ATTITUDES OF SELECTED GROUPS OF TEACHERS

TOWARDS

INCLUSIVE EDUCATION

By

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Finally, to The All Mighty God who has guided and protected me through hardships.

ABSTRACT

Inclusive education, in its broader sense, is bout acknowledging diversity of learners' needs and providing appropriate support. This happens when the education system is characterised by a shared responsibility among all the stakeholders to collaboratively provide a continuum of specialised support to address different needs of all learners. The needs range from cognitive, physical, emotional and cultural needs just to mention a few of them. Learners in the inclusive system therefore take a full and active part and are perceived as the full members of the institution as well as classroom community. Thus it is about creating a welcoming and supportive institutional culture that accepts and respects diversity of learners unconditionally. In inclusive education the whole system is custom-made; this includes curriculum and assessment standards, to meet the needs of learners not the predetermined needs of the curriculum.

The purpose of this study was to investigate the nature of attitudes that teachers hold towards inclusive education and how teachers as a group perceive different disabilities. There were two aims that the study has tried to address. They are:

- The nature of attitudes teachers from different backgrounds hold towards inclusive education.
- How teachers as a group perceive different disabilities.

The questionnaire was administered to teachers from historical Black; Coloured; White primary schools as well as teachers from special schools and the results showed that the nature of attitudes that teachers from different backgrounds hold towards inclusive education differ. Teachers from historical Black and Coloured primary schools hold more positive attitudes towards inclusive education than teachers from historical White primary schools and special schools. The study further showed that the majority of the participants in this study are not in favour of inclusion of learners with the following disabilities: blind; deaf; wheelchair confined and cerebral palsy. Teachers from historical White primary schools came up as the most

apprehensive group towards including learners with behavioural problems than any other racial group.

DECLARATION

I declare that *attitudes* of *selected groups of teachers towards inclusive education* represents my own work both in conception and in execution and that the resources that I have used are indicated by means of complete reference

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION AND MOTIVATION FOR THE STUDY

1. Introduction

Among the challenges facing education system in South Africa is provision of education, as a *constitutional right*, to those learners who have been marginalized and could not be accommodated by the learning institutions because of different disabilities. Even the majority of those who, through hard effort, are accommodated can not fully participate in *learning activities meaningfully*. These are the learners whose needs are special such that some modifications within the education system as whole are a precondition in order to enable them to fully participate and benefit from the process of teaching and learning. *Special educational needs of learners are manifested in a continuum ranging from the* needs of those who are less gifted through to the needs of those who are highly gifted. Other learners have physical, cultural and religious or language needs to be met.

1.1 Motivation for the study undertaken

The special education services, for many years, have been characterized by the lack of special facilities for black learners who are a majority of the learner population in South Africa. These learners, who have special educational needs, have found themselves in mainstream classes that could not cater for their special needs. Such mainstream classes have only enabled them to socialize with their peer group without accessing the curriculum, hence inclusion by default (Engelbrecht & Forlin, 1998, p. 8). This has resulted in the frustration of learners with special educational needs due to the inability to cope with academic work provided within the framework of mainstream education. Consequently they would drop out of the school system and teachers would regard that as a good riddance of the problem. This indicates that despite being segregated on racial bases education system has also been segregated on the bases of abilities, that is, those who were able and those who were disabled to cope with mainstream academic work.

The dual system of education has also been perpetuated by the way in which teachers have been trained by tertiary institutions. For instance, Engelbrecht and Forlin (1998, p. 4) seem amazed that in spite of the move towards inclusion, training of pre-service teachers still tends to reflect a focus on separate service delivery for learners with special educational needs with the result that training in special needs is not viewed as an integral and important part of the general teacher education curriculum. Consequently teachers lack empathy and insight into the phenomenological world of the learner with unique special educational needs. This has led to the expectation that the learner must achieve the minimum required level in order to progress to the next class regardless of whether a learner has some special needs that need to be catered for in a special way or not. The overwhelming numbers in classes together with lack of support has made it even more hard and impossible for teachers, even those that have done some modules on special or remedial education, to provide extra support and adapt the curriculum to meet the needs of the learners.

Although education White Paper 6 on special needs education, as a policy, provides a comprehensive framework for the provision of all learners within inclusive system, education facilities for learners with special educational needs are still provided within the predominantly segregated model which provides more resources to advantaged predominantly white schools. Within this framework there are no indications as to how teachers in regular schools might be disposed towards learners with disabilities and this becomes a point of concern because any endeavour that does not take teachers' attitudes into consideration is doomed to fail because they (teachers) are the key factors in teaching and learning as well as in implementation of new policies at the school or classroom level. Inclusive education policy, like other policies, needs teachers who have a will and passion to support learners with special needs. Such teachers will look for the ways through which their teaching methods could be improved in order to accommodate all learners thereby catering for their needs. Taylor (1994, p. 579), for instance, maintains that special education has no magical cure and the good special educators combine the art of teaching with science coming out of research on effective teaching in

general and special education and this coupled with desire, commitment and extreme empathy brings about satisfaction.

It also needs to be noted that empirical evidence of research shows that not all teachers are enthusiastic about inclusive education, for instance, Bothma, Gravett and Swart (2000, pp. 201–202) conducted a study to explore the attitudes of primary school teachers towards inclusive education. Their findings revealed that teachers have a negative attitude towards inclusive education. Those who participated in the study believed that learners with special needs can be better served in special schools or classes by specialist teachers. This nihilism attitude of teachers could be suggestive of the opinions and beliefs that they have about their teaching experiences and efficacy. The beliefs are based on the fact that teachers have their tried and tested methods that have been working well for them year after year and it is on the bases of these methods that their teaching is meaningful to them. Inclusive education on the other hand unsettles their minds because it is theoretical good but lacks clear practical activities that are expected to happen in actual teaching. Vaughn and Schumm (1995, p. 264) contend that there is little empirical documented evidence that exists for the effect of fully inclusive programmes of learners who have high incidence of learning disabilities.

The uncertainty of teachers about the positive outcome of inclusive education is not unique to South Africa. In Western Australia, for instance, Forlin (1998, pp. 98-99) conducted a study entitled, *Teachers' Personal Concerns about Including Children with a Disability in Regular Classrooms*, and the results showed that teachers were concerned about high expectations for them to be accountable for all children in their classrooms as well as to provide quality education equally for learners with special needs. The study further revealed that regular class teachers were concerned about their own efficacy and knowledge-base if they were to be involved in inclusive education. They believed that they were not well prepared to cope with additional special needs of a child with disability if placed in their classrooms. In another study conducted in the south-eastern United State entitled, *Teachers' Views of Inclusion*, Vaughn, Schumm, Jallad, Slusher and Saumell (1996, pp.104-105) found that teachers who have not experienced first hand positive aspects of inclusion models that provide adequate support programmes for

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teachers did not have positive view of inclusion and furthermore they were concerned that educational and social needs of students with and without disabilities would not be met in general education classroom despite the best effort of teachers and the good intention of those who have advocated for those programmes. They also perceived that with inclusion there will be demands to meet the needs of learners with special needs and to potentially co-teach and co-plan with other educational specialists.

1.2 Statement of the problem

Education situation, according to Gunter (1990, p.34), is an inter-subjective relation of mutual appeal and response which needs the correct and true cognitive attitude of an educator towards the learner to be the person-attitude not observer attitude. In view of this contention, therefore, the implementation of new policy of inclusive education needs to be accepted by all people involved, especially teachers who are expected to be the implementing agents. They need to take ownership and have inter-subjective relation of mutual appeal with learners with special educational needs. Given the nature of attitudes that teachers hold towards inclusion in studies referred to above its success is facing a tremendous challenge. Engelbrecht and Forlin, (pp. 8-9), for instance, contend that introduction of inclusion raises suspicion and conflict among teachers, and its success rests on the ability of the process of implementation not to alienate or threaten, but to meet teachers and students where they are and responding to their needs in a supportive way. It also needs to be considered that if inclusion is intended to provide quality education for all learners irrespective of their abilities, inclusive practices alone do not necessarily lead to quality of educational opportunity instead it may constitute a great educational inequality if educators are not accepting of and support with the implementation (Forlin, Douglas & Hattie, 1996, p.130).

The studies referred to above do not explore and compare attitudes of selected groups of teachers towards inclusive education. The present study is therefore attempting to establish the nature of attitudes that the selected groups of teachers hold towards inclusive education in the hope that the results may be useful in the implementation of inclusive education as mandated by education White Paper 6.

Two research questions have served to guide this study:

1. What is the nature of attitudes teachers from different backgrounds hold towards inclusive education?
2. Do teachers as a group perceive different disabilities differently?

1.3 Aims of the study

1.3.1 To find out about the nature of attitudes teachers from different backgrounds hold towards inclusive education.

1.3.2 To find out how teachers as a group perceive different disabilities.

1.4 Hypotheses

1.4.1 There is a relationship between teacher's background and the nature of attitudes they hold towards inclusive education.

1.4.2 Teachers as a group perceive different disabilities differently.

1.5 Definition of terms

1.5.1 Attitudes

Attitudes have been used to refer to the teachers' feelings and opinions about inclusive education as measured by an attitude scale.

1.5.2 Teacher and educator

The terms teacher and educator are used interchangeable to refer to the trained person who delivers the curriculum in the classroom.

1.5.3 Inclusion or inclusive education; mainstreaming and integration

The terms inclusion or inclusive education; mainstreaming and integration are used interchangeable to refer to the placing of children with different abilities in one class or setting and ensuring that their special educational needs are being catered for.

1.5.4 Children; learners and students

The terms children; learners and students are used interchangeable to refer to the children who attend or who are at school.

