out that they have some issues. Some might be depressed or some might be having family issues that are affecting the child. A lot of other things are affecting the child."*

DayoSchA added that

> *"It takes a lot from a teacher. It has to be a teacher who is probably well trained to be able to identify different learners."*

6.8.2.2 International policies on inclusive education

Participants (n-5) reported that training teachers in comparative inclusive education could enhance their professional preparation for it. This was because the participants felt that they had not received comprehensive training on international policies on inclusive education. It was believed that such training could equip teachers with international policy discourses underpinning inclusive education, which could enhance their preparation for its practice.

According to MideSchA:

> *"We only cover national policy. We did not do comparative education. Here in Nigeria, they lay more emphases on the national policy. Under the policy we learnt something on inclusion, that children should have equal rights to education, equity, equality. We didn't do anything related to international policy."*

YemiSchA added that:

“Yes, we did the national policy on education, the government regulations, and standards on education. I remember the right of a child and Education for All.”

TitiSchB was asked if he had training on the inclusive education policy, and he expressed that:

“Yes, we did. We had another course called psychology of education. They mentioned the policy of education in both courses.”

JideSchB stated that:

“Yes, we took the national policy on education. We did a sub-topic on the international policy of education, like Education for All.”

However, DoyinSchC indicated not being trained on policy or she could not remember being trained. This was elaborated in her statement:

“No, I don’t think so or maybe I have forgotten.”

After the class observation, the researcher requested the document on Nigeria’s National Policy of Education from all the participants to be analysed together with other documents obtained from them, but none of the participants had the document. Five of the participants reported that they were not aware of it and have never seen the policy documents before. Likewise, none of the participants were in possession of the course outlines used during their initial teacher preparation.

6.8.2.3 Management of behaviour

Two participants reported that training teachers in the management of the behaviour of learners with diverse disabilities and all learners in general could enhance their professional preparation for inclusive education. It was believed that such training could include equipping teachers with the competence to act in loco parentis, and to diagnose the needs of learners and to collaborate with parents. Such training was perceived to enable teachers to manage inclusive education in their classrooms. This was elaborated when ToyinSchC expressed that:

“Training on how to cope with some of the behaviours in the class apart from extrovert, introvert children and children that are psychologically disturbed, teachers should be trained on how to get closer to these children, see them as

your own children. This is very important. Other thing is how to manage children together in the class. Those that have partial disability in hearing, in vision, how to manage them because we are not trained much on that. They just gave us the training during a seminar, it was not included in our courses, so that the teacher will be prepared for these types of children he will meet in the classroom."

YemiSchA added that:

"So I think they should train the teacher to be able to tackle such problems, to be able to interact with the children or even to get to the parent of the child, how to find out the problem of the child and how to help the child go by the various problems."

She continued that:

"So I think the teachers really need to be lectured, I mean teachers need to be trained on how to handle situations like that."

6.9 Conclusion

This chapter presented and analysed the findings of the current study. It presented and analysed the findings of the study around the themes and sub-themes. The themes were derived from the sub-research questions of the study while the sub-themes emerged from its findings. The following chapter discusses the findings.

CHAPTER 7: DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

7.1 Introduction

Embedded in a multiple case study research design, the present qualitative study examined the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria as the context for proposing strategies and a model to enhance their professional preparation. The previous chapter presented and analysed the findings of the study organised around the four themes and the sub-themes that emerged from the respective themes. This chapter presents a discussion of the findings of the study based on these themes and sub-themes. The themes are the teachers' understanding of inclusive education, teachers' practices in the implementation of inclusive education, teachers' concerns regarding the implementation of inclusive education, and the strategies to enhance the professional preparation of teachers for inclusive education. The discussion is presented embedded in the CHAT, the theoretical framework that underpinned the study, and the reviewed international and Nigerian literature on the professional preparation of teachers for inclusive education. The following section presents a discussion on teachers' understanding of inclusive education.

7.2 Teachers' understanding of inclusive education

Overall, teachers revealed divergent understandings of inclusive education. This aligns with the multi-voiced-ness principle embodied in CHAT that underpinned the present study. Florian and Black-Hawkins (2011) stated that a lot of meaning is attributed to inclusive education but with no precise definition. In the same vein, previous studies reveal that there is an absence of a universal definition of inclusive education in spite of its global adoption since 1994 (Armstrong et al., 2011; Booth, 2011), because of conceptual difficulties in defining it. Including what counts as evidence of its best practice (ARACY, 2013). The disparity of the values, historical-cultural backgrounds, personal experience and the professional training of teachers could have influenced the divergent understanding of inclusive education. After a quarter of a century of its implementation in Nigeria and internationally, the divergent understandings of teachers of inclusive education challenges the global notion that several years of implementation of an educational innovation influences the teachers'

understanding of it. These divergent understandings of teachers can culminate in variations in the implementation of inclusive education, including impoverished and best practices, depending on the individual teacher's conceptualisation of it. The divergent understanding of teachers of inclusive education signifies its misunderstanding (Armstrong et al., 2011), which can result in it meaning everything to them and, at the same time, meaning nothing (Armstrong et al., 2011). This can interfere with its effective and successful implementation.

Although teachers demonstrated a lack of understanding of inclusive education in individual interviews, their practices during non-participant observations exhibited that they were grounded in addressing the diversity of learners in their regular classrooms. Inferably, the professional preparation of teachers in Nigeria equips them with the competence to meet the diversity of learners without them understanding inclusive education. This is a point of departure from the global premise that teachers' understanding of educational innovation, including inclusive education, influences how they implement it. This finding contradicts Loreman et al. (2013), who asserted that, in order to meet learner diversity in their classrooms, teachers need professional preparation that is grounded in skilling the head, heart and hand. According to Rouse (2010), the head is the development of knowledge, the hand refers to possessing practical and technical skills, and the heart refers to belief and attitudes; in other words, knowing, doing and believing (Rouse, 2008).

Teachers revealed that they understood inclusive education as integrating learners with disabilities in the regular school classrooms. This finding aligns with Muyungu's (2015) qualitative study in Tanzania which found that most pre-service teachers in that country understood inclusive education as teaching and supporting children with disabilities in the same class with their typically developing peers. Fyssa et al.'s (2014) study found that 85.7% of the pre-school regular and special educators in Greece, who participated in their study, understood inclusive education as the integration of learners with disabilities in regular school classrooms. Teachers' understanding of inclusive education as the integration of learners with disabilities in mainstream education can be attributed to Nigeria NPE, Section 7, that presents inclusive education from a disability perspective (FRN, 2008).

The embedment of both teachers and the Nigerian policy of the disability discourse in their expression of inclusive education can be attributed to the legacy of special education. This is not in alignment with several other countries that have shifted in paradigm from the integration to the inclusive education era in compliance with global human rights instruments, including the CRPD (UN, 2006) that espouses inclusive education as grounded in meeting the diversity of learners manifesting from various individual and systemic factors influencing human diversity. Likewise, it is enshrined in Article 3 of the Salamanca Statement and Framework for Action on Special Needs Education (UNESCO, 1994) that inclusive education is designed to accommodate all learners, irrespective of their physical, social, emotional, intellectual, linguistic, or any other condition (UNESCO, 1994). In addition, a growing body of knowledge has demonstrated that inclusive education is a broad concept (ARACY, 2013; Cologon, 2013; Loreman et al., 2014); it encompasses an array of policies, educational programmes, services and structures that ensure no child is excluded from the education system.

Teachers exhibited that they understood inclusive education as an educational process that infused formal and informal instruction to foster knowledge among diverse learners, including those with disabilities, whatever challenges, including out-of-school children, race and ethnicity. This understanding demonstrated the participants' awareness of recent international human rights policies that draw global attention to the imperativeness of implementing inclusive education (UNESCO, 1994; 2007). Rieser (2014) avers that inclusive education is the key to ensure that all learners are afforded their human right to educational access. The Lagos State inclusive education policy (2015) argues that inclusive education is the approach to meet the educational needs of all learners. The South African Education White Paper 6 of 2001 acknowledges that education is broader than formal schooling, but occurs in both formal and informal settings and structures, in the home and the community (DoE, 2001). Illustrating from CHAT, the object drives the activity (Roth, 2004), which in this study is to professionally prepare teachers for inclusive education, and the desired outcome is to equip teachers with the necessary inclusive teaching knowledge and skills for the successful management of diverse learners in the regular classroom. Teachers demonstrated a broad understanding of inclusive education in line with the object of activity system principle in this study. Although teachers' understanding of

inclusive education was short of articulating the other components of it, including its content, environment and product, their expression that it is grounded in addressing human diversity formally and informally is consistent with its widening and changing conception since the Salamanca Statement and the Framework for Action on Special Needs Education (UNESCO, 1994) endorsed its international practice in 1994.

Of concern is that teachers understood inclusive education as special education. The finding resonates with Leung and Mak's (2010) study, which established that Hong Kong's primary school teachers understood inclusive education as teaching and learning activities that involved children with special needs, while other teachers understood it as special education. ARACY (2013) argued that when inclusive education is understood as a disability issue, it perpetuates the code for "special education" and this works against inclusive educational practices and teachers attempts to pathologise some children, thus excluding those children from mainstream education provision. As argued previously in Section 1.2 of this thesis, special education is rooted in the medical model of disability that motivated the provision of segregated services to learners with disabilities because they were perceived to be differently-abled and needed to be 'fixed'. Other participants understood inclusive education as the physical accessibility of learners with disabilities to regular school classrooms. This understanding was based on the literal understanding of the phrase "inclusive education". Nevertheless, inclusive education is beyond the physical access and participation of learners with diverse needs in mainstream classrooms; it includes restructuring the pedagogical strategies, content, assessment/product, provisions and environment to meet their individuality (Donnelly & Watkins, 2011; Winter & O'Raw, 2010). The understanding of teachers of inclusive education based on the literal meaning of the phrase implies that these teachers may not have been exposed to the term throughout their professional preparation as primary school teachers. Inferably, the teachers are drawing the meaning of "inclusive education" from the ordinary daily use of English as it is their formal language of communication in Nigeria as a former British colony. This finding is consistent with CHAT which asserts that individuals understand and practice innovations embedded in their historical contexts.

It emerged from the current study that other teachers demonstrated a lack understanding of the meaning of inclusive education. However, the lack of

understanding of inclusive education exhibited by these teachers was not consistent with the findings from non-participant observation and document analysis. Document analysis revealed that all the teachers had identified learners with special needs in their respective classrooms. Similarly, the non-participant observation of teachers who lacked understanding of inclusive education showed that they were able to respond to the needs of learners identified with special needs in their various pedagogical practices. The ability of teachers to identify learners with special needs indicates that they had a basic knowledge of some processes of inclusive education. According to DBE (2015), the ability to diagnose learners with special needs is an essential skill required for inclusive teachers. In this study, several factors could be accounted for the teachers' ability to diagnose and respond to the learners with special needs in their classrooms. Gender, teaching experience and attitude towards human diversity might have contributed to the teachers ability to diagnose and respond to the diversity of needs of learners, even though they revealed a lack of understanding of inclusive education. Saloviita's (2018) survey found that younger Finnish teachers exhibited more positive attitudes toward inclusive education and female teachers were more positive towards inclusive education than male teachers. The researcher, however, acknowledges that the number of male respondents that was used in the study might have influenced these results. Likewise, in this present study, participants who lacked an understanding of inclusive education were new female teachers.

Although individual interviews revealed that these participants were not supportive of the inclusion of learners with special needs in regular school classrooms due to individual and systemic factors, including their lack of professional preparation and large class sizes, non-participant observation revealed otherwise. This finding challenges the current thinking in the inclusive school movement that teachers with negative attitudes towards inclusive education deliver inadequate services to learners with special needs in regular classrooms (Majoko, 2019). Teachers exhibiting positive attitudes towards the inclusion of children with special needs in their regular classrooms, despite their negative attitudes towards it, could have been a result of African values, including care and support for those with exceptionalities which generally characterise the Nigerian way of living. This study was carried out in South-west Nigeria, where the Omoluabi philosophy discussed in Section 3.5 of this thesis is the belief system that informs the way of life of the people in that region. Omoluabi,

as discussed previously, entails respect, good mind/good intention and good character. These attributes might have underlied the teachers' support and response to the needs of learners with special needs in their respective classrooms. Chukuka's (2012) study in the same region, South-west Nigeria, found that teachers in this region had positive attitudes towards the implementation of inclusive education due to the prevalent cultural beliefs and practices in that part of the country. CHAT also advances that individuals cannot operate independently from their social, cultural and historical settings (Wilson, 2014). Thus, teachers in this study may have been managing teaching and learning in their classrooms under the influence of the belief system (Omoluabi philosophy), norms and traditions (Yoruba tradition) that governed the context wherein the study was conducted. This finding challenges the common belief that Africans stigmatise people with disabilities because of the lack of scientific explanation of their etiological foundations. The following section discusses teachers' practices in implementing inclusive education.

7.3 Teachers' practices in the implementation of inclusive education

This study revealed that teachers engaged in various practices in implementing inclusive education. These included the strategic management of the teaching and learning environment, process, content and assessment in response to the diversity of learners in their regular classrooms. The following section discusses management of the learning environment.