1.5.5 Educational special needs or special needs and barriers to learning

These terms are used interchangeable to refer to the impediments that make a child unable to learn or access the curriculum.

1.6 Summary

The present system of education is mainly influenced by, among other things, the discrepancies of the past which have a strong impact on how students with disabilities are perceived. This seems to result in a nihilism attitude towards them as well as their acceptance in the mainstream schooling. Consequently these learners find themselves physically present in the mainstream schools but their special educational needs are not catered for. The study is therefore exposing the formation and measurement of attitudes, previous work done, presents research findings and makes some recommendations.

CHAPTER 2

EXPOSITION ON THE FORMATION AND MEASUREMENT OF ATTITUDES

2.1 Introduction

Attitudes play an important role in determining how people react to a situation and as such they may predict human behaviour. In order to have a conceptual understanding of attitudes this chapter will elucidate the concept and look at the theoretical framework pertaining to their formation and their components. It will also address the question of how attitudes are measured, that is, the methods that are most likely to yield the reliable information about the attitudes of a person.

2.2 Definition

Literature (Gormly, 1992, p. 456; Horrocks, 1964, p. 678; Magn'e, 1985, p. 63; Ragland & Saxon, 1985, p. 420 & Sears, Freedman & Peplau, 1985, p. 135) defines attitude as an internal state that moderates the choices of personal action made by an individual and as such it is an expression of a person's feelings about a thing or situation. This includes a total subjective sum of a person's fears, inclinations, wishes, prejudices, preconceived notions, ideas and convictions. This is said to be a result from the impact of the environment, past and present, acting upon the personality of a person. Literature further differentiates attitude from an opinion, a belief or a point of view on the bases that attitude has an evaluative or emotional component that a belief in facts does not have. Unlike attitudes, beliefs, opinions or point of view do not have a dynamic motivational impact. Beliefs and opinions become attitudes when they are emotionally triggered, they involve the existing situation and make people to respond in a certain way towards particular thing or situation.

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Oppenheim (1966, pp. 105-106) defines attitude as a state of readiness to react in a certain manner when confronted with certain stimuli and it is present but dormant most of the time and they become expressed in speech or other behavior only when the object of attitude is perceived. He further maintains that attitudes are reinforced by beliefs which form part of cognitive component and often attract strong feelings which is an emotional component and that leads to a particular form of action which is a behaviour or action tendency component. Thurstone (Sommer & Sommmer, 1986, p. 131) also sees people's attitudes on a topic as representing the sum total of their beliefs, feelings, knowledge and opinions. Baron and Byrne (2004, p. 126) maintain that attitudes are a mental framework that helps to interpret and process information. They further contend that attitudes permit the self-expression, serve a self-esteem function that helps to enhance feeling of self-worth and serve an impression motivation function.

2.3 Theoretical framework on attitude formation

Attitude formation has been a challenging subject in social psychology mainly because it is not a concrete dimension and so much so that it is related to a person's personality. Hence it is a complex variable to explain and predict. This has led to different approaches being applied so as to provide some theoretical framework on the explanation of their formation.

2.3.1 Learning approach

Literature (Baron & Byrne, 2004, pp. 121-124; Davidoff, 1987, pp. 570-571; Dworetzky, 1988, pp. 581-582; Magn'e, 1985, pp. 219-220 & Sears et al., 1985, pp. 135-136) reveals that people are not born with attitudes, but they learn them. Some attitudes are picked up through behavioral learning principles without a person being aware of learning anything. The assumption is that people acquire feelings and facts and learn feelings associated with those facts and the main mechanisms that seem to be fundamental in the process of learning attitudes are association; reinforcement and imitation.

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2.3.2 Incentive approach

Incentive approach, according to Sears *et al.* (1985, p. 139), views attitude formation as a process of weighing the prons and cons of various possible positions and adopting the best alternative. For them the cognitive response theory or approach, which is one popular version of the incentive theory, assumes that people will respond to communication with positive or negative thoughts and such thoughts will determine whether or not people change their attitudes as a result of the communication. They further postulate that the basic assumption in this approach is that people are active processors of information who generate cognitive response to messages rather than being passive recipients of whatever message they happen to be exposed to. Sears et al. also highlight that expectancy value approach which is also another version of incentive approach assumes that people tend to adopt positions that are more likely to result in good effects and reject positions that are likely to lead to bad effects.

2.3.3 Cognitive consistency approach

Feldman (1985, p. 128) describes cognitive consistency approach as an approach that is not concerned with the way attitudes are acquired, but it starts with the existing attitudes and tries to explain how the components fit together with one another and with attitudes. He also maintains that cognitive consistency theories view human beings as active in information processing trying to make sense out of what they think, feel and do, and actively constructing and interpreting the world to bring congruence to inconsistencies that may occur between and within attitudes. In line with this idea Sears et al. (1985, p.140) contend that cognitive consistency approach grows out of the cognitive tradition and it portrays people as striving for coherence and meaning in their cognitive structure.

Both Feldman (1985, p. 128) and Sears *et al.* (1985, p. 140) share the same view that as much as this approach includes a number of related theories they all share one fundamental principle, that is, inconsistency is a psychologically unpleasant state and it makes the person to seek consistency by decreasing inconsistency. Himmelfarb and Eagly (Feldman, 1985, p. 128) are of the opinion that inconsistency may occur between

cognition about and affect towards an attitudinal object, between affect towards a person and his position on an issue, or between a person's cognitions; affect and behaviour towards an attitudinal object. There are three main theories that fall under the cognitive consistency approach. These theories are balance theory; cognitive-affective consistency and dissonance theory.

2.3.3.1 Balance theory

In balance theory, Heider (Feldman, 1985, p, 129) defines balance as a stable cognitive state which is comfortable to the perceiver. Sears *et al.* (1985, pp. 140-141) maintain that the motive that pushes people towards balance is trying to achieve harmonious, simple, coherent, and meaningful view of social relationships. They also argue that imbalance systems give a pressure towards attitude change. According to this theory therefore, people experience discomfort and pressure if there is an imbalance in their attitudinal systems and that will lead them to try to change their attitudinal systems in order to achieve a balance.

2.3.3.2 Cognitive-affective consistency

Cognitive-affective consistency, according to Sears *et al.* (1985, p. 142), views people as trying to make their cognition consistent with their affects. In this view beliefs about the facts of the object are to a certain extent determined by affective preferences and other way round. It is also argued that the evaluations that people make influence their beliefs, that is, people acquire cognitions necessary to support their evaluation.

2.3.3.3 Cognitive dissonance theory

In cognitive dissonance theory, cognitive dissonance is defined as the uncomfortable feeling that arises when a person experiences conflicting thoughts, beliefs or feelings (Feldman, 1985, p. 130; Gormly, 1992, p. 466; Santrock, 1994, p. 557 & Sears *et al.*, 1985, p. 143). It is maintained that it provides a state of psychological tension which motivates a person to reduce the dissonance. Consequently attitude changes in order to

maintain consistency with overt behaviour. Feldman (1985, p. 130) postulates that the main idea is that when a person holds two cognitions simultaneously that contradict one another, that person will experience dissonance. In order to reduce dissonance therefore, it becomes necessary to change one or both of the conflicting attitudes. Gormly (1992, p. 466) contends that the process of dissonance reduction does not always take place consciously.

2.4 Genetic approach

The role played by the genes with regard to personality which influences the way people perceive the situation around them brings a different dimension to attitudes. Although genetic factors are not directly linked to attitude formation, Tesser (Baron & Byrne, 2004, p. 125) has deduced that attitudes that involve gut-level preferences may be more strongly influenced by genetic factors than attitudes that are cognitive in nature. George (Baron & Byrne, 2004, p. 125) asserts that genetic factors influence general disposition, such as the tendency to experience positive or negative affects most of the time and these tendencies in turn may influence evaluations of many aspects of the social world.

2.5 Levels of attitude formation

The formation of attitudes is a complex process which involves the way people perceive things, their interests and dislikes which form the type of a person one is.
Literature (Kelman in Gormly, 1992, pp. 459-460 & Ragland & Saxon, 1985, pp. 421-422) shows that there are three processes or levels at which attitudes are formed. These levels are compliance, identification and internalization.

2.5.1 Compliance

Compliance is the weakest level of attitudes and at this level of attitude formation people comply with the wishes of others in order to avoid discomfort or being rejected. At this level attitudes are formed for the acceptance reasons. Since at compliance level attitudes formed are not very strong they can be easily abandoned or changed when acceptance or

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support by others or group is no longer important (Gormly, 1992, p. 460 & Ragland & Saxon, 1985, p. 421).

2.5.2 Identification

Identification occurs when a person wants to define himself in terms of another person or a group and adopts attitudes of the person or group concerned. At this level there is an emotional attachment that leads to the adoption of the attitudes of another person or a group. The person just believes the newly adopted views without questioning them and should the attachment of the person to the group or another person fade attitudes are also likely to fade. Attitudes formed through identification process therefore are not based on factual measurement and as such they are not strong enough. As a result of the lack of assessment or evaluation, attitudes formed through identification are fragile and may easily change (Gormly, 1992, p. 460 & Ragland & Saxon, 1985, p. 421).

2.5.3 Internalization

Internalization is the whole hearted acceptance of attitude. This is the strongest level of attitude formation. On this level the person takes the new attitude into his own belief system and this is based on ones own reasons and it does not rely on other people. Internalization makes attitude integral part of a person. There is a great likelihood of internalization to occur when attitude is consistent with a person's beliefs; values and when it supports ones self-image. Attitude gets accepted because at internalization level it is evaluated and believed to be right. At this level attitudes are hard to change (Gormly, 1992, p. 461 & Ragland & Saxon, 1985, p. 422).