It emerged from this study that teachers strategically managed the teaching and learning classroom environment through the adjustment of the classroom's seating arrangements for learners who were identified as experiencing barriers to learning, including those who had residual vision, residual hearing and ADHD, to meet their individual learning needs. Such seating arrangements entailed the seating of learners experiencing specific barriers to learning close to or away from the teachers to facilitate their access to the pedagogical content or to eliminate behavioural problems to promote effective teaching and learning of all learners. This finding resonates with previous studies which found that altering seating positions have a positive impact on classroom learning (Fernandes, Huang, & Rinaldo, 2011; Trussell, 2008). Guardino and Antia (2012) examined the effect of physical adjustment of self-contained

classrooms on academic engagement and the disruptive behaviour of learners who were deaf and hard of hearing in the USA. These researchers established that the level of academic engagement of learners who were deaf and hard of hearing increased and the level of disruptive behaviour decreased when the classroom was modified. Teachers' use of basic classroom management strategies can, therefore, promote inclusive education in regular school classrooms, although this will depend on the nature and severity of the disability of the learners.

This study revealed that teachers used the buddy system in implementing inclusive education in regular school classrooms. Teachers in this study paired boys and girls, gifted and talented learners, and learners with special needs, and/or placed them in small groups. This finding is consistent with Miller and Metz's (2014) study which found that only two or three students of dentistry failed the physiology course annually due to their engagement in small group collaborative learning., Kwok's (2019) study established that teachers in the USA purposely allocated seats to learners who could work well with each other. Tanyi (2016) argued that arranging the classroom to allow small group work encourages the buddy system, where more academically able or older learners work together with learners experiencing barriers to learning. In the same vein, Enache and Crisan (2012) found that the benefits of collaborative learning included self-efficacy, intrinsic commitment to tasks, support from the group and discussing own knowledge in order to solicit the opinion of the group. Placing learners in strategic seating positions and mixed ability grouping is consistent with the object element of the activity system principle because the aim was to ensure the inclusion of learners with diverse unique needs in regular classroom teaching and learning.

From this study, it was established that teachers used ability grouping in the implementation of inclusive education in regular classrooms. Ability grouping was seen to facilitate meeting the individual needs of learners with special needs in these settings. On the other hand, the separation of learners with special needs from their peers without special needs in regular classrooms for intervention could have resulted in their discrimination and exclusion in these settings. Since the strategy was used during lesson presentation or break-time, where peers without disabilities could easily identify those with special educational needs, this could have pronounced the deficits of these learners at the expense of their strengths. Mavrou and Symeonidou (2014)

established that schools and teachers continue to follow outdated practices such as excluding learners with disabilities from the regular school classrooms to provide them with individualised support, all in the name of inclusive education. However, in their study, Spratt and Florian (2015) found that teachers used strategies that responded to the whole class in situations where individual learners faced difficulties in learning. It was established that these teachers responded by not targeting or separating the learners but by including everybody in their pedagogical practices. Equally, Perry and Wilson (2015) established that Finnish teachers used proactive approaches to provide support to learners with special needs without formally diagnosing them to prevent their stigmatisation or labelling. This aligned with a remarkable finding that revealed one participant strategically separating learners with special needs without making it obvious to the whole class. The separation of learners/ability grouping of learners compromised their social justice, as upheld in the CHAT that informed the present study.

It emerged from this study that teachers practised a caring ethic in implementing inclusive education in regular classrooms. This entailed their establishment of and sustaining of positive relationships with learners to become acquainted with them. This strategy enhanced inclusive teaching and learning because it cultivated a democratic classroom atmosphere that enabled learners to freely express themselves in pedagogical encounters. Literature also shows that the relational approach to teaching and learning enables learners to acquire new concepts and memorise them for lengthy periods of time (Giorgdze & Dgebuadze, 2017). Pianta, Hamre and Allen (2012), likewise, found that the key element to effective classroom practice was the effort of teachers to support the social and emotional functioning of learners through the positive facilitation of teacher-learner interactions. In the same vein, Kwok (2019) established that learners were more likely to be cooperative and feel secured in a context where a positive teacher-learner relationship existed. Teachers in this present study acknowledged that interaction enabled learners to share and freely express themselves in the classroom. This finding resonates with prior studies which show that a positive relationship between teacher-learner increases learners' participation and input in class (Giorgdze & Dgebuadze, 2017; Kwok, 2019). Suldo, McMahan, Chappel, and Bateman (2014) found that satisfaction in the relationship between teacher and learner correlated with adaptive academic achievement, higher grade point averages,

greater value for school and less disciplinary referrals. A study by Ahnert, Harwardt-Heinecke, Kappler, Eckstein-Madry, and Milatz (2012) demonstrated that a supportive classroom, where teachers establish an interpersonal atmosphere with learners, reduced learners' stress. This finding is consistent with the assertion of teachers in this study that interaction with learners eliminated fear among learners. Despite the effectiveness of a caring ethical approach, the observation findings revealed that it was not fully exploited in classes that had large populations due to the limited time allocation on the class timetable and the inability of teachers to attend to individual learners because of large class sizes.

One vital skill required by an inclusive teacher is the ability to identify learners with special needs (DBE, 2015). This present study revealed that teachers were able to identify learners with diverse special needs in their respective classrooms. This finding resonates with previous research which found that South African primary school teachers employed various techniques, such as formal and informal assessment methods, classwork-activities, project work, questions and answers to identify the learners' strengths and weaknesses (Daniyan, 2015). Identifying learners with special needs is important because it helps teachers to plan support strategies in their teaching and learning in regular school classrooms. It has been acknowledged that when there is a delay in identifying learners with special needs, it will disadvantage them and their families because of the deprivation of early intervention (Keenan, Dillenburger, Doherty, & Byrne, 2010). The DoE (2005) emphasised that teachers are required to identify learners with special needs in their classes, such as those in need of support, enriched programmes, over-aged learners, those experiencing learning barriers, poverty, abuse, neglect, emotional problems, physical disabilities and health problems.

This study established that teachers used the question and answer method in implementing inclusive education in regular classrooms. The question and answer method amassed the baseline knowledge of learners regarding new teaching and learning content, which facilitated the teachers' adoption of a spiral teaching and learning approach. Tofade, Elsner and Haines' (2013) study found that the use of the question and answer method during teaching and learning not only stimulated recalling of previous knowledge or eased learner participation, but promoted comprehension,

inculcated critical thinking, uncovered taught content and facilitated discussion among peer and teachers. Kinniburgh and Shaw (2009) observed that when learners understand question/answer relationships, they will develop confidence in their reading ability and spend less time searching for answers that require their background knowledge. When teachers ask questions and strategically follow them up, it can serve as a scaffolding to support learners' conceptual understanding (Smart & Marshall, 2013). Teachers in this present study reported that the question and answer method is child-centred, which promotes comprehension of taught concepts and active participation of learners during teaching and learning. This finding is consistent with prior studies that established that a child-centred approach enhanced the engagement or participation of learners in class (Lall, 2011; Takala, 2013). However, Song (2015) found that despite Cambodian primary school teachers' strong belief about the effectiveness of a child-centred approach, their classroom practice was dominated by a conventional teaching approach due to large classes, difference in learners' ability and limited teaching resources. Equally, Mtika and Gates (2010) established that pre-service teachers in Malawi experienced difficulty in employing a child-centred approach due to large class sizes. Large class sizes also hindered teachers in the current study to implement a child-centred pedagogy optimally.

It emerged that teachers in the current study used activity-based pedagogical approaches, such as role play and drama, to motivate learners and promote their active participation in implementing inclusive education in regular classrooms. The approach enhanced the retention of teaching and learning content of learners and fostered their participation in regular classrooms. This is consistent with previous research (Fyssa et al., 2014). This study revealed that teachers manipulated reinforcement as a strategic intervention to motivate learners to learn and feel secured in their implementation of inclusive education in regular classrooms. Wong and Wong (2014) established that school settings should be safe and protected places where learners come to learn without fear. Polirstok (2015) adds that classrooms should be warm and congenial settings where learners can freely respond to challenging questions without criticism. The researcher also revealed that teachers with a high approval sense fostered hand-rising, smiles, sustained eye contact and increased on-task time in learners. It also emerged that teachers in this study repeated instruction to respond to the needs of learners experiencing barriers to learning in implementing

inclusive education in regular classrooms. Repeated instruction facilitated mastery of taught content of learners with learning disabilities in regular classrooms. This finding is consistent with past research which found that teachers re-teach learners in order for them to master skills (Meidl & Meidl, 2011).

Teachers in the present study assigned homework to learners in their implementation of inclusive education in regular classrooms. Literature has documented the benefits of homework to learners. Bembenutty (2011) found a positive association between homework and a range of self-regulation skills that enhance academic success and performance. The researcher established that homework can foster self-regulation processes and self-efficacy belief in learners, including setting goals, managing time and the environment, as well as maintaining attention. Ramdass and Zimmerman (2011) established that there is a positive correlation between homework and self-regulation and learners because learners can attain self-regulation through homework activities. During homework activities, learners can develop the capacity to regulate certain environmental features, such as creating adequate workspace and a quiet place to study and removing items like toys and cell phones that can cause distraction (Xu, 2013). Carr (2013) found that if homework is properly utilised, it can be a valuable tool to strengthen learning. In this study, teachers co-opted various methods during the teaching and learning process to accommodate learner differences in implementing inclusive education in regular classrooms. This finding aligns with various scholars (Lee et al., 2010; Muthomi & Mbugua, 2014). Although teachers co-opted various methods during teaching and learning in implementing inclusive education in regular classrooms, they did not differentiate them because they used one-size-fits-all for the entire class.

Teachers reported that the large class sizes and the allocation of limited teaching and learning time to subjects on the timetable prevented them from differentiating the methods for individual learners. This finding is consistent with Maddox's (2015) study that found that k-5 teachers in the USA felt that differentiation of instruction was time-consuming due to the diverse population of learners in their classrooms. Morningstar et al. (2015) observed in their study of 65 inclusive classrooms that the cognitive work for learners with disabilities was reduced by 51%, for instance, picture-based stories were used in the place of written stories, or learners with disabilities were required to

complete lesser items of work. This is consistent with the finding from one teacher in this study, who indicated that he assigned more demanding tasks to learners who were gifted and talented, while assigning less demanding tasks to the rest of the learners in his classroom.

From this study, it emerged that teachers adapted instructions to teach in response to the level of understanding of learners in implementing inclusive education in regular classrooms. This facilitated their simplification and tailoring of teaching and learning to the abilities of individual learners in regular classrooms. Equally, Njagi (2014) found that contemporary classrooms house diverse learners and no two learners learn at the same rate or in the same manner, so teachers ought to respond to these diverse needs. In the same vein, Gettinger and Stoiber's (2012) study on early literacy assessment on at-risk pre-schoolers found that learners in classrooms where instruction adaptation was implemented, performed better on outcome measures compared to learners in classrooms where the practice was not implemented. Furthermore, Lee et al. (2010) found that the adaptation of instruction improved the engagement of learners in class and decreased challenging behaviour among them.

This study revealed that teachers used individualised instruction in their implementation of inclusive education in regular classrooms. The strategy was an intervention in meeting the individual needs of learners who experienced barriers to learning in regular classrooms. This practice is supported in other studies (Baines, Blatchford, & Webster, 2015). However, in terms of CHAT, learning activity involves the collaborative effort of community members, such as peer learners assisting and working together, and peer tutoring and cooperative learning. In a situation where learners are separated to be given one-on-one lessons or interventions, the individuality of such learners will be pronounced just as in the situation of ability grouping discussed above. The principle of contradictions of CHAT states that tensions can occur within the elements of the activity system (Engeström, 2001). The concept of individualised instruction (tool) practised in this study contradicts the aim of the professional preparation of teachers for inclusion of all learners in the regular classroom (object).

It was established in this study that teachers afforded additional support to learners during teaching and learning in their implementation of inclusive education in regular classrooms. Teachers ensured that learners who experienced barriers to learning were afforded special attention, extra time, including extra lessons and after-school classes to improve their learning. The finding is affirmed in a previous study that established that primary school teachers arranged extra lessons during lunch, after school and weekend classes for learners experiencing barriers to learning (Daniyan, 2015). Teachers utilised educational aids to mediate learning in implementing inclusive education in regular classrooms. The use of educational toys, charts and pictures enhanced visual learning, multi-sensory learning, motivation and understanding of taught materials of learners.

Several studies have revealed the effectiveness of instructional aids/tools in enhancing teaching and learning (Karemaker, Pitchford, & O'Malley, 2010; Loo, Bambiou, Cambell, & Luxon, 2010). The teachers only indicated toys, charts and pictures as software or computer-based teaching aids were absent in the classes observed. As indicated in Section 4.6 of this thesis, the schools that participated in the study were located in a semi-urban area which lacked modern technology despite its effectiveness in facilitating teaching and learning in regular classrooms with diverse learners. Takala (2013) conducted a mixed method study on 22 Finnish teachers to examine a teaching approach reading through writing, an approach based on the use of computers. The researcher found that the approach was well suited for learners with unique needs because it inspired them to write and fostered their social interaction and self-creativity. Karemaker et al. (2010) investigated the effectiveness of reading intervention based on the use of ORT for Clicker software or traditional books on 17 children. This researcher established that Clicker was more effective in supporting early literacy skills than traditional printed texts. Despite the effectiveness of computer-based teaching and learning, teachers in this study only had access to orthodox teaching aids. Thus, this negates from the tools element of the activity system principle of CHAT that underpinned the present study.