2.6 Components of attitudes

There are three components of attitudes that have been identified (Gormly, 1992, p. 456; Magn'e, 1985, pp. 221-222; Oppenheim, 1996, pp. 105-106; Ragland & Saxon, 1985, p. 420 & Sears et al., 1985, p. 133). These components are: Cognitive; Affective and Behavioural.

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2.6.1 Cognitive component

Cognitive component is information based. It is a combination of all the cognitions which are facts; knowledge and beliefs that a person has about an attitude object. Cognitive component pertains to the ideas that express the relation between situation and attitudinal object. It is therefore knowledge regarding the way things are, or ought to be (Magn'e, 1985, pp. 221-222; Ragland & Saxon, 1985, p. 420 & Sears *et al.*, 1985, p. 133).

2.6.2 Affective component

Affective component of attitudes is consisting of all affects or emotions associated with the belief on something. This component pertains to the emotions or feelings that accompany the idea. It is about how a person feels about an attitude object and as such it is evaluative in nature and is more durable than the cognitive component. Affective component makes attitudes much more resistant to change than beliefs in facts (Magn'e, 1985, pp. 221-222; Ragland & Saxon, 1985, p. 420 & Sears *et al.*, 1985, p. 133).

2.6.3 Behavioural component

Behavioural component of attitudes refers to the person's readiness to respond or a tendency to act regarding the object or situation. It is an action resulting from facts that have evoked certain feeling. It is therefore pertaining to the predisposition for action (Magn'e, 1985, pp. 221-222; Ragland & Saxon, 1985, p. 420 & Sears *et al.*, 1985, p. 133).

Besides the fact that attitude has three components Millar and Tesser (Petty, 1995, p. 198) maintain that research has emphasized the notion that attitude does not necessarily have to be based on all the three components but only one or two components may be enough. To illustrate this, Petty gives the following illustration: on other case attitude may be

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based on how the subject makes a person feel, which is an affective component or on how the object makes a person think, which is a cognitive component.

2.7 Attitude Measurement

Oppenheim (1966, p. 107) asserts that perceiving attitudes as straight lines, running from positive through neutral to negative feelings about the object in question has led to the attempts of measuring concentrating on trying to place a person's attitudes on the straight linear continuum which describes that person as mildly positive; mildly negative and so on. He also maintains that there is no proof that the linear continuum approach is actually correct, though it makes things easier for measurement purposes. According to Horrocks (1964, p. 678), since attitudes become the representative of person's personality and are learned not inherited their measures may be assumed to be in part measures of certain behaviour component of personality as well as measures of achievement or learning. For him attitudes are measured by having an examinee express or react to opinion; choose between contrasting statements or react overtly when presented with various standard test situations. He also maintains that attitude is assumed to lie along an abstract continuum and the test is composed of one or more variables which must display consistency. On the other hand Thurstone, Likert and Guttman (Shaw & Wright, 1967, p. 13) believe that the most frequently used methods of measuring attitudes require subjects to indicate their agreement or disagreement with a set of statements about the attitude object. In the same breath Shaw and Wright (1967, pp. 13-14) maintain that the statements attribute to the object characteristics that are positive or negative and are rarely neutral.

Hayes (2000, pp. 91-93) maintains that questionnaire is a very general method of obtaining information from people and it can provide with largely factual information about people's behaviour or habits but when it comes to subtle information questionnaire are vulnerable to bias response. For that reason, Hayes believes that a simple questionnaire would be an inadequate method of measuring attitudes and he maintains that attitude scales on the other hand which are designed to evaluate attitudes, the process of their construction is more specified and much more vigorous. He also points out that some attitude measures are straight forward, others indirect in their design and

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researchers tend to favour direct over indirect attitude measures. Hayes (200, p. 96) further postulates that there are three basic assumptions of attitude scales:

- It is possible to express attitudes using verbal statements, that is, there is a way of putting attitudes into words.

- The same statement has the same meaning for all participants.

- When expressed in the form of verbal statements attitudes can be measured and quantified.

Sommer and Sommer (1986, p. 131) on the other hand argue that attitude scale indicates the overall degree of favourability of a person's attitude on a topic. They maintain that all questions in the attitude scale questionnaire concern a single issue regardless of how they are phrased. Along the same account Hayes (2000, pp. 96-97) regards attitude scale as the measurement that is able to provide much more subtle information than can be obtained from conventional questionnaire as long as it has been constructed with intention to detail and following appropriate procedures. Hayes sees attitude scales as a half-way house between the ordinary questionnaire and more vigorous and specialized kind of research tool, psychometric test.

2.7.1 Likert scale questionnaire

The most popular type of attitude measure of all is Likert Scale (Hayes, 2000, p. 93). In Hayes' opinion Likert Scale is a fairly direct type of attitude scale where a respondent is asked straight forwardly about the topic of interest and a five point scale is used to express agreement or disagreement with a particular statement. He contends that Likert Scale has an advantage of coping with different strengths of opinion or even if a person has no opinion at all about the topic. He further asserts that combined responses to different items on a Likert Scale make it possible for a researcher to obtain a measure of attitudes which is often thorough.

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2.8 Summary

Attitude is a complex construct which seems to be influenced by different factors. It is worth noting that the observable behavior may not necessarily reflect how a person is disposed towards an object or situation due to different factors that may be influential at the given time. For example, a person may portray positive attitudes towards a prominent leader because of compliance. This, therefore, provides a justification that a conclusion may not be reached about a persons' attitude by mere observing the behaviour, but there has to be an instrument designed such that it taps on the deeper inner feelings. Thus a Likert Scale so far is still recommended as the best instrument for attitude measurement.

CHAPTER 3

LITERATURE REVIEW

3.1 Introduction

Since inclusive education practice is fairly new, in order to have a better understanding of the attitudes of selected groups of teachers towards its implementation, one needs to take the holistic view of the systemic variables that have a direct or indirect influence on how inclusion may be perceived by different people. Some of the pertinent variables include, *inter alia*, how inclusion is conceptualized; paradigms of perceiving disabilities; different types and levels of disabilities; teachers' prowess in dealing with disabilities; teachers' experiences with disabled students and the legislative framework for the implementation of inclusive system of education and training. The research done provides valuable information on perceptions and attitudes that different people have on the impact of these variables.

3.2 The conceptualization of inclusion

Carrington (1999, pp. 258-259) believes that disability is a form of socially constructed differences and some educators operate from the traditional medical paradigm that regards the disability as a disease and difference as a social deviance. For her, emphasis on disability as a deviance puts the focus on the inadequacies and the negative characteristics rather than strengths and abilities of the person. She also asserts that education equity for a diverse group of learners requires a system that eliminates categorical special needs programmes and eliminates the historical distinction between regular and special education. She is of the opinion that focus should not be just on the needs of students with disabilities but should be embedded in the broader context of differences and similarities. Her contention on education reformers is that, they should attend closely to understanding the cultural and social institutional settings and beliefs and values of teachers and others who deal with a diverse range of students in the school

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community. According to her, if every child is viewed as a learner the concept of failing should not be an issue because of the prioritization of meeting learners' needs above that of achieving predetermined response to predetermined stimulus. The point of departure, therefore, is to design the system of education that will be biased towards meeting and accommodating the needs of its primary clients, the students. When this is narrowed down to service delivery level, in development of a learning programme and assessment standards the guiding framework should be the educational needs of all students. Carrington (1999, p. 259), for instance, regards the students as central to the learning process, valued as proactive contributors and identified as entering into all interactions with a unique set of prior experiences that shape their expectations. The student rather than the teacher, curriculum, or dominant culture according to her, should be regarded as the driver of the educational experience if the goals are engagement and success.

According to Green (2001, p. 4) the term inclusive education is used to describe educational policies that uphold the rights of students with disabilities to belong within mainstream education. Lewis and Doorlag (1995, pp. 5-7), on other hand, postulate that inclusion is sometimes used to describe the mainstreaming process, and they highlight that the advocates of full inclusion maintain that the general education classroom is the most appropriate full-time placement for all students with disabilities including those with severe disabilities. They further postulate that support, in this model, is provided within regular classroom setting. They are also aware that other special education professionals do not concur with the assumption that full-time inclusion is the appropriate placement for students with disabilities. Their strong contention is that professionals who are opposed to full-time inclusion advocate that other options, like resource rooms, should be available so that educational programmes could be tailored down to the specific needs of individual students. Inclusion or mainstreaming discourses, in their view, tend to be biased towards students with disabilities that negatively affect their school performance and they propose that the concept should be expanded to include other groups whose learning needs are salient in such a way that they warrant special consideration. In their illustration, for instance, they included gifted and talented students from culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds and students at risk for school failure that have special needs that could be accommodated within the regular classroom.

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They also believe that special students differ, some may learn faster and easily while others may learn with difficulty. Another important issue they highlight is that students' behaviour may be beyond reproach and frequently inappropriate, while others may have problems emanating from their speech, language or culture.

The concept of inclusive education programming, for Banerji and Dailey (1995, p. 511), is based on the premise that children of exceptional abilities and backgrounds benefit both academically and socially in a learning environment where they are served alongside normally achieving students as opposed to being segregated from them. In this regard Sailor (Banerji & Dailey, 1995, p. 512) defines the full inclusion programme as a model of service delivery being characterized by six criteria:

- All students attend schools to which they would go if they had no disability.

- A natural proportion of students with disabilities occurs at each school site.

- A zero rejection philosophy exists so that typically no student would be excluded on the basis of type and extent of disability.