It emerged from this study that teachers involved parents in implementing inclusive education in regular classrooms. Parents were seen by the primary school teachers as the custodians of the information that teachers needed to implement inclusive

education in regular classrooms. This finding is supported by previous studies (Adams et al., 2016; Mereoiu et al., 2016). Similarly, previous studies demonstrated that teacher-parent collaboration plays a crucial role in reducing behavioural problems of learners (Trung Lam & Ducreux, 2013). In the same vein, other studies have shown that the collaboration of parents with teachers enhances the academic achievement and welfare of children at school (Fan & William, 2010; Menheere & Hooge, 2010), and that it can promote their inclusion in regular classrooms. In addition, previous research revealed that parents know the strengths, needs, and preferences of their children which teachers can use to develop/as the basis for their provision of support and intervention in inclusive education (NTACT, 2017). When parents provide teachers with vital information on the behaviour and the learning of their children, it can direct/guide the teachers' delivery of teaching and learning in response to the children's individuality. In the present study, parents were seen to afford teachers information that enabled them to establish the baseline knowledge of learners and their interest prior to the delivery of lessons. Teachers revealed that they discussed issues affecting the teaching and learning of their children with parents on parent forum/visiting day in their implementation of inclusive education. The platform was also seen to be a platform to advice parents on how to help their children at home. Likewise, Grady and Bost (2014) found that school partnerships with parents, conducting home visits and affording parents assistance on how to reinforce classroom instruction decreased the dropout rate of learners. Despite the potential benefit of parental partnerships, Staples and Diliberto (2010) found that parents perceived school partnerships as time-consuming and challenging to fit into their busy schedule.

This study revealed that teachers co-taught in implementing inclusive education in regular classrooms. Co-teaching was an important strategy that was seen to enable peer teachers to assist each other in monitoring learners in large classrooms and to provide necessary assistance during teaching and learning. Nierengarten (2013) refers to co-teaching as a support strategy used to address the difficulty and capitalise on the opportunities for learners with special educational needs in regular classrooms. Collaboration in teaching, according to Friend and Cook (2010), is employed by professional teachers because it is based on mutual goals, shared responsibility to make key decisions, shared accountability for outcomes, shared resources and

development of trust, respect, and a sense of community. Teachers who co-teach share roles, responsibility and differentiate methods in an attempt to blend their expertise for learners with and without disabilities (Strogilos et al., 2018).

Teachers in this present study revealed that their peers only assisted them to monitor and control the class during lesson presentation due to large class sizes. One of the co-teach models discussed in the literature involves a “one teach, one assist approach” that enables one teacher to teach the majority of the learners while the other teacher engages with smaller groups and ensures that no learner disrupts the class (Olowo et al., 2015). The model is advantageous for all learners, with or without disabilities, because they can be able to access the general curriculum and support can be provided for those who require additional support (Obiakor & Offor, 2012). Collaborative teaching provides opportunities for the direct correction and redirection of learners in need of more assistance, which may not be available in solo-taught classroom (Olowo et al., 2015). Thus, teachers are able to meet the individual needs of their learners. Division of labour from the context of CHAT describes how tasks/activities are distributed among role players (Leadbetter, 2008). Co-teaching enables teachers to share responsibility. However, learners in the present study did not enjoy the full benefits of co-teaching because as noted during observation, the colleagues monitored and ensured that no learner disturbed or made noise while the lessons were being delivered. No one was observed clarifying or helping learners with the subject. This suggests that participants need to acquire the skills of co-teaching and collaboration for inclusive classrooms.

This study revealed that school-based support was provided to teachers in their implementation of inclusive education in their regular classrooms. Support, such as teaching aids, assistive devices, and moral support from the schools and head teachers in particular, was felt to promote the implementation of inclusive education in regular classrooms. However, this finding contradicts several prior studies that revealed that teachers lacked support from school administrators or government to implement inclusive education in regular classrooms (Daniyan, 2015; Maseko & Sisana, 2014). The OECD’s review on assessment practices in Australia revealed that teachers needed substantial support to understand learner assessment data and how use it to improve their instructional practice (Santiago et al., 2011). The South African

Education White Paper 6 (DoE, 2001) reveals the importance of support and it emphasises that the teaching and learning process will be supported in order to identify and address the needs of learners at teacher and institutional levels.

Similarly, it emerged from the current study that non-governmental organisations (NGO) supported the welfare of learners through the distribution of educational items, health talks and health services in order to improve learners' school participation in the teachers' implementation of inclusive education in regular classrooms. The role of NGOs in ensuring that the goals of inclusive education are achievable was supported in another study (Mahlo, 2011). CHAT enshrines the indispensability of the role of the community in the activity system and the interdependence of all role-players (Roth & Tobin, 2002). As previously stated, community, such as the classroom environment, is a socio-cultural context that comprises teachers and peer teachers working together with other stakeholders such as parents, NGOs, community members, professional and government officers, to ensure that all learners receive quality education and are successfully included in the regular classroom.

CHAT rules outline the demeanour and expectation of role-players in an activity system. Watson (2009) asserts that the provision of appropriate resourced policies and services is central to inclusive education systems. It emerged from this study that schools had policies that regulated learner misconduct and ensured that there were rules and discipline in classrooms. Teachers in this study indicated that the use of the cane and corporal punishment was banned in schools. This is affirmed in Section 1b, Article 221 of the Nigeria Child Rights Act (FRN, 2003) that prohibits corporal punishment and child abuse. However, teachers in this study revealed that they were allowed to utilise certain punishments, such as asking learners to kneel down, raising up hands, or weeding the grass to correct misconduct in the classrooms or lateness to school in their implementation of inclusive education. This finding affirms previous studies that revealed that teachers set classroom rules, and used verbal and physical intervention as strategies to manage classrooms (Polat, Kaya, & Akdağ, 2013; Soydan et al., 2018). Soydan et al. (2018) found that most teachers focused on immediate intervention to correct and change learners' negative behaviours but in reality the approach failed to yield the expected results. According to Polirstok (2015), the problem with the punishment approach is that when over-used, it fails to teach the

expected target behaviour but creates resentment on the part of the learners. Problem behaviour does not occur at random or in isolation, but can be predicted and prevented if teachers can identify some of the triggers, contexts, or typical outcomes associated with problem behaviour (Landrum, Lingo, & Scott, 2011). These researchers found that teachers can reduce or prevent problem behaviour if academic instruction is designed and delivered to engage all learners and teach them the social and survival skills they are expected to display (Landrum et al., 2011).

Although teachers in this study acknowledged the prohibition of corporal punishment, they failed to relate physical punishment such as kneeling down, raising up hands, or weeding the grass with corporal punishment in their implementation of inclusive education in regular classrooms. Seemingly, teachers in the present study lacked an understanding of the conceptual meaning of corporal punishment or they just tended to ignore the law. As Sharma et al. (2008) established, despite the importance of legislation and policies, they do not translate into practice. Literature has documented that policies and regulation are not adhered to (Fyssa et al., 2014). Teachers appointed class leaders/captains to monitor learners, especially the tenacious ones, in the class and summoned parents to intervene when learner indiscipline got out of control while implementing inclusive education. Prior studies have reported summoning of parents as a strategic intervention to children's unruly and defiant behaviour (Kwok, 2019).

7.4 Teachers' concerns regarding the implementation of inclusive education

It emerged from this study that teachers had several individual and systemic concerns regarding implementing inclusive education. These were related to their professional preparation, practices of inclusive education and dispositions with respect to the implementation of inclusive education in regular classrooms.

This study revealed that teachers were concerned that they had no professional preparation for inclusive education in their teacher training programme. Instead, they had superficial training on special education, including learners with some types of disabilities and the types of special schools for these learners. Nevertheless, they had all alluded to having completed a compulsory module on special education as part of their professional preparation for inclusive education in their teacher training

programmes. This is consistent with prior studies (DBE, 2010; Hemmings & Woodcock, 2011). In Delhi, India Das et al.'s (2013) study on primary and secondary school teachers found that 70% of them lacked training on special education which hampered their teaching of learners with disabilities in regular classrooms. In Mexico, Forlin, Cedillo, Romero-Contreras, Fletcher, and Hernández (2010) established that about 44% of the pre-service teachers who participated in this study lacked training on special needs education. However, these pre-service teachers reported that upon graduation, they were expected to possess skills and knowledge to include learners with special needs in their regular classrooms. Rahaman and Sutherland (2012) found that the present teacher training curriculum in Bangladesh did not make provision for different types of learners' learning needs and was not well developed to support the transition of school teachers into effective inclusive settings. Similarly, Forlin et al.'s (2015) survey on 619 pre-service teachers in Japan revealed that 62% of these pre-service teachers had not received training on teaching learners with special education needs and disability. In Zimbabwe, Chireshe's (2011) survey of 76 in-service teacher trainees found that 95% of them indicated that regular teachers lacked training to adapt teaching and learning activities to accommodate learners with special educational needs. Worldwide, countries professionally prepare teachers for either inclusive education or special education or both, yet Nigeria is seemingly failing to professionally prepare teachers for inclusive education or special education.
Hemmings and Woodcock (2011) found that some teacher education programmes provide little in terms of inclusive education or even fail to address major areas of inclusive education. This affirms the present finding that teachers in this study were not taught any module on inclusive education in their initial professional teacher training. Forlin (2012) observed that teacher programmes for inclusive education in most countries are either absent or employed token effort to educate teachers. In South Africa, Mahlo, (2011) found that teachers lack training on inclusive education. Forlin et al. (2015) established that there is no course on inclusive education in Japan and pre-service teachers specialising in general education are not mandated to take courses on special education.

It emerged from this study that the classroom reality that teachers experienced during teaching practice differed from what they were professionally prepared for during training. Thus, there was a theory-practice gap in the professional preparation of

teachers for inclusive education as they were not trained in it. Loughran, Keast and Cooper (2015) affirmed that teacher professional preparation programmes have been accused of not aligning their training programmes with school reality and are over-dependent on theory during lectures. This affirmed the participants' assertion that their initial professional preparation programmes were theory-laden. Practical approaches to the professional preparation of teachers, such as micro-teaching or simulation, were lacking or not thoroughly exploited. Literature has documented the potential benefits of micro-teaching (Ekşi, 2012; He & Yan, 2011). Kilic (2010) opined that micro-teaching improves teacher behaviour in the learning environment. Küçükoğlu et al. (2012) study of 40 pre-service teachers found that those who underwent micro-teaching in training had fewer challenges than those without micro-teaching. Micro-teaching helps pre-service teachers to improve their observation skills, lesson planning and teaching confidence (Saban & Çoklar, 2013). This enabled pre-service teachers to be aware of different teaching styles and approaches, observe peer teachers and give feedback (Abas, 2016).

It emerged from this study that teachers were concerned that their host teachers during teaching practice did not give them the opportunity to demonstrate their skills and most host teachers lacked the knowledge to include children with diverse unique needs. Beacham and Rouse (2011) affirmed that during teaching practice, student teachers often face contrasting views about inclusive education from their host teachers. Drawing from CHAT, discrepancies in terms of skills and interests between participants in this current study and their host teachers during teaching practice could have led to tension and contradiction (Engeström, 1999). Such tension and contradiction has the tendency to hinder collaboration among host teachers and pre-service teachers. Consequently, the aim of providing quality education that benefits all learners could be jeopardised and some learners could be excluded.

This study revealed that teachers were concerned that the numeracy and literacy curriculum that was offered in primary schools lacked contextual relevance to the learners and was not responsive to their academic needs. This finding aligns with previous studies that showed that teachers resist educational change, including the adoption of a new curriculum (Fullan, 2016; Guthrie, 2011; Ibrahim, Al-Kaabi, & El-Zaatari, 2013; Snyder, 2017). According to Fullan (2007), teachers resisted change

because they perceived that policymakers who orchestrated educational innovations lacked understanding of the classroom process and what is required in education. However, it emerged in this study that other teachers felt that the new literacy and numeracy curriculum was helpful because they perceived that learners and teachers benefitted from well-organised lesson plans, guidelines, instructions and child-centred pedagogy. This finding resonates with De Clercq (2014), who established that the Gauteng Primary Language Mathematics Strategy (GPLMS) in South Africa is a potent and standardised intervention that comprises supportive learning materials, lesson plans and the provision of coaching to teachers. The present study established that teachers were concerned that the government neglected to renovate dilapidated school buildings, construct additional classes, provide education resources and support learners with special needs. Similarly, the FME (2005) revealed that several schools lack toilet facilities, water supplies and waste disposal facilities. In the same vein, Ormrod (2014) found that schools in low-income communities lacked a maintenance culture, were poorly funded and not well equipped.

This study found that teachers were concerned that some parents neglected their roles and expected teachers to carry out all their roles and responsibilities in the education of their children. This affirms the finding of Staples and Diliberto (2010), who established that teachers regularly complain about the difficulties they face in getting parents to attend IEP meetings. Daniyan (2015) reported the nonchalant attitude of parents and a lack of home monitoring in her study. Teachers in the current study were concerned that parents were not monitoring the teaching and learning of their children at home. Xu and Malinen (2015) found that one major obstacle to teachers' work is a lack of parental support.

This study revealed that teachers were concerned that learners were not interested in learning and some came from poverty-stricken backgrounds that lacked stationery and food. The Nigerian Government embarked on a reform agenda to address social challenges by introducing a poverty reduction programme. This resulted in a decline in the inflation rate from 14% to 11% in 2002 (FME, 2005). However, a report by the World Bank found that 68% of Nigerians live in poverty, earning 1.25 dollar per day (World Bank, 2012). Landsberg et al. (2011) observed that poverty is a reflection of education backlogs. Teachers in the present study felt that learners who reported to

school on empty stomachs could not participate effectively in the teaching and learning process.

From this study, it emerged that teachers were concerned about overcrowded classrooms, which created an additional workload and inconvenienced them in their delivery of lessons. They reported that large class populations were complex to manage and hindered effective inclusive teaching and learning in regular classrooms. Teachers felt that large class populations were time consuming, not easy to control and hampered effective teaching as they prevented the provision of individual attention to learners with special needs. UNESCO (2009) found that large class sizes are a barrier to effective instruction delivery and prevented teachers from giving learners individual attention. Alufohai, Asika, and Ohen's (2018) survey of 400 teachers from public secondary schools in Edo, Nigeria, found that 74% of them indicated that overcrowded classes hindered the effective delivery of instruction. Mahlo (2011), in her research of learning support teachers in the foundation phase, found that overcrowded classrooms rendered inclusive education impractical as teachers were unable to accommodate learners experiencing barriers in learning. Measured against

UNESCO's specification of a 1:30 teacher-learner ratio (UNESCO, 2009), all classes observed in the present study were overfull with a minimum of 55 learners in a class and some classes were observed accommodating up to 150 learners. The situation can impact teacher productivity negatively, as most of them complained of noise due to class population. Shah and Inamullah (2012) found that overcrowded classrooms pose challenges, such as disruptive behaviour and discipline problems, social deprivation and eventually an increased drop-out rate of learners. Khan and Iqbal (2012) established that overcrowded classrooms affect instructional activities, discipline, physical space and evaluation of learners. Similarly, teachers in the present study were unable to move freely in the observed classroom and complained of the inability to give extra work to learners due to the class size.

It emerged that personal disposition, attitudes and beliefs influence teachers' implementation of inclusive education. Most teachers demonstrated positive attitudes towards inclusive teaching and learning all children, including those with disabilities, in the regular school classroom. This affirmed several studies that found that teachers

had positive attitudes toward inclusive education (Forlin et al., 2010; Jerlinder et al., 2010; Sosu et al., 2010). Jerlinder et al. (2010) established that Swedish primary school teachers had positive attitudes towards the inclusion of learners with physical disabilities in their PE classrooms and they rejected the claim that planning inclusive teaching and learning for learners with physical disabilities is stressful and that teachers do not have adequate time for other learners in the class. However, some teachers in this present study felt that children with disabilities would not cope in regular classrooms and they were not trained to manage these learners. This finding is consistent with Leung and Mak (2010), who established that 14.6% of the teachers who participated in their study believed that none of the learners with special educational needs was capable of studying in the regular school classrooms. Equally, in Chile, Fletcher et al. (2010) found that teachers expressed doubt concerning how inclusive education would benefit children with special educational needs.

Saloviita and Schaffus' (2016) established that 90% German teachers who participated in their study felt that the placement of children with special educational in regular classrooms would create a higher workload. In this present study, teachers felt that children with special needs were slow to write and cope in class, which created additional work for them. In their study, Hwang and Evans (2011) found that Korean teachers felt that learners with disabilities are better taught in special settings because they might be frustrated and not succeed in regular classrooms and some teachers perceived that specialised services may not be available for learners with disabilities in regular classrooms. This affirmed findings of the present study, as some teachers believed that separate schools are in the best interest of learners with special needs.

7.5 Strategies to enhance the professional preparation of teachers for inclusive education

It emerged from the current study that strategies that are grounded in individual and institutional capacity building in inclusive education could enhance the professional preparation of teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria. Such strategies include the requisition of appropriate human, material, technological, financial and time resources that could facilitate teachers' meeting the diversity of learners in the regular school classrooms.

This study revealed that training teachers to use modern teaching and learning information and communication technology could enhance their professional preparation for inclusive education. This is because such training could prepare them to discharge their professional roles and responsibilities in inclusive education, including independent delivery of services, transfer of knowledge to learners, researching and motivation of learners. The use of information and communication technology (ICT) is inevitable in 21st century education, as it improves teaching and learning and enables teachers to meet the diversity of learners in regular classrooms as upheld in the outcome element of CHAT that informed the study. This finding resonates with CHAT, which requires the use of tools such as ICT as mediating artefacts that enable the achievement of the outcome (Roth & Tobin, 2002). Similarly, Kayange, and Msiska (2016) established that pre-service teachers in China acknowledged the importance of information technology and how computer skills can enhance teaching, but they indicated that it was adequately taught in their teacher professional preparation programme. According to Ogar (2016), the use of ICT in education is low in Nigeria. In the ICT Network Readiness Index of 2013, Nigeria was rated 113 out of 144 countries (Ajanaku, 2013). Ogar (2016) argues that teacher education needs to embrace strategies that will provide teachers with unlimited access to information available on the Internet so that information and resources accessed from it can be integrated into inclusive education. It was felt that funding could enable teacher education institutions to pool material and technological resources to enhance the professional preparation of teachers for inclusive education, including learning through research on their own.

It emerged from this study that continuous in-service training of regular teachers in special education could enhance their professional preparation for inclusive education. This finding is consistent with prior studies (European Agency for Special Needs and Inclusive Education, 2015; European Commission, 2015a; Majoko, 2013). Adetoro (2014) established that regular school teachers need retraining in inclusive pedagogy and skills so that no child will be excluded from the curriculum delivery. This study revealed that training teachers in identifying learners with diverse unique needs could enhance their professional preparation for inclusive education. It was felt that such training could equip teachers with the competence to identify learners with diverse

unique needs, including those with invisible disabilities. The introduction of a module that can equip prospective teachers with knowledge and skills on how to identify learners with special educational needs in teacher education was felt to be imperative. It was felt that this could enable teachers to identify and take decisive measure to respond to the diverse unique needs of learners.

According to the DBE (2015), the ability to identify learners with special needs is an essential skill required for inclusive teachers. Equally, the DoE (2005) acknowledged that if teachers are the main players in the course of identifying and addressing barriers to learning, they need to be trained in barriers to learning and ways of identifying them. Mpya (2007) found that teachers require training in the contextual background of barriers to learning, the causes of barriers, particular curricula to follow, content and materials to use, teaching strategies to employ and ways of preventing barriers to learning. It has been established that most teachers lack knowledge of barriers to learning and they have challenges in screening and identifying learners with barriers to learning (Mkhuma, Maseko, & Tiale, 2014). In line with the historicity principle of CHAT, the previous professional preparation of regular school teachers was not structured to train them manage learner diversity. Teachers in the present study recommended the training of teachers in the management of learners with diverse unique needs.

Drawing from the principle of tension and contradiction of CHAT, contradiction and tension in teacher professional preparation programmes can be seem as driving forces for change and development when they are dealt with in such a way that an emerging new object is identified and transformed into a motive (Engeström & Sannino, 2010). It emerged from this study that the training of teachers in comparative education, including Nigerian and international policies on special and inclusive education in their pre-service teacher education, could enhance their professional preparation for inclusive education. This could foster in an understanding of global discourse on the subject. Ahsan and Mullick (2013) aver that teacher education rooted in the principle of equity and consistent with inclusive education will motivate teachers to teach and establish inclusive education practices regardless of challenges, resistance to inclusive education and negative views. Slee (2010) suggested that the reformation of teacher education should move beyond integrating special education into existing

programmes, and should provide courses that would build and equip teachers to provide quality education to learners and respond to the needs of all learners.

This study established that training teachers in the management of learners with and without diverse unique needs in regular classrooms could enhance their professional preparation for inclusive education. The finding is consistent with prior studies (Oswald & Swart, 2011; Soydan et al., 2018). Majoko (2019) argued that equipping pre-service and in-service teachers with skills to respond to child diversity is a key competency that could facilitate effective implementation of inclusive education. The researcher also revealed that training teachers in both the theory and practice of inclusive education in their initial teacher education could enhance their professional preparation for it. Forlin et al. (2015) argued that for inclusive education to be effective, teachers need to be committed and cognisant of the philosophy and possess the necessary skills to be able to support a diversity of learners. Loreman et al. (2013) concurred that teachers need to be developed the head, heart and hand in order to meet the diversity of learners in regular classrooms. As discussed above, the head is the development of knowledge; the hand refers to possessing practical and technical skills, and the heart refers to beliefs and attitudes towards inclusive education (Rouse, 2010).

From this study, it emerged that the offering of inclusive education as a compulsory component of regular pre-service training of teachers in every semester from the beginning of the training to its ending could enhance their professional preparation for inclusive education. The study also revealed that the offering of inclusive education as a stand-alone component in the pre-service training of teachers could enhance their professional preparation for it. This is not consistent with Forlin (2010), who argued that preparing teachers for inclusion through stand-alone courses outside the main curriculum that is handled by specialists will continue to maintain the idea that inclusion is something which is only done by specialists and should be an addition to all other curriculum areas. Forlin (2010) further argued that if the concept of inclusion is not infused across all aspects of teacher education, it will remain detached and teachers will continue to see it as something different, special and not part of usual classroom pedagogy. Prior studies have documented the effectiveness of merged or embedded components of inclusive education into teacher preparation programmes (Brown et

al., 2008; Kim, 2011). However, Blanton and Pugach (2010) examined the curriculum of three teacher education programmes that merged components of inclusive education to prepare teachers for learners' diversity, and found that the focus on disability is more dominant than other social identities such as culture, race, social class or language.

7.6 Conclusion

This chapter discussed the findings of the study based on the themes and sub-themes generated. The discussion was structured around the teachers' understanding of inclusive education, the teachers' practices in the implementation of inclusive education, the teachers' concerns regarding the implementation of inclusive education and the strategies that can enhance the professional preparation of teachers for inclusive education. CHAT was used as the theoretical framework of the study. The following chapter presents the summary, recommendation and conclusion.

CHAPTER 8: SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

8.1 Introduction

The present study examined the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria as a context for proposing strategies and a model to enhance their professional preparation. The previous chapter presented a discussion of the findings of the study. This chapter presents the summary, conclusion and recommendations of the study. This includes a review of the research problem that was presented in Chapter 1 and a summary of the findings of the sub-research questions. The chapter also presents limitations of the study, unique contribution of the study, recommendations for further study, including a proposed model for the enhancement of the professional preparation of teachers for inclusive education, and a conclusion. A review of the research problem is presented in the following section.

8.2 Review of the research problem

The background to the study has revealed that learners with diverse unique needs are increasingly educated in regular classrooms in several countries, including Nigeria, since the global adoption of inclusive education (DSD, DWCPD, & UNICEF, 2012; Forlin et al., 2014; Ayansina, 2016). This has resulted in changing and changed professional roles and responsibilities of teachers (Florian & Linklater, 2010; Forlin et al., 2009), including the reconceptualisation of pedagogical strategies, content, assessment/product, provisions and environment to meet the individual needs of diverse children (Donnelly & Watkins, 2011; Florian et al, 2010). However, it was revealed that internationally, teachers are struggling to meet the individuality of both learners with and without unique needs in regular classrooms (Alhassan, 2014; Malak, 2013). This is because teacher education either prepared regular teachers or specialist teachers before the global adoption of inclusive education in 1994. Consequently, learners with diverse unique needs, who are educated in regular school classrooms, are seemingly receiving inadequate and impoverished services and are excluded the world over.

The background to the study has also revealed that most countries have ratified several global human rights instruments that enshrine the right of children to inclusive

education, including the Salamanca Statement and the Framework for Action on Special Needs Education (UNESCO, 1994) and have adopted relevant national policies, legislation and guidelines in compliance with these instruments. However, the successful and effective implementation of inclusive education has not been reported in most of these countries due to several individual and systemic factors, including the lack of the professional preparation of teachers, material, financial and time resources.

The background to the study has also revealed that the professional preparation of teachers for inclusive education is a relatively recent fundamental educational innovation in several countries (Deku & Vanderpuye, 2017; Nonis & Jernice, 2011; Savolainen, 2009), including Nigeria (Ajuwon, 2012). Worldwide, there is no single universally accepted definition of inclusive education because of several factors, including conceptual difficulties in defining it (Pantic & Florian, 2015). Moreover, what constitutes the professional preparation of teachers for inclusive education is yet to be established (ARACY, 2013; Majoko, 2016; Pantic, 2015). Similarly, there are variations in the professional preparation of teachers for inclusive education between continents and within countries (Loreman et al., 2013; Salend, 2010). This present study was impelled by the afore-mentioned dilemma in Nigeria and other countries. It is, therefore, necessary to investigate the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria as the context for proposing strategies and a model to enhance their preparation. The subsequent section presents a summary of the findings of the study.

8.3 Summary of the findings of the study

The summary of the findings of the study is structured around its sub-research questions. These include the teachers' understanding of inclusive education, teachers' practices in the implementation of inclusive education, teachers' concerns regarding implementing inclusive education, and the strategies to enhance the professional preparation of teachers for inclusive education. The subsequent section presents the understanding of inclusive education.

8.3.1 Sub-question 1: Teachers' understanding of inclusive education

The findings of the current study revealed that participants had divergent understandings of inclusive education. These divergent understandings are attributed

to various individual and systemic factors, including their exposure to different professional teacher preparation programmes for inclusive education and the lack of a single universally accepted definition of inclusive education internationally. It was also revealed that these divergent perspectives of inclusive education aligned with the multi-voiced-ness principle of CHAT which specified that an activity system (such as a classroom environment) is a community of multiple views, interests and perspectives. The teachers' divergent understanding of inclusive education included conceptualisation of it as integration, special education, literal understanding and educational process. The study also demonstrated that only a few participants lacked an understanding of inclusive education, although document analysis and non-participant observation revealed otherwise. Teachers who lacked a theoretical understanding of inclusive education were observed meeting the diversity of learners identified with special needs during lesson presentation.

Equally, document analysis of their class registers revealed that these teachers were able to identify learners with special needs. From the perspective of CHAT, individuals cannot operate independently or separately from their social, cultural and historical settings (Wilson, 2014). The study was conducted in a location where the Omoluabi philosophy, that was discussed in Section 4.6 of this thesis, influenced the social-cultural values, including responding to the diversity of learners in their classrooms. This philosophy symbolises an individual with good character or who is virtuous (Olanipekun, 2017). The "Omoluabi" philosophy includes good attitude, kindness, value or esteem of people, including those with disabilities and vulnerable to marginalisation and exclusion in society and education in particular. It was indicated that the knowledge and attitudes of teachers toward inclusivity might have been influenced by this philosophical view.