- School and general education placement are age and grade appropriate with no self-contained special education classes operative at school site.

- Cooperative learning and peer instructional methods receive significant use in general instructional practice.

- Special education supports are provided within the context of the general education class.

From a quality perspective, Farrell (2000, pp. 153-154) sees inclusion as the more accurate way of describing the quality of education offered to students with special needs

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within an integrated setting. He argues that to be regarded as fully included students with special needs should take a full and active part in the life of the mainstream school and they need to be valued as members of the community and be perceived as internal part thereof. The frame of equality, according to Corbet (1999, pp. 57-58), is about a genuine commitment to inclusion which includes among other things, changing culture of the institution to make it more responsive to differences, receptive to change and sensitive to language imagery and the presentation of ideas. She also contends that inclusion is about creating culture which welcomes; supports and nurtures diverse needs as well as accepting people as they are, not expecting them to struggle to be "normal". This concurs with Wang and Reynolds (Leeman & Volman, 2001, p. 368) who believe that education is inclusive if schooling is organized in such a way that all learners can be educated together even if they are different.

In addition to school change to improve the education system for all students, inclusion has academic and social benefits for both students with and without disabilities and their teachers and families as well (Grenot-Scheyer; Jubala; Bishop & Coots, 1996, pp. 1-4). This entails increased communication and social interaction opportunities; age appropriate models of behaviour skills; more active participation in the life of school community; individualized education goals as well as access to the rich core curriculum. Grenot-Scheyer et al. (1996, p. 9) further assert that inclusive model of education requires the establishment of a collaborative ethic as well as shared ownership of all students. They also maintain that through collaborative team effort, specialized support can follow students to general education classrooms and allow all students to develop and learn. For them such kind of support may include, among other things, assistance from a specialist to adapt activities from the core curriculum to meet the individual needs of the diverse learners in the general education classroom.

Inclusion therefore, should be regarded as a shared responsibility for both generalist and specialist teachers in providing a full continuum of services delivery options to all students with special educational needs within the school context as well as responding to diversity and being open to new ideas, empowering all members of community and

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celebrating differences in dignified way (Barton in Carrington, 1999, p. 259 & Monahan *et al.*, 1996, p. 317).

Ballard (Carrington, 1999, p. 259) has identified four factors that are embodying inclusive education. These factors are:

- Non-discriminatory education in terms of disability, culture and gender.

- Involvement of all students in a community with no expectations.

- Equal rights for students to access culturally valued curriculum as full-time members of age appropriate regular classroom.

- Emphasis on diversity rather than assimilation.

Putting inclusive education within the South African context, Green (2001, p. 6) contends that the challenge facing educational authorities is to conceptualize, develop and fund systems that are flexible enough to accommodate the learning requirements of all students and to adapt to a variety of contexts. Then, she maintains, the schools will become learning communities that foster a sense of belonging and recognize what children have in common, while at the same time taking diversity and welcoming it for the different perspective it brings. She also argues that a commitment to inclusion challenges education system and communities to make and support changes to their assumptions, attitudes, policies and curricula.

3.3 Paradigms of disability perception

There are four models which are also referred to as paradigms within which disability could be located. These paradigms according to Peters (1993, p. 26) are explanation of the way in which cultural values determine how disability is constructed at the societal level through diverse forms of producing knowledge about disability. They are conceived of as specific paradigms for the perception of disability defined by

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assumptions; educational goals; consequences and problems. She further contends that the practical use of these paradigms lies in their application to the structure and practice of schooling in order to understand causal relations that explain treatment of and attitude towards persons with disabilities.

3.3.1 Medical paradigm

The assumptions of medical paradigm, according to Peters (1993, p. 28), are underpinned by the characteristics of sociological theory of fundamentalism where individuals are allocated to their places in society according to their abilities and selection involves labeling and separation. She contends that similar approach is applicable to medical paradigm where students are labeled as diseased and separated on the basis of diagnosis into differentiated programmes where they are made functional for their places in society as disabled people. On the bases of the fact that it concentrates on the individual at the expense of context, Peters maintains that medical paradigm is known as the diagnostic-prescriptive approach to remediation and those who subscribe to this approach assume that pathological symptoms may be objectively assessed.

The educational goals in medical paradigm focus on health need in order to affect a cure and should that not be possible goals are developed that conform to the prescribed expectations, (Peters, 1993, p. 28). Training is constructed in such a way that it enables the disabled students to adapt to their disabilities. For Peters (1993, pp. 28-29) the consequences of the medical perception are in twofold, that is, individual differences are collectivized and students as well as their families have to accept their outcome as prescribed by professionals. Problems of this model are characterized by the lack of power and social roles thus students are denied choices and consequently they are consigned to the narrow future position in society.

Medical paradigm is in line with medical discourse where Fulcher (1989, p. 27) maintains that medical discourse on disability suggests that disability is an observable or intrinsic, objective attribute of a person rather than a social construct and, on top of that, it individualizes disability and professionalizes it in the sense that it allows the claim that

personal trouble is a matter for professional judgment. Fulcher also asserts that professionalism pervades medical discourse and its associated discourses like, psychology, social work, occupational therapy and educational discourse. Thus, through its language of body, patient, help, need, cure, rehabilitation, and its politics that the doctor knows best excludes consumer discourse, wants and integration in mainstream social practices. Medical discourse perpetuates a discourse of person blame, that is, the victim carries the responsibility of changing life-style instead of changing the social practices of production or educational apparatuses, (Fulcher, 1989, p. 28).

3.3.2 Social paradigm

In social paradigm a disability is viewed as deviation from the norm (Peters, 1993, p. 29). The idea of social pathology assumes that disabled persons' function is limited in terms of ability to execute social roles and expectations. Like the medical paradigm, social paradigm focuses on deficits but in a social form. For instance, while the medical paradigm insists on innate deficits, social paradigm diffuses the argument by focusing on deviance from external norms of functioning within the society.

Peters (1993, p. 30) contends that educational goals in social paradigm are perpetuated in the narrow confines of remediation through diagnosis and prescription and schools service students through social filtering mechanisms and educational tracking. She further argues that a withdrawal model is applied in Social Paradigm whereby students are removed for all or part of the day, from mainstream classroom and provided with specialized training by experts and the common goal, which is rarely achieved, is to prepare students to re-enter the mainstream with functional social and vocational skills.

Peters further maintains that the consequences of social paradigm, like those of medical paradigm, are that students are maintained in an inferior, recipient status and they, together with their families, are sheltered from the real world. Problems are that students and their families are denied self-determination and are prejudiced like other minority groups who end up as welfare recipients because of unequal access to quality education. Social paradigm is in accord with a charity discourse which, according to Fulcher (1989,

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p. 29) excludes the theme of rights; promotes professionalism and deflects attention from the consumer's perceptions and wants.

3.3.3 Political paradigm

Political paradigm, according to Peters (1993, pp. 30-31), is underpinned by the assumption that the disabled people are an oppressed minority, and socially as well as politically constructed physical and attitudinal barriers are the obstacles to education and employment. Those who subscribe to this paradigm contend that the imposed barriers begin at birth, carry through to the onset of schooling and manifest themselves beyond the school boundaries. Because of political paradigm, different forms of declarations have been made on the rights of people with disabilities which include, *inter alia*, access to education; equal employment opportunities as well as access to public buildings; transport and services.

According to (Peters, 1993, p. 31) the proponents of political paradigm reject deficit focus in favour of ability focus and the goal is full integration and to have equality of educational access and to reach full potential. Consequences of this paradigm are that students and their families have full rights and are regarded as experts as opposed to being passive recipients of educational welfare programmes provided by professionals who know best and political paradigm insists on the social validation of disabled people's place in the society. She also believes that the problems in this paradigm are that; legislation does not necessarily guarantee implementation and attitudes of classroom teachers, employers and societies undermine the effort of full integration. The results thereof are that many of school children with disabilities find themselves being physically integrated in the classrooms but remain socially isolated and academically under-achieving because of lack of access to alternative modes of learning in these classrooms. Consequently schools may become sites of failure rather than equal opportunities. Political paradigm is in concurrence with rights discourse where Fulcher (1989, p. 31) maintains that it is seen as the most progressive and obvious strategy for those excluded from full citizenship in modern welfare states and it underlines much equal opportunities.

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3.3.4 Pluralistic paradigm

Peters (1993, p. 32) postulates that the pluralistic paradigm of disability is consistent with social interaction theory which views social reality as a creation of social participants. The ideology of cultural pluralism views normal functioning as relative to cultural values and beliefs and characteristics attributed to students are regarded as socially constructed and culturally mediated identities. Differences are viewed as positive influences and everyone regardless of his or her condition has a contribution to make.

Educational goals in pluralistic paradigm stress equality and differences on all children are recognized as positive influences and are adapted to classroom environment (Peters, 1993, p. 33). The overall educational objective of Pluralistic Paradigm is to embrace the nature of diversity as positive force and to foster sensitivity and respect for diverse learners as well as to recognize the role of cultural factors that mediate the perceptions and treatment of diversity. On the issue of diversity, Peters further argues that Pluralistic Paradigm embraces the full spectrum of differences, including factors such as communication, linguistic, postulate physical, sensory, behavioural, affective, and cognitive differences.