8.3.2 Sub-question 2: Teachers' practices in the implementation of inclusive education

It emerged from this study that teachers strategically managed regular primary school classroom teaching and learning environments by arranging learners' seating positions, employing the buddy system and ability grouping during the teaching and learning process. Although ability grouping was seen as a strategic intervention to meet the individual needs of learners with special needs, it can result in labelling,

stigmatisation, marginalisation and the exclusion of those separated from typically developing peers in regular classrooms. Because ability grouping focused on the deficit of learners instead of their strengths, it was grounded in the medical model of disability that is founded on concentrating on what learners are incapable of doing. Thus, this is not consistent with the outcome element of the activity system principle that is founded on the strength approach to teaching and learning.

This study found that teachers engaged in various practices in the implementation of inclusive education in regular primary schools. These included a caring ethic, identification of learners with special needs, the question and answer method, activity-based pedagogy, reinforcement, homework, differentiation of teaching strategies, repeated instruction, adaptation of instruction and individualised instruction. However, it was found that a caring ethic of teachers works better in classes that have small populations of learners. In large classes where engagement of learners was nurtured, observation of these classes revealed that teachers only focused on learners seated close to the front rows and rarely engaged learners in the middle and extreme back seats in class discussion. The use of individualised instruction was seen as a response to the needs of learners who experienced barriers to learning in the regular classrooms. Comparable to ability grouping, the strategy pronounced the individuality of learners with special needs and contributed to the labelling, marginalisation and exclusion of such learners in regular school classrooms.

It emerged from this study that teachers implemented inclusive education in regular classrooms through the provision of additional support to learners with diverse unique needs, educational media, the involvement of parents, co-teaching, school-based support and NGO support. Teachers also reported that they used policies and regulation, punishment, summoning of parents and the appointment of class leaders in implementing inclusive education in regular classrooms. Although it was indicated that teachers were encouraged to used class-captains and class leaders for classroom monitoring in implementing inclusive education in regular classrooms, it compromised the freedom of participation of all learners in these settings because of the autocratic atmosphere. Teachers used physical punishment in their implementation of inclusive education in their regular classrooms, even though it violated the premise that no one

has a right to inflict pain on other people, as enshrined in global human rights instruments.

8.3.3 Sub-question 3: Teachers' concerns regarding the implementation of inclusive education

This study revealed that teachers were concerned about the training they received during their initial teacher professional preparation for inclusive education. Specifically, teachers were concerned about their professional training on special education instead of inclusive education, theory-laden professional training on inclusive education and superficial teaching practice experience in their professional preparation for inclusive education. Teachers reported that their professional preparation for inclusive education was devoid of comprehensive micro-teaching/simulation or, in certain instance, absent. They also indicated that their initial teacher professional training did not prepare them for the classroom reality during teaching practice. Thus, there was a rift between the theory of teacher professional preparation for inclusive education and the practice of inclusive education in regular classrooms.

Teachers revealed contradictory standpoints regarding the introduction of the literacy and numeracy curriculum in Nigeria. One participant felt that the curriculum was irrelevant and did not respond to the needs of learners. However, other teachers supported the literacy and numeracy curriculum and argued that laziness and resistance to change influenced teachers to criticise the new literacy and numeracy curriculum. Findings further revealed that teachers were concerned that the lack of teaching and learning resources, inadequate and overcrowded classrooms, unsupportive government, unsupportive parents, demotivated learners, poverty, teacher capacity and the negative attitudes of teachers interfered with the implementation of inclusive education in regular classrooms. It emerged from this study that most teachers supported the ideal of inclusion of learners with diverse unique needs into the regular classrooms, while others had mixed feeling regarding the inclusion of learners with diverse unique needs in regular classrooms.

8.3.4 Sub-question 4: Strategies to enhance the professional preparation of teachers for inclusive education

This study revealed various individual and capacity building initiatives that could enhance the professional preparation of teachers for inclusive education. Such initiatives included training in teaching and learning information and communication technology, government support and pre-service and in-service training of teachers in inclusive education. It was felt that training pre-service teachers in the use of modern information and communication technology teaching and learning tools and diverse instructional materials could enhance the professional preparation of teachers for inclusive education. Similarly, teachers felt that government intervention through the provision of educational equipment and facilities and the provision of in-service training could enhance the professional preparation of teachers for inclusive education. It was felt that funding could enable teacher education institutions to pool material and technological resources to enhance the professional preparation of teachers for inclusive education including learning through researching on their own.

It also emerged from this study that the infusion of inclusive education modules in all teacher education programmes could enhance their professional preparation for it. It was felt that the infusion of a module on inclusive education that includes the process of identifying learners with special needs, comparative education including international and national policies on inclusive education, management of the behaviour of learners in regular classrooms and special education and inclusive education training could enhance the professional preparation of teachers for inclusive education. It further emerged that the offering of inclusive education as a compulsory component of the regular pre-service training of teachers every semester from the beginning of the training to its end could enhance the professional preparation of teachers for inclusive education.

8.4 Limitations and overcoming the limitations of the study

The limitations identified in this study relate to the scope of study, population and the research design employed. The current study was limited to four regular primary schools in Ikorodu, Lagos State, Nigeria, even though all the primary schools in the state implement inclusive education in compliance with the global human rights

instruments and national policy. Thus, the transferability of the findings of this study to regular primary schools that implement inclusive education in Ikorodu, Lagos State, and other schools in Nigeria is unknown. However, this study can serve as a springboard for future research on the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria and other countries.

Another limitation of this current study lies with the sample of the study. This study only examined the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria. Meanwhile, the professional preparation of inclusive education of other stakeholders, such as teacher educators, mentor teachers, school administrators, members of the National Commission for Colleges of Education (NCCE) and National Teachers' Institute (NTI), and Teacher Registration Council of Nigeria (TRCN), could have added more insight than what has been presented. Document analysis and teachers of learners with unique diverse needs participated in this study to overcome this limitation.

This study used one research approach, namely the qualitative research approach. However, the use of both qualitative and quantitative approaches could have resulted in a study that is representative of all primary schools in Lagos State and could have generated additional data to give more insight into the findings. The findings of the current study were corroborated with the aid of three data instruments, namely individual interviews, non-participant observation and document analysis were used to gather data to overcome the foregoing challenge.

8.5 Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to investigate the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria as the context for proposing strategies and a model for enhancing their professional preparation. A qualitative multiple-case study design was employed to examine sixteen primary school teachers selected from four regular primary schools in Lagos State, Ikorodu local educational district. The study employed individual interviews, non-participant observation and document analysis in the collection of data on the professional preparation of teachers for inclusive education. The literature review and the findings of the study revealed

that teachers held divergent understandings of inclusive education, used different approaches and techniques to implement inclusive education in their regular school classrooms and had several individual and institutional concerns regarding the implementation of inclusive education.

Engelbrecht et al. (2015) established that an inclusive school is an environment where teachers provide high quality teaching to support, appreciate and value learners in order to promote effective teaching and learning. The findings of the current study show that the initial professional preparation of teachers in Nigeria was regarded as superficial, not oriented to inclusive education and focused on special needs and disabilities which were not covered comprehensively. The findings of this study also indicate that primary school teachers in this study lacked professional training in the use of teaching and learning media, and modern technology such as the Internet and computers. The findings of this study revealed that the lack of education resources, inadequate and overcrowded classrooms and a lack of government support, unsupportive parents, the negative attitudes of learners towards schooling, poverty among learners and the negative attitudes of teachers interfered with the implementation of inclusive education in regular primary schools.

Based on the findings of the current study, it can be concluded that the initial professional training and continuous professional development of teachers for inclusive education are crucial for its implementation. Similarly, the provision of teaching and learning media and resources, facilities such as classrooms, furniture, the positive attitudes of teachers, the recruitment of teachers who are trained in inclusive education and small class sizes are conducive to the implementation of inclusive education in regular primary school classrooms.

8.6 Contribution of the study

This study contributed to the theory, practice and policy on the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education. Despite the extensive literature on the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education in several other countries in the past few years (Deku & Vanderpuye, 2017; Majoko, 2016; Symeonidou, 2017; Commission of the European Communities, 2007),

there seems to be a dearth on the subject in Nigeria, according to the best knowledge of the researcher based on the literature search. As indicated in Section 1.5 of this thesis, the related studies on the subject in Nigeria focused on inclusive primary schools, special schools, special teachers (Ajuwon, 2012; Ayeni, 2011), or both special teachers and general teachers (Adedoja & Abimbade, 2015). Thus, this study is unique as it explored the professional preparation of teachers for inclusive education in regular primary schools in Nigeria. This included the teachers' understanding of inclusive education, practices in implementing inclusive education, concerns regarding implementing inclusive education and strategies to enhance the professional preparation of teachers for inclusive in regular primary schools in Nigeria.

This study adds to the limited knowledge and information base on the professional preparation of teachers for inclusive education in regular primary schools from a Nigerian perspective. This study contributed knowledge and information on the professional preparation of school teachers for inclusive education in primary schools in Nigeria and other countries which was embedded in the qualitative research methodology. It emerged from this study that most studies on the professional preparation of teachers for inclusive education were embedded in the quantitative research approach (Jaiyeoba, 2011; Aremu & Salami, 2012). The qualitative multiple case study design employed in this study provides distinctive perspectives and experiences from a developing country, namely Nigeria, hence a study of its own kind in this country.

This study serves as a baseline for future studies on the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria and elsewhere. The knowledge and information accumulated in this study can be used as a springboard for the formulation and/or amendment of the policy on the professional preparation of teachers for inclusive education in regular primary schools in Nigeria. This study affords teacher education institutions and other stakeholders in Nigeria and other countries theory, policy and practice of the professional preparation of teachers for inclusive education in regular primary schools.

8.7 Recommendations on the professional preparation of teachers for inclusive education

Based on the findings of this study, the researcher has recommended strategies to enhance the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education in primary schools in Nigeria and other countries. The recommendations proffered are embedded in international evidence-based best practices in the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education and CHAT that served as the theoretical framework of the study.

The following recommendations are made:

8.7.1 Policy and legislation

Drawing from the findings of the present study, CHAT, reviewed Nigerian and international literature, it would be necessary to pass and enforce clear, specific and comprehensive policies on inclusive education that are supported by an Act of Parliament which would mandate all teacher education institutions to offer pre-service and in-service training of teachers in inclusive education in regular primary schools. There is a need for the National Commission for Colleges of Education (NCCE), National Teachers' Institute (NTI) and Teacher Registration Council of Nigeria (TRCN) to ensure that pre-service and in-service teacher training courses on inclusive education are accredited and mandatory as part of the minimum requirement that should be adhere to. There is a need for clear and concise guidelines that spell out the roles and expectations of teachers and other stakeholders in the implementation of inclusive education in regular primary schools.

8.7.2 Practice

8.7.2.1 Pre-service teacher training

Based on the advocacy of the teachers in this study, the professional preparation of teachers for inclusive education in regular primary schools would be improved if teacher education programmes include modules that train and equip them with knowledge and information on international and national policies on inclusive education, the identification of learners with special needs, the management of the

behaviour of learners with and without diverse unique needs, and special and inclusive education. It is recommended that teachers' professional preparation for inclusive education needs to incorporate micro-teaching that would address the theory-ladenness of the modules currently on offer so that the theory can be illustrated and demonstrated practically. This would enable teachers to develop the knowledge and skills for teaching practicum in regular primary schools in their professional preparation for inclusive education.

Equally, it is recommended that what is taught in teacher education institutions should consider the reality or situation of the context, that is, events in the local context should be the focus, not what is happening elsewhere, in order to professionally prepare teachers for real classroom experiences. For example, in developing countries, particularly in most Africa countries, learners living in poverty and young adults are inevitable in classes due to war, religious violence, socio-economic problems and the impact of natural disasters or climate change. Equally, overcrowded classrooms or large class sizes are normal customs in most Africa countries due to various factors highlighted above, and the situation cannot be changed suddenly. Thus, it is recommended that teacher education for inclusive education needs to professionally prepare teachers for these conditions through equipping them with the necessary knowledge and skills to cope with and manage the realities of their regular primary school classrooms.

Based on the responses of teachers to individual interviews, CHAT and the reviewed literature, training teachers in the use modern information and communication technology, including computers and the Internet in teaching and learning, would improve their professional preparation for inclusive education in regular primary schools. It is also recommended that teachers need training in collaboration with parents, community members and how to co-teach with colleagues in inclusive education to enhance their professional preparation for it.

8.7.2.2 In-service teacher training

Based on the call from participants of the present study for the massive retraining of teachers, the continuous professional development of teachers for inclusive education

is recommended. Workshops on inclusive education need to be organised for in-service teachers. It is also suggested that a complementary follow-up and coaching of individual teachers in their classes would ensure that teachers are better prepared professionally for inclusive education and for its improved implementation in their classrooms. The training of administrators, school heads and stakeholders would help to improve inclusive education practices. Likewise, the training of mentor teachers in inclusive education is recommended; this will expose them to contemporary teaching practices. Teachers need to be trained and equipped to work with stakeholders and especially with the School Based Management Committees (SBMCs) that are established in all primary schools (National Council for Education, 2006).

8.7.2.3 Resources

The professional preparation of teachers for inclusive education in regular primary schools would be improved if the government could provide adequate physical infrastructure, including lecture rooms in teacher education institutions that would ensure decent accommodation for all teacher trainees during their teaching and learning, and the latest information and communication technology services and facilities to equip them for the 21st century learners. In terms of the implementation of inclusive education in schools, it is recommended that the government could provide physical facilities that would accommodate learner diversity, for instance the construction of ramps to accommodate learners who use wheelchairs. The government needs to renovate school buildings and provide accessible toilets, adequate classrooms and relevant curriculum, time, funds and resource materials to enhance the implementation of inclusive education in regular primary schools.

It is recommended that government provide additional supports, such as education devices, alternative and augmentative communication devices, visual aids, and wheelchairs for learners with special needs. The government needs to hire more teaching staff to eliminate overcrowded regular primary school classrooms and improve the quality of teaching and learning in these settings. The provision of welfare resources is recommended for learners living in poverty. Supplies for lunch and breakfast need to be provided for effective teaching and learning of these learners in regular classrooms. School uniforms, shoes and educational resources should be

provided for learners in need to promote their effective teaching and learning in regular primary school classrooms.

8.7.2.4 Attitude

Based on the reported individual interviews of the participants in this current study, the professional preparation of teachers for inclusive education in regular primary schools would be improved if positive attitudes towards it are fostered and nurtured in the teachers by teacher educators, mentor teachers, school administrators, the government, non-profit organisations, community members, parents, as well as the children themselves. Institutions of higher learning, such as universities and teachers' training colleges, could organise orientation programmes for stakeholders on the diverse unique needs and special needs in order to educate them on those conditions and sensitise the development of positive attitudes towards the inclusion of individuals with unique needs and special needs.

8.7.2.5 A proposed model for the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education

In order to advance the adoption of the recommendations proffered above, a model for the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education is proposed below. The proposed model is grounded in the professional preparation of the head, the hand and the heart of the teachers for inclusive education. This means teachers who know, who can do and who believe in inclusive education (Rouse, 2008). According to Rouse (2010), the head is the development of knowledge, the hand refers to possessing practical and technical skills and the heart refers to beliefs and attitudes (Rouse, 2010).

As illustrated in the diagram on figure 8.1, there is a relationship between all the elements of the model as they all attached to and share a common objective, particularly, the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education. This model is grounded in CHAT, reviewed literature and the findings of the study. For example, the activity system of the professional preparation of primary school teachers (subject) for inclusive education (object) is organised in the classroom

environment (community/socio-cultural context) where there are norms and standards that govern and direct all activities (rules) and utilised resources, facilities, education materials and media (tools) to mediate the training activities.

The components of the proposed model for the enhancement of the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education constitute training on a mandatory module on international and national policy on inclusive education, knowledge of learner diversity such as disability, poverty and learner behaviour, nurturing and acquiring of positive attitudes, and skills and knowledge to collaborate with various stakeholders such as parents, peer colleagues, school administrators, community members, government and paraprofessionals, adaptation skills such as curriculum differentiation, content, assessment and environment adaptation, exposure to modern information and communication technology teaching and learning resources, education resource materials, exposure to micro-teaching such as stimulating and role-playing teaching, teaching practicum, government intervention such as passing and enforcing mandatory clear, specific and comprehensive policy on inclusive education, provision of pre-service and in-service teacher training, resources, facilities and the hiring of teachers. The following sub-section discusses each component of the proposed model.

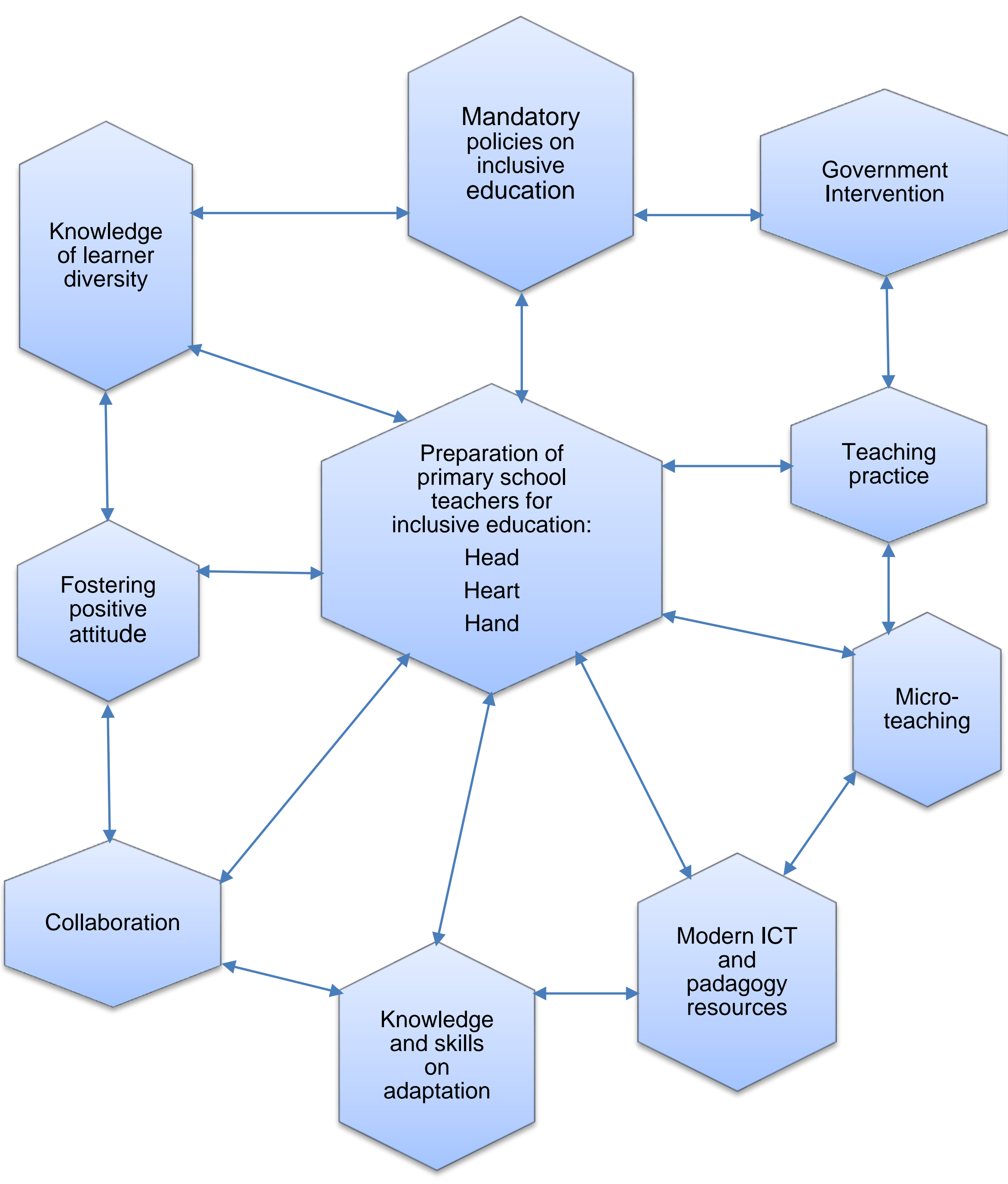


Figure 8.1: A proposed OO Daniyan (2020) model of preparation of regular primary school teacher for inclusive education

Component 1: Mandatory module on international and national policy on inclusive education

The offering of a mandatory module on international and national policies on inclusion could enhance the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education. The module would foster knowledge and information on democratic rights, equal opportunities, and the acceptance and full participation of all learners in regular school education regardless of their individual differences in primary school teachers (Kim & Lindeberg, 2012; Pantic & Florian, 2015; Winter & O'Raw, 2010). Similarly, primary school teachers would be educated on various global and regional legal documents and instruments that mandate the inclusion of all learners in regular education, such as Article 26 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UN, 1948), World Conference on Education for All (UNESCO, 1990), Articles 28 and 29 of the Convention on the Rights of the Child (UN, 1989), the Standard Rules on the Equalization of Opportunities for Persons with Disability (UN, 1993), the Incheon Declaration, Education 2030: Towards inclusive and equitable quality education and lifelong learning for all (World Education Forum, 2015) and the Salamanca Statement and Framework for Action on Special Needs Education (UNESCO, 1994) that reaffirms the right of every person to education as enshrined in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UN, 1948) and renewed the pledge of the World Conference on Education for All (UNESCO, 1990) to ensure that right for all, irrespective of their individual differences. Primary school teachers in Nigeria should also be educated on Nigerian policies such as the National Policy of Education revised edition of 2008, State Education Program Investment Project (SEPIP), and the free Universal Basic Education (UBE) Act No. 66 of 2004 (JONAPWD, 2015). The mandatory module on international and national policies and guidelines on inclusive education would provide teachers in Nigeria with the knowledge and information regarding the rights of learners to be observed in the content, process, environment and product of inclusive education in primary school classrooms as embodied in the rules element of CHAT that informed the current study.

Component 2: Knowledge of learner diversity

Consistent with Finland, Scotland and other countries that professionally prepare teachers to acquire diverse skills and knowledge to apply in pedagogical settings with learners with diverse unique needs (Florian et al., 2010; Savolainen, 2009), it is recommended that the teachers' professional preparation programmes for inclusive education could include modules that would comprehensively equip teachers with the knowledge and skills on learners with diverse unique needs, manifesting from various individual and systemic factors influencing human diversity, including disabilities, poverty, richness, cultural and linguistic diversity and ethnicity that teachers encounter in the 21st century classrooms. Such professional preparation would equip teachers with the knowledge and skills to identify and manage learners with diverse unique needs in regular primary school classrooms. It is also recommended that teachers be equipped with the knowledge and skills to maintain equity and equality for learners with and without diverse challenges, poverty, out-of-school children, age differences, race and ethnicity, learners from rural areas, urbanity, diverse religions and learners with behavioural challenges. The professional preparation of primary school teachers that is entrenched in information regarding children with and without diverse unique needs would foster the acquisition of knowledge, skills and an appreciation of diversity that would enhance the effective implementation of inclusive education as expressed in the object element of CHAT that informed the current study.

Consistent with the USA, Austria, Singapore, Ghana, South Africa and other countries that adopted inclusive education in 1994, Nigeria is confronted with significantly increasing learner diversity in regular classrooms. This has resulted in changed professional roles and responsibilities of teachers in regular school classrooms (Florian & Linklater, 2010; Forlin et al., 2009). Consequently, pedagogical strategies, content, assessment, provisions and environment need to be reconceptualised to meet the individual needs of diverse learners (Donnelly & Watkins, 2011; Florian et al., 2010). Based on this, it is recommended that the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education could be entrenched in detailed knowledge on special education, special needs, disability and inclusive education. This would equip teachers with the understanding, expertise and skills to manage and accommodate all learners in the regular primary school classrooms as required in the

outcome element of CHAT that informed the study. This would that ensure that no learners are excluded and denied of their fundamental human rights.

Component 3: Fostering positive attitudes

The professional preparation of primary school teachers should foster in them positive attitudes towards inclusive education. Based on the findings of the current study, the positive attitudes of teachers towards inclusive education could be fostered if their professional preparation programmes included courses on special education and inclusive education. This would afford teachers the skills and competencies to appreciate and work with learners with diverse unique needs in the regular primary schools.

Component 4: Collaboration

The collaboration of teachers with other stakeholders is essential for the successful educational inclusion of children with diverse unique needs in regular school classrooms. Consistent with the USA (Zion & Sobel, 2014), Scotland (Graham & Scott, 2016), Finland (Sahlberg, 2015) and other countries, where teachers work in collaboration with other stakeholders to meet the diverse needs of all children served in the regular classrooms, it is recommended that the professional preparation programmes of teachers should equip them with collaborative skills that would enable them to work in consultation and partnership with various stakeholder individuals, organisations and institutions, such as peer teachers, specialist teachers, NGOs, paraprofessionals, parents and community members. Teacher educators could model collaborative skills, such as co-teaching with colleagues, cooperative lesson planning and the evaluation of learners for teachers in order for them to know how it can be carried out effectively. In the same way, teacher educators could organise and invite parents, community members, and professionals, such as medical doctors and therapists, so that collaborative skills can be modelled and demonstrated for teachers in order to professionally prepare them to liaise with multi-disciplinary teams in implementing inclusive education in regular school classrooms. With respect to CHAT, community is the socio-cultural environment of the activity system and this involves interaction and relationships between stakeholders. Communities are multiple individual or sub-groups who share common objectives (Roth & Tobin, 2002). Training that would professionally prepare teachers to liaise with multi-disciplinary teams in the

delivery of services could improve the implementation of inclusive education in regular primary school classrooms as sustained in the division of labour and community elements of the activity theory that informed the current study.

Component 5: Knowledge and skills on adaptation

Consistent with countries such as the USA (Tomlinson, 2013), Scotland (Graham & Scott, 2016), Australia (Van Kraayenoord et al., 2014) and other countries that professionally prepared teachers to differentiate curriculum, it is recommended that the teacher professional preparation should train teachers on the adaptation of teaching and learning activities, materials, media and assessment to address the individuality of learners in regular classrooms. Similarly, the training of teachers should prepare them to modify the teaching and learning environment through the use of different forms of arrangements, such as mixed ability grouping strategies, the buddy system and cooperative groups. Mills et al. (2014) observed that differentiation is a complex concept which is not easy to shift from policy to classroom setting, but requires more careful clarification at policy level and teachers need more support to enact it. The findings revealed that teachers differentiate instruction through the separation of learners in order to respond to their needs. However, this separation violated learners' dignity because they are predisposed to discrimination and label. It is, therefore, recommended that a clear expectation should be set for pre-service teachers on responsive instruction that is learner-centred and which provides a model for instructional differentiation with mentoring that helps pre-service teachers to reflect on learners' needs and suitable responses (Tomlinson, 1999). Professional preparation that fosters differentiation of instruction in teachers could promote the inclusion of learners with diverse unique needs in regular classrooms, as they would respond to the diverse needs of all learners, as upheld in CHAT that informed the present study.