3.4 African perspectives on disability

In many South African families cultural belief system, according to Mokhosi and Grieve (2004, p. 304), plays a fundamental role in the way people perceive adversities that happen to their lives. These cultural beliefs include sorcery and witchcraft; the role of ancestors and religious beliefs. Mokhosi and Grieve maintain that there is a belief that nothing bad happens by chance, everything is caused by someone directly or through the use of mystical powers held by sorcerer; witch or wizard. They further argue that it is a common thing for God to be regarded as the cause of what has happened. It is these beliefs shaped by different perceptions that make one understand that they have a significant impact on how a person is disposed towards people with disabilities. Based on these beliefs one tends to expect that the negative things associated with disability by

different racial groups have a direct link with the development of the nature of attitudes that different people hold towards the disabled people hence the study is intended to investigate attitudes that teachers from different backgrounds hold towards inclusive education.

In Zimbabwe, Barnatt and Kabzems (1992, p. 142) in the study entitled: *Zimbabwean Teachers' Attitudes Towards the Integration of Pupils with Disabilities into Regular Classrooms*, found that disability is associated with wrong-doing by the mother or witchcraft, that is, the mother is bewitched or is a witch herself. Another factor that they found is that, among the Zimbabwean people there is a belief that laughing at a disabled person results in the curse being transferred to one who has laughed. These researchers also highlight that some people in Zimbabwe believe that some of the disabilities are a result of transgression or failing to adhere to the cultural protocol. Hearing impairment, for instance, is believed to be caused by not getting involved in sexual intercourse within two weeks of child birth hence ears do not get opened.

3.5 Teacher's efficacy as a point of focus

The inclusive education is dependant upon willingness of teachers to try new methods and develop new skills so as to be able to carter for all students. There ought to be a paradigm shift in terms of transformation of education system as a whole so that it does not only own but cater for the students with special educational needs. One of the fundamental issues is the perception prevailing among general education teachers on their efficacy to teach these students within inclusive setting. The perceptions that teachers have of themselves in relation to skills as well as how they perceive the disabled students may contribute on their disposition towards inclusive education. In most instances teachers are not confident enough because they feel that they are not trained to teach such students. D'Alonzo, Giordano and Cross (1996, p. 305) give a good account on this issue in their article addressing the contention that in order to improve, change, or even illuminate teacher's negative perceptions about including students with disabilities, the training of all teachers needs to take place. They postulate that a number of general education teachers has left the education of students with disabilities up to those who are

trained to teach them. They further maintain that most studies indicate that teachers, like the general public, have a negative view of both students with disabilities and the inclusion of such students into the mainstream education and this perception has helped to perpetuate the dual system of education by maintaining an attitude that not all students are capable of learning within a general education system.

Houck and Rogers (1994, pp. 447-448), conducted a study in Virginia and documented factors serving as the basis of creating reluctance towards increased integration efforts for servicing students with specific learning disabilities. The results of their study revealed that in spite of the respondents expressing positive outcomes of integration, there is doubt regarding the adequacy of general education teachers' skills for making needed instructional adaptations for students with specific learning disabilities. In their study in South Carolina on regular classroom teachers' attitudes towards inclusion of students with special needs in their classrooms, Monahan, Marino and Miller (1996, p. 317) found that the majority of teachers felt that regular education teachers do not have instructional skills and educational background to teach students with special educational needs. These results, when viewed against the general training that teachers receive, pose a challenge in terms of their capabilities to implement inclusive education given the perceptions that they may have of their efficacy.

In another study conducted in Georgia on teachers' attitudes towards mainstreaming, Bender et al. (1995, p. 93) were surprised to find a direct link between negative attitudes towards mainstreaming and less frequent use of effective instructional strategies to facilitate mainstreaming. On the other hand, teachers who were favourable disposed towards mainstreaming utilized mainstreaming strategies more than other teachers who had less positive attitudes. Also interesting about the study is that the results suggested no great overlap of teachers' perceptions of their own efficacy and their support for mainstreaming.

Minke, Bear, Deemer and Griffin (1996, pp. 179-180) in a study on attitudes towards basic assumptions regarding inclusion of children with mild disabilities; perception of self-efficacy; competence and teaching satisfaction and judgment of the appropriateness

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of classroom adaptation, found that regular educators in the inclusive classroom together with special educators in the same setting rated themselves high on the levels of personal efficacy than regular teachers in traditional classroom. The study further revealed that special education teachers perceived themselves as being better trained, more effective and using different methods than regular teachers while their regular education counterparts did not see such differences.

The problem of teacher training to deal with students with special needs is a serious one if it is taken into consideration that inclusive education is based on provision of quality education for diverse learners within the same setting. Davies and Green (1998, p. 100) conducted a study in the Cape Town area to investigate the attitudes of primary school teachers in ordinary classrooms towards learners with low to medium levels of special educational needs. The findings revealed that among the concerns of teachers is coping as a teacher without special training. These results suggest that skills of multilevel and mixed ability teaching are a prerequisite in the mediation within the inclusive classroom and therefore they are indispensable for the success of inclusion.

3.6 Experience as a point of focus

The experiences that people have about people with disabilities are most likely to determine the nature of attitudes that they hold towards such people depending on how they have perceived them. In the education setting, teachers with different experiences on the disabled student may be expected to react differently when they encounter these students. In the study to investigate the effects of special education classroom experience of pre-service elementary teachers on attitudes towards mainstreaming handicapped children, Hoover (1984, p. 37) found that limited special class experience following special education course on mainstreaming did not produce immediate effects on pre-service elementary teachers' attitudes as well as confidence. Hoover then concluded that in addition to completion of one college course related to mainstreaming, limited experience in a special education classroom may not be a more effective form of experience for preparing pre-service elementary regular class teachers for teaching the disabled child. Green and Harvey (1983, p. 1260), on the other hand, conducted a study

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to validate the Attitude Toward Mainstreaming Scale (ATMS) for use with New Zealand population of teachers and teacher training. Their findings indicated that those who previously had had a course or workshop on special education in comparison with those who had not, had more favourable attitudes towards mainstreaming.

The study, referred to previously, by Minke *et al.* (1996, p. 178-180) also revealed that regular classroom teachers who did not have appropriate resources had a negative attitude towards integration than their counterparts with such resources. They anticipated negative impact from inclusion on the social-emotional adjustment of learners without disabilities. The study also showed that teachers in traditional classroom but with prior experience of working with special education in one class had higher level of personal efficacy on their ratings regarding managing behaviour of children with disabilities. The common trend in their findings was that behavioural problem was seen as, by both special and regular educators in the inclusive setting, easy to manage. In view of all the findings they then made an assumption that working closely with special education teachers and students with disabilities demystifies the special education process and decreases the differences that teachers generally perceive. This concurs with a study done by Harvey (1992, p. 41), entitled: *Integration in Victoria: Teacher's Attitudes After Six Years of a Non-Choice Policy*, where the results showed that being exposed to integration fears that teachers had were overcome and they were positive about admitting learners with mild intellectual disabilities in regular classes. These results are also in line with the conclusion reached by Barnartt and Kabzems (1992, p. 144) who, after analyzing the results of their study, concluded that teachers who have some more experience with disability as well as older, more experienced teachers, rather than those with the most advanced training hold favourable attitudes towards integration of students with disabilities into regular classrooms. It is evident, therefore, that exposure to people with disabilities allows the opportunity to know them better and re-think the pre-conceived ideas about them. Robinson and Robinson (1976, p. 393), for instance, contend that children with disabilities are seen as uninterested and unattractive and the experience with them and their families leads to sympathy for them, more respect for their needs and goals as well as appreciation of their individuality.

3.7 Level of disability as a point of focus

Davies and Green (1998, p. 100), in the study mentioned previously, found that teachers have a positive attitude towards mainstreaming learners with mild to moderate levels of special educational needs. Another study quoted before, In Zimbabwe Barnatt and Kabzems (1992, p. 138) found that learners with mobility impairment were most accepted, followed by those with visual impairment; hearing impairment and finally those with intellectual impairment. These findings were applicable for both inclusion in regular classroom as well as in teachers' own classrooms. These results do suggest that teachers are more interested in levels and categories of disabilities in order to estimate what level of support is likely to be required. Farrell (2000, p. 158) also contends that teachers are generally positive about the idea of inclusion, particularly for children who have a physical and sensory difficulties and less positive for those with emotional and behavioural problems.

3.8 Teachers' attitudes as a point of focus

Downing (2002, p. 10) argues that the greatest barrier to the successful inclusion of children with severe and multiple impairments in typical learning environment is the fear of what might have to happen since few students with these disabilities have been included in general education classes and information pertaining to their successful learning and required support to promote this success are not available or not known by most teachers. She further maintains that the first step before educating together all students is the change of attitude from the perception of learners who do not belong to the perception of learners who need support and a shift from deficit orientation to an ability orientation with acknowledgement that additional support may be necessary and is acceptable. She is convinced that, it is the way to enhance the movement towards inclusive education. Downing also maintains that inclusive education builds on the principle of interdependence among students and the realization that students will excel in some skill areas but not others. The principle of give and take in the heterogeneity of

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students is necessary for them to learn from one another. She maintains, however, that not knowing what is possible and how support can be used to promote all students' learning can create unwillingness to change. She further contends that a change in attitude is the basic step that should occur before educating students together can successfully take place. In order to achieve this, Downing (2000, p. 11) believes that additional training is one of the key priorities required for inclusive education. The attitude of the teacher, according to her, remains the pivotal centre upon which inclusive education revolves.

Teachers' attitudes according to Schulz et al. and Wiczenski (D'Alonzo *et al.*, 1996, pp. 309-310) do not only set the tone for the relationship between teachers and students with disabilities but they influence even the attitude of non-disabled students. It is also maintained that the success of the inclusion movement will depend upon the attitudes of pre-service and in-service teachers towards inclusion and the academic preparation they receive in teaching students with disabilities. Hargreaves (Carrington, 1999, p. 264), on the same token, contends that the teacher is the ultimate key to the education change and school improvement for the very fact that he develops; defines; interprets and delivers the curriculum, and it is what a teacher believes and what he does at the level of the classroom that actually determines what students get.

Guskey (Carrington, 1999, p. 264), on the other hand, is concerned about the fact that staff development programmes have been found not to be most successful in bringing about attitude and belief change, hence if teachers could be supported and guided in trying new strategies and see positive outcomes, then a tremendous attitude change can be seen. Carrington (1999, p. 264) advises that professional development programmes of teachers should take into consideration conditions that will affect the success or failure of any new approach so that barriers to implementation of new strategies and ideals can be overcome. She also maintains that traditional approaches to staff development may fail to produce any change in teachers' attitude; approach to curriculum; class organization and ideas about teaching and learning that will be required for inclusive schooling and, to overcome this problem, she suggests that teachers may need to see

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other successful teachers working in inclusive settings, adapting curriculum for all learners and organizing classes to meet the needs of diverse students.

One important issue that needs to be extrapolated from the above expositions is that inclusion has to do with what is actually going on behind the doors in the classroom, legislations and policies only provide a framework for implementation. For teachers to successfully implement inclusive education they need to have expertise to teach all learners and passion for learners with special educational needs. On top of it all they must buy into the idea of including these learners as well as be prepared to change their teaching strategies, if there is a need, in order to enhance success. Unless teachers' attitudes are positive towards inclusion, learners with special educational needs will remain in regular classrooms without accessing the curriculum. Painting (1983, p. 95) states that teachers may develop resentful and rejecting attitude towards disabled child and they may feel frustrated because their schedule is disrupted by the child and become helpless because they do not know how to deal with the children's behaviour. On the same point Siegel and Gold (1982, p. 61) assert that productive intervention will not occur as long as teachers still view the learning disabled child's characteristic behaviour as completely negative and detrimental to both the child's effort to learn and to the teacher's effort to mediate.

3.9 Inclusive education policy

The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, Act 108 of 1996 states that everybody has got a right to basic education. It is this constitutional right that has culminated in the development of different policies that address various issues on education. South African Schools, Act 84 of 1996 and White Paper 6 on special education, for instance, provide a legislative framework which serves as a directive on the procedures to be followed in order to ensure that all learners are catered for in the education system and consequently the implementation of inclusive education and training system as part of transforming education system from a segregated system of education to an inclusive system of education and training. This policy, Department of National Education (2001, p. 24), is underpinned by the understanding that all children can learn within all bands of education

and they need support. It recognizes that students experience barriers and drop out because the system does not accommodate them. This is manifested in the form of inaccessible physical plants; curricula; assessment; learning materials and teaching methodologies. It moves away from the medical model where it is believed that learning barriers reside within the learner and learner support should be provided by a specialist. Establishment of inclusive education system and training requires early identification and support, as well as change in special schools so that they become part of the district-based support teams while at the same time they provide high-quality service for learners with severe and multiple disabilities.

There are six basic principles referred to as strategies and levers that are outlined in this policy which characterize the South African model of inclusive education and training system (Department of National Education, 2001, pp. 20-23). They can be summarized as follows:

- The qualitative improvement of special schools and their conversion to resource centres that are integrated into district-based support teams. These resource centres will cater for learners who need high-intensive educational support. They will also provide expertise and professional support in curriculum, assessment and instruction as part of the district support team to neighbourhood schools, especially full-service schools. In order to enable special schools to function as resource centres in the district support system, their services will be upgraded with a special focus on the training of their staff for their new roles.

- Since there is a lot of the disabled children and youth outside the school system, about 280 000, they will be mobilized so that they get admitted accordingly.

- The designation and conversion of about 500 out of 20 000 primary schools, within mainstream schooling, to full-service. These full-service schools will cater for learners who need moderate support. The process will begin with 30 school districts which are part of the national District Development programme. There will also be a designation of full-service institutions within adult basic education;

further and higher education. The final number of full-service institutions will be determined by the needs and the availability of resources.

- General orientation and introduction, within the mainstream education, of management; governing bodies and professional staff to the inclusion model, and the targeting of early identification of disabilities and intervention in the foundation phase.

- The establishment of district-based support teams to provide a coordinated professional support service that draws on the expertise in further and higher education and local communities. The target will be the special schools; specialized settings; designated full-service schools and other primary schools as well as educational institutions. This will begin with 30 school districts.

- The implementation of national advocacy and information programme in support of the inclusion model focusing on the roles, responsibilities and rights of all learning institutions, educators, parents and local communities and highlighting the focal programmes and reporting on their progress.

3.10 Summary

Review of literature on encounter with disabled people indicates that there are some various factors that influence attitudes towards such people. The society tends to set standards that end up being accepted as the norms within which people are expected to function. This has resulted in legislations which try to address the man created discriminatory problem. In this regard Burdekin (1995, p. 8) asserts that as much as one cannot legislate tolerance, law is sometimes a necessary precondition for initiating more tolerant attitudes and more equitable policies and programmes in the community. On that account The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, Act 108 of 1996; South African Schools, Act 84 of 1996 and White Paper 6 on special education as well as other related policies are a necessary precondition to initiate tolerance and attitude change but they need to be translated into action through implementation.

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CHAPTER 4

THE RESEARCH DESIGN AND PROCEDURES

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the study sample and how it is dispersed according to gender and age; method that was followed on the contextualization of the research statements as well as procedures followed in the administration of the research instrument. It also presents the internal consistency reliability of the instrument.

4.2 Research design

This study explores attitudes that teachers hold towards inclusive education. It tries to describe the existing condition as it is. Schumacher and McMillan (1993, p. 35) contend that for describing existing condition, descriptive design is used and they further maintain that in descriptive design there is no manipulation or treatment of subjects but the researcher measures things as they are. On the bases of the nature of this study, therefore, descriptive design has been used.

4.3 Method of sampling

The study has involved the teacher population of Port Shepstone District. It has been, however, difficult to obtain the list of all teachers of the district and on that account cluster sampling has been applied because literature (Cozby, 1993, p. 61 & Schumacher & McMillan, 193, p. 163) justifies that instead of randomly sampling from a list of individuals from the full population a researcher can identify cluster of individuals like schools and sample from those clusters. In this study all the individuals in the cluster (school) have been included in the sample.

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4.4 The study sample

Since the study purports to investigate the nature of attitudes teachers from different backgrounds hold towards inclusive education as well as how teachers as a group perceive different disabilities the study sample, therefore, was formed by full-time primary school teachers from different backgrounds and special schools in the Port Shepstone District. There were seventy six teachers from historically Black primary schools; twenty nine from historically Coloured/Indian primary schools; thirty from historically White primary schools and fifty from special schools. This resulted to a total of one hundred and eighty-five sample group that participated in the study.

4.5 Descriptive percentages statistics: Group's dispersion

The descriptive statistics tables that follow present the full distribution of frequencies and percentages of the study sample according to age and gender as per racial groups of teachers who participated in the study.

4.5.1 Historical Black Primary Schools

Table 1: Historically Black School Respondents by age groups

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	21 - 25 yrs	1	1.3	1.4	1.4
	26 - 30 yrs	5	6.6	6.8	8.2
	31 - 35 yrs	13	17.1	17.8	26.0
	36 - 40 yrs	22	28.9	30.1	56.2
	41 - 45 yrs	20	26.3	27.4	83.6
	46 - 50 yrs	7	9.2	9.6	93.2
	Above 51 yrs	5	6.6	6.8	100.0
	Total	73	96.1	100.0	
Missing	System	3	3.9		
Total		76	100.0		

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Interpretation

The above table reveals age group dispersion of participated respondents in this project, these are 1.3 % are 21 - 25 years, 6.6 % are 26 - 30 years, 17.1 % are 31 - 35 years, 28.9 % are 36 – 40 years, 26.3 are 41 - 45 years, 9.2 % are 46 - 50 years, 6.6 % are 51 years and above and also 3.9 % did not reveal their age status.

Table 1.1: Respondents by gender

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	Male	19	25.0	26.0	26.0
	Female	54	71.1	74.0	100.0
	Total	73	96.1	100.0	
Missing	System	3	3.9		
Total		76	100.0		

Interpretation

The above table results reveal gender dispersion of participated respondents in this project, the participated respondents in this project are 25.0 % males and 71.1 % are females and also 3.9 % did not reveal their gender status.

4.5.2 Historical Coloured/Indian Primary Schools

Table 2: Historical Coloured/Indian School Respondents by age groups

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
21 - 25 yrs	1	3.4	3.4	3.4
26 - 30 yrs	6	20.7	20.7	24.1
31 - 35 yrs	5	17.2	17.2	41.4
36 - 40 yrs	7	24.1	24.1	65.5
41 - 45 yrs	4	13.8	13.8	79.3
46 - 50 yrs	3	10.3	10.3	89.7
Above 51 yrs	3	10.3	10.3	100.0
Total	29	100.0	100.0	

<u>Interpretation</u>

The above table reveals age group dispersion of participated respondents in this project, these are 3.4 % are 21 - 25 years, 20.7 % are 26 - 30 years, 17.2 % are 31 - 35, 24.1 % are 36 - 40 years, 13.8 % are 41 - 45 years, 10.3 % are 46 - 50 years and 10.3 % are 51 years and above.

Table 2.1: Respondents by gender

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Male	10	34.5	34.5	34.5
Female	19	65.5	65.5	100.0
Total	29	100.0	100.0	

<u>Interpretation</u>

The above table results reveal gender dispersion of participated respondents in this project, the participated respondents in this project are 34.5 % males and 65.5 % are females.