Component 6: Modern ICT and pedagogical resources

Based on the findings of the current study, the professional preparation of teachers is recommended to co-opt modern ICT and pedagogical resources so that teachers cqn be exposed to these facilities. The professional preparation of teacher programmes should train them in the use of different types of adaptive/assistive devices that would improve the inclusion of learners with different disabling conditions in regular

classrooms. These include computer soft- and hardware, such as voice recognition programs, screen readers, Braille, Augmentative and Alternative communication (AAC) devices, FM system, hearing aids and visual materials, mobility aids, and cognitive aids such as electronic and computer devices.

Component 7: Micro-teaching

Based on the findings of this current study, it is recommended that the professional preparation of teachers should incorporate micro-teaching, including simulation and role-play teaching in the classroom, before their deployment for teaching practicum. This would equip them with the skills and expertise required for actual classroom situations. Micro-teaching improves the behaviour of teachers in the learning context (Kilic, 2010). It would develop competencies in teachers in the subject/content area, the planning of lesson activities, the process of teaching, communication, class management and the assessment of learners before their final deployment in schools. Through micro-teaching, teachers would acquire skills to design lesson plans, teaching goals, develop confidence to face the class, ask questions and use assessment techniques (Kilic, 2010).

Component 8: Teaching practicum

In their professional preparation, teaching practicum provides the opportunity for teachers to develop teaching proficiencies. The findings of the current study revealed that what was taught during the professional preparation of teachers differed from the reality of their experiences in teaching practice. It is proposed that the professional preparation of teachers should co-opt the social-cultural contexts of the schools to equip them for the reality of classroom teaching and learning. Since host teachers lacked the knowledge to include children with diverse unique needs in regular classrooms as they utilised the traditional approach of teaching and learning and denied pre-service teachers the opportunity to implement the skills and knowledge they acquired from their professional preparation. It is recommended that host teachers should be afforded in-service training on inclusive education to equip them with the necessary skills and expertise to mentor pre-service teachers during their teaching practice.

Component 9: Government intervention

Based on the findings of this study, the intervention of the government through a mandatory policy of inclusive education, the provision of resources and facilities, in-service training for mentor teachers and the recruitment of teachers to reduce classroom congestion and the overloading of teachers would improve the professional preparation of teachers for inclusive education. This would provide them with positive experiences during teaching practicum. It emerged that host teachers lacked knowledge of inclusive education. The provision of in-service training for them on inclusive education would equip them with the pedagogical skills and knowledge to include diverse learners in regular school classrooms. As a result, pre-service teachers posted for practical experience would receive appropriate mentorship. Also, a mandatory policy and legislation endorsed by an Act by Parliament would ensure that teachers adopt inclusive pedagogy in regular classrooms.

The study recommends the provision of adequate teaching resources, media and equipment that would enhance effective and successful inclusive teaching and learning in the regular classrooms. Based on the study's findings, the provision of computers, Internet facilities, functioning libraries, the renovation of dilapidated school buildings, the construction of ramps and pavements to accommodate learners who use wheelchairs, the creation of additional classrooms to reduce overcrowding and ensuring that the introduction of a new curriculum is appropriate to the context and responds to learner needs would improve the provision of inclusive teaching and learning.

The study further recommends that the should improve the conditions of learners in school by introducing feeding schemes for learners living in poverty, as well as providing educational resources such as books, uniforms, school sandals, and stimulation materials. This would motivate learners to learn.

8.8 Recommendations for future research

This study used a qualitative research approach. Consequently, it is recommended that future research should employ the quantitative research approach or mixed method to investigate the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria.

This study was restricted to four regular primary schools in one educational district, however, there are six educational districts in Lagos State and several other educational districts in Nigeria. Therefore, an extensive and expansive study on regular primary schools could be conducted in the entire Lagos State or the whole of Nigeria to establish the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education. Similarly, this could provide information for the development of a model for the enactment and amendment of policy on the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria.

This study only explored the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education. A future study is recommended that would investigate the professional preparation for inclusion education of the various stakeholders, including teacher educators (lecturers), mentor teachers and school administrators, as this would add further insight into the professional preparation of a diversity of stakeholders who play supplementary and complementary roles in its implementation.

8.9 Final comments

The present study revealed the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria by exploring their understanding of it, practices in implementing it, concerns regarding implementing it and strategies to enhance their professional preparation for it. The teachers voiced their perceptions, perspectives, experiences and the dilemmas they encountered in implementing inclusive education in regular primary school classrooms. The study accumulated valuable insight into strategies to enhance the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria and elsewhere.

The findings revealed that primary school teachers were concerned that their initial teacher training superficially prepared them professionally for inclusive education. The training was perceived to be focused on special education and children with disabilities and this was not comprehensively covered. It emerged from this study that the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria was theory-laden and their experiences of the classroom's reality during teaching

practice were different from what was taught during their initial teacher training. Teachers also revealed that the lack of education resources, inadequate and overcrowded classrooms, lack of support from the government, unsupportive parents, the nonchalant attitudes of learners, poverty among learners and the negative attitudes of teachers impeded the implementation of inclusive education in regular primary school classrooms in Nigeria.

Regardless of the concerns and dilemmas that the teachers revealed regarding their professional preparation for inclusive education, it emerged that overall they supported the ideal of the inclusion of learners with diverse needs into regular primary school classrooms. The study found that primary school teachers had divergent understandings of inclusive education. The study revealed that primary school teachers were committed to include all learners in the teaching and learning content, process, environment and assessment of their regular classrooms by implementing various pedagogical strategies, such as the strategic seating arrangements of learners, working collaboratively with parents and school administrators, strategic classroom management, co-teaching, employing various teaching methods and using inclusive grouping strategies.

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APPENDIX A: REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH AT 4 PRIMARY SCHOOLS IN IKORODU LOCAL EDUCATION DISTRICT FROM LAGOS STATE MINISTRY OF EDUCATION

Title: Preparation of teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria

22 September 2016

ATT: The Executive Chairman
Lagos State Universal Education Board (SUBED)
Maryland, Lagos
Dear Sir/Madam,
I, Olatope Oladunni Daniyan am doing research with Dr Tawanda Majoko, a senior lecturer in the Department of Inclusive Education towards a PHD at the University of South Africa. We are inviting you to participate in a study entitled "Preparation of teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria".

The purpose of the study is to interrogate professional preparation of pre-service teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria as a context for strategizing and proposing a model for enhancement of their competence for improved service delivery.

Your schools have been selected because it is an inclusive school taking in learners with diverse educational needs.

The study will entail interviewing and observing selected 16 teachers at 4 selected schools as well as analysing the participants' lesson plans, journals, class timetables, intervention programmes and the classwork books of the learners in the observed classes. The participants should be holders of, at least a bachelor's degree with endorsement in primary school education which must have been obtained from institutions that prepare teachers for inclusive education and two years of experience teaching a child/children with disabilities or other unique needs in an inclusive classroom. The principals of the selected schools will be requested to provide a list of the pre-service teachers in the school who meet the selection criteria as stated above. A meeting with the identified potential participants will then be convened in which the researcher will explain the purpose and scope of the study so that they can decide to participate or not to participate from an informed position.

The benefits of this study are that the findings may highlight gaps in preparation of pre-service teachers for inclusive education in primary schools. This study is anticipated to benefit several stakeholders of the inclusive school movement including teachers, children, policymakers and researchers. Teacher education institutions are envisaged to be provided with valuable

information required for informed decision making regarding the content and process of their teacher training programmes. It is anticipated that the study will accumulate strategies for effective teacher preparation for inclusive education that may assist teacher education in Nigeria and elsewhere to improve their practices. In the same way, teachers in Nigeria and elsewhere, among other inclusive education stakeholders, are anticipated to be afforded a set of criteria to monitor, measure and evaluate their preparation for inclusive education. Consequently, learners may be afforded pedagogy that is responsive to the full range of needs as teachers are expected to engage in reflecting practices basing on the information gleaned from the present study. This study is expected to serve as a baseline for future research on the topic. The current study is expected to yield knowledge and information that can be used to inform policy makers on development and amendment of policy on teacher preparation for inclusive education in Nigeria and other countries.

There are no potential risks anticipated in this study.
Feedback on research findings will be made available to the schools through workshop. Research report on the study findings will be given to both Ikorodu local government education district and Lagos state ministry of education. A discussion of the findings will be held with children at their schools.

Yours sincerely

Signature

Daniyan Olatope Oladunni (Ms)

Student Researcher
Cell phone: 0749679966
E-mail: topeladun@gmail.com

APPENDIX B: APPROVAL FOR THE STUDY

LAGOS STATE GOVERNMENT

LSUBEB/ PL/2006/16/T/11

13th June, 2017

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

This is to inform you that the bearer **MISS OLATOPE OLADUNNI DANIYAN** a Post Graduate Student of University of South Africa has been granted approval by the board to conduct research on professional preparation of teachers for inclusive education in 4(four) public primary schools in Ikorodu Local Government Education Authority, Ikorodu, Lagos State.

DISU T.O
HOD (PR&S)
For: Executive Chairman

STATE UNIVERSAL BASIC EDUCATIONAL BOARD (SUBEB)

Maryland schools complex, Maryland. P.M.B. 21676,Ikeja Tel: 081506800907
E-mail: basiceducation@lagossubeb.gov.ng, basiceducation.subeb@gmail.com, lasubebebbasic@yahoo.com Website: www.lagossubeb.gov.ng

APPENDIX C: REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH AT 4 PRIMARY SCHOOLS IN IKORODU LOCAL EDUCATION DISTRICT

Title: Preparation of teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria

22 September 2016

ATT: Head of Research Department

Ikorodu local education district

Dear Sir/Madam,

I, Olatope Oladunni Daniyan am doing research with Dr Tawanda Majoko, a senior lecturer in the Department of Inclusive Education towards a PHD at the University of South Africa. We are inviting you to participate in a study entitled "Preparation of teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria".

The purpose of the study is to interrogate professional preparation of pre-service teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria as a context for strategizing and proposing a model for enhancement of their competence for improved service delivery.

Your schools have been selected because it is an inclusive school taking in learners with diverse educational needs.

The study will entail interviewing and observing selected 16 teachers at 4 selected schools as well as analysing the participants' lesson plans, journals, class timetables, intervention programmes and the classwork books of the learners in the observed classes. The participants should be holders of, at least a bachelor's degree with endorsement in primary school education which must have been obtained from institutions that prepare teachers for inclusive education and two years of experience teaching a child/children with disabilities or other unique needs in an inclusive classroom. The principals of the selected schools will be requested to provide a list of the pre-service teachers in the school who meet the selection criteria as stated above. A meeting with the identified potential participants will then be convened in which the researcher will explain the purpose and scope of the research study so that they can decide to participate or not to participate from an informed position.

The benefits of this study are that the findings may highlight gaps in preparation of pre-service teachers for inclusive education in primary schools. This study is anticipated to benefit several stakeholders of the inclusive school movement including teachers, children, policymakers and researchers. Teacher education institutions are envisaged to be provided with valuable information required for informed decision making regarding the content and process of their

teacher training programmes. It is anticipated that the study will accumulate strategies for effective teacher preparation for inclusive education that may assist teacher education in Nigeria and elsewhere to improve their practices. Likewise, teachers in Nigeria and elsewhere, among other inclusive education stakeholders, are anticipated to be afforded a set of criteria to monitor, measure and evaluate their preparation for inclusive education. Consequently, learners may be afforded pedagogy that is responsive to the full range of needs as teachers are expected to engage in reflecting practices basing on the information gleaned from the present study. This study is expected to serve as a baseline for future research on the topic. The current study is expected to yield knowledge and information that can be used to inform policy makers on development and amendment of policy on teacher preparation for inclusive education in Nigeria and other countries.

There are no potential risks anticipated in this study.
Feedback on research findings will be made available to the schools through workshop. Research report on the study findings will be given to both Ikorodu local government education district and Lagos state ministry of education. A discussion of the findings will be held with children at their schools.

Yours sincerely

Signature

Daniyan Olatope Oladunni (Ms)

Student Researcher

Cell phone: 0749679966
E-mail: topeladun@gmail.com

APPENDIX D: APPROVAL FROM LOCAL GOVERNMENT EDUCATION AUTHORITY

LOCAL GOVERNMENT EDUCATION AUTHORITY

IKORODU

IKORODU LOCAL GOVERNMENT

JUSTICE AND PROGRESS

Further Communication should be addressed to the Education Secretary
L. G. E. A. Ikorodu Tel: 0802 522 2759

Methodist Primary School Complex,
23 Allinson Street
P. O. Box 651
Ikorodu, Lagos State

Our Ref: ______________________

Your Ref: ______________________

Executive Secretary,
Local Government Education Authority,
Ikorodu

23RD JUNE 2017

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

I write to introduce Miss Daniyan Olatope Oladunni a PhD student at the University of South Africa. She has been granted approval by the state universal basic educational board (SUBED) to conduct research on professional preparation of teachers for inclusive education in 4(four) primary schools in Ikorodu local education district.

Kindly give her the necessary assistance she may require.