4.5.3 Historical White Primary Schools

Table 3: Historical White School Respondents by age groups

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
21 - 25 yrs	4	13.3	13.3	13.3
26 - 30 yrs	1	3.3	3.3	16.7
31 - 35 yrs	2	6.7	6.7	23.3
36 - 40 yrs	5	16.7	16.7	40.0
41 - 45 yrs	4	13.3	13.3	53.3
46 - 50 yrs	9	30.0	30.0	83.3
Above 51 yrs	5	16.7	16.7	100.0
Total	30	100.0	100.0	

Interpretation

The above table reveals age group dispersion of participated respondents in this project, these are 13.3 % are 21 - 25 years, 3.3 % are 26 - 30 years, 6.7 % are 31 - 35, 16.7 % are 36 - 40 years, 13.3 % are 41 - 45 years, 30.0 % are 46 - 50 years and 16.7 % are 51 years and above.

Table 3.1: Respondents by gender

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Male	2	6.7	6.7	6.7
Female	28	93.3	93.3	100.0
Total	30	100.0	100.0	

Interpretation

The above table results reveal gender dispersion of participated respondents in this project, the participated respondents in this project are 6.7.0 % males and 93.3 % are females.

4.5.4 Special Schools

Table 4: Special School Respondents by age groups

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
21 - 25 yrs	3	6.0	6.0	6.0
26 - 30 yrs	3	6.0	6.0	12.0
31 - 35 yrs	6	12.0	12.0	24.0
36 - 40 yrs	7	14.0	14.0	38.0
41 - 45 yrs	10	20.0	20.0	58.0
46 - 50 yrs	9	18.0	18.0	76.0
Above 51 yrs	12	24.0	24.0	100.0
Total	50	100.0	100.0	

Interpretation

The above table reveals age group dispersion of participated respondents in this project, these are 6.0 % are 21 - 25 years, 6.0 % are 26 - 30 years, 12.0 % are 31 - 35, 14.0 % are 36 - 40 years, 20.0 % are 41 - 45 years, 18.0 % are 46 - 50 years and 24.0 % are 51 years and above.

4.1: Respondents by gender

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Male	6	12.0	12.0	12.0
Female	44	88.0	88.0	100.0
Total	50	100.0	100.0	

Interpretation

The above table results reveal gender dispersion of participated respondents in this project, the participated respondents in this project are 12.0 % males and 88.0 % are females.

4.6 Method of data collection

Some researchers (Bender, Vail & Scott, 1995, p. 89; Engelbrecht & Forlin, 1998, p. 5; Forlin, Douglas & Hattie, 1996, p. 126; Harvey, 1992, p. 37; Minke *et al.*, 1996, p. 158; Monahan *et al.*, 1996, p. 317 & Shechtman & Or, 1996, p. 141) have used Likert Scales to assess teachers' beliefs and attitudes towards inclusion or mainstreaming. For this study an instrument entitled, Attitudes Toward Mainstreaming Scale (ATMS) has been used. This scale was designed to assess teacher attitudes towards mainstreaming individuals with different disabilities (Green & Harvey, 1983, p. 1256). It consists of 18 Likert-type attitudinal statements to which respondents indicate whether they agree or

disagree with the statement using a six-point scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree (Harvey, 1992, p. 37).

ATMS is suitable for this study because as much as it was initially developed for use with teachers in the United States, cross-validation studies have been conducted with in-service teachers; pre-service teachers and education students in New-Zealand and United States. Both studies found that the level of standardization has adequate reliability and factorial validity which justifies its use in further studies of attitude towards inclusion (Berryman & Neal, 1980, p. 474 & Green & Harvey 1983, p. 1261).

In order to serve the purpose of this study some items on the ATMS have been contextualized so that they are meaningful within the South African context of inclusive education.

4.7 The research instrument and procedures for its administration

The research instrument was divided into three sections. Section A required the respondents to provide their biographical information, section B was the research statements or items starting from statements 1 to item 23 presented in a 5-point Likert format (strongly agree to strongly disagree). With the consideration of the limiting nature of the Likert Scale to allow respondents to express their own views section C was included as an open section where respondents were given a chance to provide more information if they wanted to.

After doing cluster sampling ATMS questionnaires were personally delivered to schools with a covering letter stating the purpose of the study and to consolidate a better understanding and cooperation verbal explanation was done in terms of the purpose, the structure of the questionnaire as well as the importance of providing honest opinions. Stressing that respondents need not write their names and the fact that the name of the school was optional helped in making, supposedly, respondents feel free to express their opinions. Further more an agreement was reached that the researcher would personally

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collect completed questionnaires and this approach resulted in more than 95% return of questionnaires.

4.8 Method of scoring

The respondents had to indicate by a cross (x) whether they strongly agree, agree, uncertain, disagree or strongly disagree with the statement. The scoring was ranging from 5, 4, 3, 2 and 1 accordingly. After scoring the responses, the analysis was done in the computer programme, Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). The level of significance for this study was chosen at 0.05 probability.

4.9 Analysis of items

The initial Attitudes Toward Mainstreaming Scale had 18 statements or items, but for the purpose of this study the statements were contextualized to make them relevant to the South African context of inclusive education. In the process of contextualization the scale ended up with 23 research items. The five more items are a result of the breakdown of the original item16 *i.e.* "Students with behaviour disorders who cannot readily control their own behaviour should be in regular classrooms". This item was broken down into 6 statements using simpler terms that are applicable within the classroom context. The resultant statements became statements 16; 17; 18; 19; 20; 21 and 22.

In testing the hypotheses, the factor loading of the statements by Green and Harvey (1983, p. 1257) was taken into consideration. The four factors were termed (a) Learning Capabilities, (b) General Mainstreaming (inclusion), (c) Traditional Limiting Disabilities, and (d) Behavioural Disabilities. In this study statements that form general mainstreaming factor were used to test hypothesis 1. These statements are statements 1; 2; 3; 4 and 23. In testing hypothesis 2, statements forming other factors were used because they all refer to different disabilities including those that inhibit academic success as well as those that do not inhibit academic success.

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4.10 Reliability of the instrument

To determine the reliability of the instrument Cronbach Alpha Test (Reliability Analysis) was used and the results are provided below.

Cronbach Alpha test (Reliability test)

Table 5: Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	185	100.0
	Excluded	0	.0
	Total	185	100.0

5.1: Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.908	23

Interpretation

Reliability analysis of the questionnaire continuous study variables reveals Cronbach's alpha value **0.908**, this is above 0.7, and it indicates this research instrument's continuous study variables have internal consistency reliability.

CHAPTER 5

DATA PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

5.1 Introduction

The descriptive statistics results presented in table 6 below reflect cumulative percentages of respondents' responses who have expressed either negative or positive attitudes towards each study statement. Table 7 presents analysis of variance (ANOVA) results, which were also used to test the hypotheses. Statements are presented as B1 to B23 with B signifying the section B of the research instrument.

5.2 Descriptive percentages statistics: Responses

Table 6: Attitudinal Direction: Negative/Positive

	Historical Black Primary Schools		Historical Coloured/Indian Primary Schools		Historical White Schools		Special Schools	
Statements	Positive	Negative	Positive	Negative	Positive	Negative	Positive	Negative
B1	80.3	14.5	65.5	20.7	36.6	46.7	48.0	42.0
B2	77.6	13.2	62.1	31.0	26.6	53.3	54.0	36.0
B3	47.3	31.6	41.3	41.4	30.0	66.7	30.0	66.0
B4	73.7	18.4	82.7	17.2	70.0	26.7	52.0	38.0
B5	67.1	13.2	86.2	6.9	80.0	20.0	58.0	30.0
B6	14.4	73.7	3.4	86.2	3.3	96.7	4.0	88.0
B7	63.2	19.7	75.9	20.7	60.0	33.3	58.0	34.0
B8	17.1	73.7	6.8	89.7	3.3	93.3	8.0	84.0
B9	35.6	53.9	37.9	55.2	23.3	53.3	44.0	48.0
B10	60.5	26.3	58.6	31.0	40.0	43.3	56.0	36.0
B11	18.4	65.8	6.8	93.1	10.0	90.0	4.0	88.0
B12	73.7	9.2	89.6	3.4	93.4	6.7	66.0	18.0
B13	42.1	42.1	44.8	48.3	40.0	46.7	32.0	46.0
B14	72.4	19.7	89.7	3.4	90.0	6.7	58.0	32.0
B15	89.5	6.6	96.6	00.0	100	00.0	88.0	2.0
B16	88.2	2.6	72.4	3.4	83.4	13.3	76.0	12.0
B17	69.7	18.4	62.1	24.1	36.7	43.3	58.0	18.0
B18	50.0	21.1	51.7	20.7	26.7	50.0	42.0	26.0
B19	77.6	6.6	58.6	10.3	36.7	40.0	58.0	12.0
B20	80.3	10.5	62.1	10.3	33.3	43.3	62.0	18.0
B21	85.5	6.6	55.2	20.7	40.0	53.3	62.0	20.0
B22	68.4	17.1	48.3	41.4	30.0	56.7	40.0	36.0
B23	77.7	18.4	62.1	13.8	10.0	56.7	32.0	44.0

<u>Interpretation</u>

There are more teachers from historical Black primary schools who have expressed positive attitudes towards statements 1; 2; 3 and 23 on mainstreaming, that is, 80.3 %; 77.6 %; 47.3 % and 77.7 % as compared to 65.5 %; 62.1 %; 41.3 % and 62.1 % from historical Coloured/Indian primary schools; 36.6 %; 26.6 %; 30 % and 10 % from historical White primary schools, and 48 %; 54 %; 30 % and 32 % from special schools.