Yours faithfully

MR. FASAKIN, O.K.
FOR: EDUCATION SECRETARY

EDUCATION SECRETARY
LOCAL GOVERNMENT EDUCATION AUTHORITY
IKORODU

MR. FASAKIN, O.K.
FOR: EDUCATION SECRETARY

APPENDIX E: LETTER TO THE PRINCIPAL

Title: Preparation of teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria

22 September 2016

The Principal
Dear Sir/Madam,

I, Olatope Oladunni Daniyan am doing research with Dr Tawanda Majoko, a senior lecturer in the Department of Inclusive Education towards a PHD at the University of South Africa. We are inviting you to participate in a study entitled “Preparation of teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria”.

The purpose of the study is to interrogate professional preparation of teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria as a context for strategizing and proposing a model for enhancement of their competence for improved service delivery.

Your school has been selected because it is an inclusive school taking in learners with diverse educational needs.

The study will entail interviewing and observing selected 16 teachers at 4 selected schools as well as analysing the participants’ lesson plans, journals, class timetables, intervention programmes and the classwork books of the learners in the observed classes. 4 teachers will be selected in your school for the study. The participants should be holders of, at least a bachelor’s degree with endorsement in primary school education which must have been obtained from institutions that prepare teachers for inclusive education and two years of experience teaching a child/children with disabilities or other unique needs in an inclusive classroom. A list of the teachers in the school who meet the selection criteria as stated above will be requested from the principal. A meeting with the identified potential participants will then be convened in which the researcher will explain the purpose and scope of the research study so that they can decide to participate or not to participate from an informed position.

The benefits of this study are that the findings may highlight gaps in preparation of pre-service teachers for inclusive education in primary schools. This study is anticipated to benefit several stakeholders of the inclusive school movement including teachers, children, policymakers and researchers. Teacher education institutions are envisaged to be provided with valuable information required for informed decision making regarding the content and process of their teacher training programmes. It is anticipated that the study will accumulate strategies for effective teacher preparation for inclusive education that may assist teacher education in Nigeria and elsewhere to improve their practices. Also, teachers in Nigeria and elsewhere,

among other inclusive education stakeholders, are anticipated to be afforded a set of criteria to monitor, measure and evaluate their preparation for inclusive education. Consequently, learners may be afforded pedagogy that is responsive to the full range of needs as teachers are expected to engage in reflecting practices basing on the information gleaned from the present study. This study is expected to serve as a baseline for future research on the topic. The current study is expected to yield knowledge and information that can be used to inform policy makers on development and amendment of policy on teacher preparation for inclusive education in Nigeria and other countries.

There are no potential risks anticipated in this study.
Feedback on research findings will be made available to the schools through workshop. Research report on the study findings will be given to both Ikorodu local government education district and Lagos state ministry of education. A discussion of the findings will be held with children at their schools.

Yours sincerely

Signature

Daniyan Olatope Oladunni (Ms)

Student Researcher

Cell phone: 0749679966
E-mail: topeladun@gmail.com

APPENDIX F: PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET

Title: Preparation of teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria

22 September 2016

Dear prospective participant,
My name is Daniyan Olatope Oladunni and I am doing research with Dr Tawada Majoko, a senior lecturer in the Department of Inclusive Education towards a PhD at the University of South Africa. We are inviting you to participate in a study entitled “Preparation of teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria”.

THE PURPOSE OF THE STUDY
This study is expected to collect important information that could highlight gaps in the teacher preparation for inclusive education in primary schools. The research may also lay a basis for teacher development in the area of inclusive education. Should this happen, learners in primary schools whose educational needs are presently being not fully catered for will be the major beneficiaries of this research.

WHY YOU ARE BEING INVITED TO PARTICIPATE
You have been selected to participate in this research because you are a primary school teacher who is teaching at an inclusive school. The selection criteria for participants was given to the principal of the school who assisted in identifying the most appropriate participants for this study. You are among the 16 participants all of whom possess at least a bachelor’s degree with endorsement in primary school education obtained from an institution that prepare teachers for inclusive education, with at least two years of experience teaching a child/children with disabilities or other unique needs in an inclusive classroom.

THE NATURE OF MY PARTICIPATION IN THIS STUDY
The study involves unstructured interviews, lesson observations and document analysis. During the unstructured interviews, you will be asked questions that allow you to express your views with regards to your preparation for classroom management, lesson differentiation, co-teaching, collaboration, instructional scaffolding in inclusive classrooms. Each interview session is expected to last 45 to 60 minutes and will be carried out outside school hours at a place and time convenient to you. The interview will be audio-taped with your kind permission to facilitate accurate collection of data. Only one of your usual lessons will be observed by the researcher. The researcher will also request to analyse your lesson plans, journals, class timetables, intervention programmes and the classwork books of the observed class.

WITHDRAWAL FROM PARTICIPATION

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.

POTENTIAL BENEFITS OF TAKING PART IN THIS STUDY

The benefit of taking part in the current research study is the satisfaction derived from contributing to development of insight into inclusive education in regular primary schools.

NEGATIVE CONSEQUENCES OF PARTICIPATING IN THE RESEARCH PROJECT

Participants will be required to make up time for the in-depth interview. Some may be inconvenienced if the time scheduled for the interview clashes with other commitments they might be having. Also, you might experience a degree of discomfort since the researcher will conduct lesson observation and will also request for lesson plans, journals, intervention programmes which will be used in the research. Some participants might consider lesson observations as an invasion of privacy.

CONFIDENTIALITY

Your name will not be recorded anywhere and no one will be able to connect you to the answers you give. Your answers will be given a code number or a pseudonym and you will be referred to in this way in the data, any publications, or other research reporting methods such as conference proceedings.

Your answers may be reviewed by people responsible for making sure that research is done properly, including the transcriber, external coder, and members of the Research Ethics Review Committee. Otherwise, records that identify you will be available only to people working on the study, unless you give permission for other people to see the records.

The research findings may be used for other purposes, such as a research report, journal articles and/or conference proceedings. Also, a report of the study may be submitted for publication, but individual participants will not be identifiable in such a report.

PROTECTION AND SECURITY OF DATA

Hard copies of your answers will be stored by the researcher for a period of five years in a locked cupboard/filing cabinet in Gezina for future research or academic purposes; 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/or electronic copies will be permanently deleted from the hard drive of the computer through the use of a relevant software programme.

PAYMENT OR INCENTIVES FOR PARTICIPATING IN THIS STUDY

There shall be no payment or reward offered for participating in the research study.

ETHICS APPROVAL

This study has received written approval from the Research Ethics Review Committee of the College of Education, Unisa. A copy of the approval letter can be obtained from the researcher if you so wish.

HOW YOU WILL BE INFORMED OF THE FINDINGS/RESULTS OF THE RESEARCH

Should you require any further information or want to contact the researcher about any aspect of this study, please contact me on this number 0749679966 or e-mail at topeladun@gmail.com

Should you have concerns about the way in which the research has been conducted, you may contact Dr Tawanda Majoko at majokt@unisa.ac.za telephone: +27124842933. Alternatively, contact the research ethics chairperson of the College of Education Research Ethics Committee, Dr Madaleen Claasens at mcdtc@netactive.co.za Telephone: 0124293111

Thank you for taking time to read this information sheet and for participating in this study.

Thank you.

Daniyan Olatope Oladunni

Student Researcher

APPENDIX G: CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN THIS STUDY

I, ___________________________, confirm that the person asking my consent to take part in this research has told me about the nature, procedure, potential benefits and anticipated inconvenience of participation.

I have read and understood the study as explained in the information sheet.

I have had sufficient opportunity to ask questions and am prepared to participate in the study.

I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time without penalty.

I am aware that the findings of this study will be processed into a research report, journal publications and/or conference proceedings, but that my participation will be kept confidential unless otherwise specified.

I agree to the following:

- recording of the in-depth interview,
- being observed while teaching, and
- having my lesson plans, journals, class timetables, intervention programmes and learners classwork book analysed.

I have received a signed copy of the informed consent agreement.

Participant Name & Surname (please print)____

____

Participant Signature Date

Researcher's Name & Surname (please print). Olatope Oladunni Daniyan_______________________________________

____

Researcher's signature Date

Cell phone: 0749679966

E-mail: topeladun@gmail.com

APPENDIX H: ASSENT FROM LEARNERS TO PARTIPATE IN A RESEARCH PROJECT

Letter requesting assent from learners in a primary school to participate in a research project

Dear learner, Date: 21 September 2017

My name is Daniyan Olatope Oladunni and would like to ask you if I can come and watch you do some activities/listen how you read/do mathematics/ with your teacher. If you agree to do this, I will come and watch you when you are with your teacher doing activities/reading/maths. I will not ask you any questions but only watch your teacher teaching you thereafter I will request for your workbook from your teacher.

I will also ask your parents if you can take part. If you do not want to take part, it will also be fine with me. Remember, you can say yes or you can say no and no one will be upset if you don't want to take part or even if you change your mind later and want to stop. You can ask any questions that you have now. If you have a question later that you didn't think of now, ask me next time I visit your school.

Please speak to mommy or daddy about taking part before you sign this letter. Signing your name at the bottom means that you agree to be in this study. A copy of this letter will be given to your parents.

Regards

Teacher (Name)

Your Name	**Yes I will take part**	**No I don't want to take part**
Name of the researcher		
Date		
Witness		

APPENDIX I: SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

Title: Preparation of teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria

Background information Participant Code

Gender__________________

Age-___________________

Teaching qualification____

Teaching Experience___________________ Grade ________________________

1. How do you understand inclusive education?
2. How do you manage inclusive teaching and learning in your classrooms?
3. How comfortable do you feel teaching all learners including those with diverse needs?
4. How can inclusive teaching and learning be enhanced in your classroom?
5. Describe the training on inclusive education during your studies to become a teacher.
6. What other things will you like to add?

APPENDIX J: OBSERVATION CHECKLIST

Title: Preparation of teachers for inclusive education in Nigeria

Background information Participant Code

Gender__________________

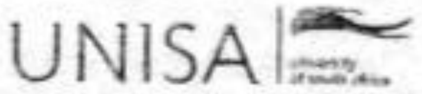
Age-___________________

Teaching Experience___________________ Grade ________________________

Aspect	Remarks
Knowledge about inclusive education	
Inclusive class organisation.	
Identifying diverse needs of learners during the lesson.	
Identify appropriate and differentiated learning objectives for all learners	
Knowledge and application of school's inclusive policy.	
Diversity of instructional strategies.	
Identifying barrier to learning.	
Lesson modification	
Implementation of inclusive education	
Making abstract concepts concrete or simplified.	
Strategies for learners who need support.	
Learners' contributions	
Pitching of questions to the class	
Use variety of inclusive groupings so that typically developing learners work with their peers with diverse needs in order to draw on one another's strengths and skills.	

Time and support during learner responses.	
Peer mediated strategies.	
Buddying during pair and group work.	
Follow-up support.	
Use of variety of resource materials and tangible aids? For example, real object, photograph, or computer animation	
Nature of class tasks	
Strategies that enhance inclusive education practice	
Use of co-teaching	
Use of collaboration	
Use of peer tutoring	
Use of guided notes	
Use of self-management intervention	
Use of instructional adaptations	
Use of additional teaching	
Use of multi-level instruction	
Use of technology	
Building community in the classroom	
Signature of the researcher	
Signature of the participant	
Date	

APPENDIX K: ETHICAL CLEARANCE



COLLEGE OF EDUCATION RESEARCH ETHICS REVIEW COMMITTEE

16 November 2016

Ref : 2016/11/16/47165855/29/MC
Student: Ms OO Daniyan
Student Number : 47165855

Dear Ms Daniyan,

Decision: Approved

Researcher: Ms OO Daniyan
Tel: +2774 967 9966
Email: topeladun@gmail.com

Supervisor: Dr T Majoko
College of Education
Department of Inclusive Education
Tel: +2712 484 2933
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Co-supervisor: Prof P Phasha
College of Education
Department of Inclusive Education
Tel: +2712 4298746
Email: phashnt@unisa.ac.za

Proposal: Preparation of pre-service teachers for Inclusive Education in Nigeria

Qualification: PhD in Inclusive Education

Thank you for the application for research ethics clearance by the College of Education Research Ethics Review Committee for the above mentioned research. Final approval is granted for the duration of the research.

The application was reviewed in compliance with the Unisa Policy on Research Ethics by the College of Education Research Ethics Review Committee on 16 November 2016.

The proposed research may now commence with the proviso that:

1) *The researcher/s will ensure that the research project adheres to the values and principles expressed in the UNISA Policy on Research Ethics.*
2) *Any adverse circumstance arising in the undertaking of the research project that is relevant to the ethicality of the study, as well as changes in the methodology, should*

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be communicated in writing to the College of Education Ethics Review Committee. An amended application could be requested if there are substantial changes from the existing proposal, especially if those changes affect any of the study-related risks for the research participants.

3) *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.*

Note:

The reference number **2016/11/16/47165855/29/MC** *should be clearly indicated on all forms of communication [e.g. Webmail, E-mail messages, letters] with the intended research participants, as well as with the College of Education RERC.*

Kind regards,

Dr M Claassens
CHAIRPERSON: CEDU RERC
mcdtc@netactive.co.za

Prof VI McKay
EXECUTIVE DEAN

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APPENDIX L: EDITOR'S LETTER

Barbara Shaw
Editing/proofreading services
18 Balvicar Road, Blairgowrie, 2194
Tel: 011 888 4788 Cell: 072 1233 881
Email: bmshaw@telkomsa.net
Full member of The Professional Editors' Group

To whom it may concern

This letter serves to inform you that I have done language editing

to a deadline on the thesis

PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION OF PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHERS FOR INCLUSIVE EDUCATION IN NIGERIA

by **DANIYAN OLATOPE OLADUNNI**

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Barbara Shaw

15/03/2020