Comparison of attitudes that teachers from White primary schools as a group expressed towards statements 1; 2; 3 and 23 on mainstreaming shows that the majority of them hold negative attitudes towards these statements. This is how their attitudes are distributed, 36.6 % has expressed positive attitudes towards statement 1 against 46.7 % that has expressed negative attitudes, 26.6 % has expressed positive attitudes towards statement 2 against 53.3 % that has expressed negative attitudes, 30 % has expressed positive attitudes towards statement 3 against 66.7 % that has expressed negative attitudes, and 10 % has expressed positive attitudes towards statement 23 against 56.7 % that has expressed negative attitudes.

The majority of teachers from historical White primary schools have also expressed negative attitudes towards statements 17 to 22 on behavioural problems. 36.7 % in statement 17 has expressed positive attitudes against 43.3 % that has expressed negative attitudes, 26.7 % in statement 18 has expressed positive attitudes against 50 % that has expressed negative attitudes, 36.7 % in statement 19 has expressed positive attitudes against 40 % that has expressed negative attitudes, 33.3 % in statement 20 has expressed positive attitudes against 43.3 % that has expressed negative attitudes, 40 % in statement 21 has expressed positive attitudes against 53.3 % that has expressed negative attitudes, and 30 % in statement 22 has expressed positive attitudes against 56.7 % that has expressed negative attitudes.

In all the selected groups of teachers, the majority of them has expressed negative attitudes towards statements 6 on being blind; 8 on being deaf; 9 on wheelchair confined

physical disability, and 11 on cerebral palsy. Towards statement six, 73.7 % of teachers from historical Black primary schools has expressed negative attitudes against 14.4 % that has expressed positive attitudes; in historical Coloured/Indian primary schools 86.2 % has expressed negative attitudes against 3.4 % that has expressed positive attitudes; in historical White primary schools 96.7 % has expressed negative attitudes against 3.3 % that has expressed positive attitudes and in special schools 88 % has expressed negative attitudes against 4 % that has expressed positive attitudes. Towards statement eight, 73.7 % of teachers from historical Black primary schools has expressed negative attitudes against 17.1 % that has expressed positive attitudes; in historical Coloured/Indian primary schools 89.7 % has expressed negative attitudes against 6.8 % that has expressed positive attitudes; in historical White primary schools 93.3 % has expressed negative attitudes against 3.3 % that has expressed positive attitudes and in special schools 84 % has expressed negative attitudes against 8 % that has expressed positive attitudes. Towards statement nine, 53.9 % of teachers from historical Black primary schools has expressed negative attitudes against 35.6 % that has expressed positive attitudes; in historical Coloured/Indian primary schools 55.2 % has expressed negative attitudes against 37.9 % that has expressed positive attitudes; in historical White primary schools 53.3 % has expressed negative attitudes against 23.3 % that has expressed positive attitudes and in special schools 48 % has expressed negative attitudes against 44 % that has expressed positive attitudes. Towards statement eleven, 65.8 % of teachers from historical Black primary schools has expressed negative attitudes against 18.4 % that has expressed positive attitudes; in historical Coloured/Indian primary schools 93.1 % has expressed negative attitudes against 6.8 % that has expressed positive attitudes; in historical White primary schools 90 % has expressed negative attitudes against 10 % that has expressed positive attitudes and in special schools 88 % has expressed negative attitudes against 4 % that has expressed positive attitudes.

5.3 Analysis of variance (ANOVA) test

Interpretation Rule: 1. If **p** value is less than or equals to **0.05 (p≤ 0.05)**, statistically there is significant difference between groups.

2. If **p** value is greater than **0.05 (p>0.05)**, statistically there is **NO** significant difference between groups.

Note: **p** indicates probability.

Table 7: Table is about summary results of ANOVA performed on response scores.

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	Sig.
B1	Between Groups	32.897	3	10.966	.000
	Within Groups	259.287	181	1.433	
	Total	292.184	184		
B2	Between Groups	33.472	3	11.157	.000
	Within Groups	258.744	181	1.430	
	Total	292.216	184		
B3	Between Groups	24.774	3	8.258	.002
	Within Groups	291.572	181	1.611	
	Total	316.346	184		
B4	Between Groups	15.098	3	5.033	.006
	Within Groups	213.118	181	1.177	
	Total	228.216	184		
B5	Between Groups	9.635	3	3.212	.027
	Within Groups	185.316	181	1.024	
	Total	194.951	184		
B6	Between Groups	5.720	3	1.907	.097
	Within Groups	161.166	181	.890	
	Total	166.886	184		

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	Sig.
B7	Between Groups	4.335	3	1.445	.338
	Within Groups	231.071	181	1.277	
	Total	235.405	184		
B8	Between Groups	9.483	3	3.161	.024
	Within Groups	178.322	181	.985	
	Total	187.805	184		
B9	Between Groups	1.351	3	.450	.859
	Within Groups	322.703	181	1.783	
	Total	324.054	184		
B10	Between Groups	5.622	3	1.874	.284
	Within Groups	265.762	181	1.468	
	Total	271.384	184		
B11	Between Groups	10.646	3	3.549	.018
	Within Groups	187.008	181	1.033	
	Total	197.654	184		
B12	Between Groups	7.636	3	2.545	.010
	Within Groups	118.116	181	.653	
	Total	125.751	184		

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	Sig.
B13	Between Groups	1.652	3	.551	.732
	Within Groups	232.002	181	1.282	
	Total	233.654	184		
B14	Between Groups	18.286	3	6.095	.001
	Within Groups	181.574	181	1.003	
	Total	199.859	184		
B15	Between Groups	1.121	3	.374	.422
	Within Groups	71.820	181	.397	
	Total	72.941	184		
B16	Between Groups	10.067	3	3.356	.001
	Within Groups	109.371	181	.604	
	Total	119.438	184		
B17	Between Groups	13.497	3	4.499	.004
	Within Groups	174.362	181	.963	
	Total	187.859	184		
B18	Between Groups	12.539	3	4.180	.006
	Within Groups	177.655	181	.982	
	Total	190.195	184		

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	Sig.
B19	Between Groups	22.400	3	7.467	.000
	Within Groups	141.005	181	.779	
	Total	163.405	184		
B20	Between Groups	22.412	3	7.471	.000
	Within Groups	135.675	181	.750	
	Total	158.086	184		
B21	Between Groups	31.513	3	10.504	.000
	Within Groups	154.509	181	.854	
	Total	186.022	184		
B22	Between Groups	28.554	3	9.518	.000
	Within Groups	198.506	181	1.097	
	Total	227.059	184		
B23	Between Groups	66.917	3	22.306	.000
	Within Groups	224.467	181	1.240	
	Total	291.384	184		

Reiteration of the hypothesis 1:

"There is a relationship between teacher's background and the nature of attitudes they hold towards inclusive education".

As stated in the analysis of items in chapter four, items suitable to test this hypothesis are 1, 2, 3, 4, and 23:

- The above ANOVA test results reveal that there is statistically significant difference in attitudes of historically different schools' respondents towards the study statements 1, 2, 3, 4, and 23 because these statement's p significance values are 0.000, 0.000, 0.002, 0.006, 0.000 and less than 0.05. This means teachers from different backgrounds have significant difference in their attitudes towards the above statements and there is huge difference in different teachers' opinions towards these study statements. Hypothesis number one that there is a relationship between teacher's background and attitudes they hold towards inclusive education has, therefore, been confirmed.

Reiteration of the hypothesis 2:

"Teachers as a group perceive different disabilities differently."

All items in the Attitudes Toward Mainstreaming Scale (ATMS), except items 1; 2; 3; 4; and 23, are suitable to test this hypothesis:

- The above ANOVA test results reveal that there is statistically significant difference in perceptions of teachers as a group towards the study statements 5; 8; 11; 12; 14; 16; 17; 18; 19; 20; 21 and 22 because these statements' significant p values are 0.027; 0.024; 0.018; 0.010; 0.001; 0.001; 0.004; 0.006; 0.000; 0.000; 0.000; 0.000; and less than 0.05. This means that teachers as a group have significant difference in their perceptions towards the above statements and there is huge difference in different teachers' perceptions towards these study statements. For the above study statements,

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therefore, hypothesis number two that teachers as a group perceive different disabilities differently has been confirmed.

- The above ANOVA test results, however, reveal that there is no statistically significant difference in perceptions of teachers as a group towards the study statements 6; 7; 9; 10; 13 and 15 because these statements' significant p values are 0.097; 0.338; 0.859; 0.284; 0.732; 0.422 and above 0.05. This means that teachers as a group have almost similar perceptions towards the above statements and there is no huge difference in teachers' perceptions towards these study statements. For the above study statements hypothesis number two that teachers as a group perceive different disabilities differently has not been confirmed. For the above study statements, therefore, the null hypothesis that teachers as a group have the same perceptions for different disabilities is upheld.

5.4 Discussion

The study was intended to provide answers to the questions on:

1. The nature of attitudes teachers from different backgrounds hold towards inclusive education.
2. How teachers as a group perceive different disabilities.

The following has been revealed with regard to the above research questions:

The nature of attitudes, according to descriptive statistics, that teachers from different backgrounds hold towards inclusive education differ hence the results show that teachers from historically Black and historically Coloured/Indian primary schools hold more positive attitudes towards inclusive education as compared to teachers from historical White primary schools and special schools. This is supported by analysis of variance results, which show that there is a statistical significant difference in the nature of attitudes that teachers from different backgrounds hold towards inclusive education.

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Hypothesis number one that there is a relationship between teachers' background and the nature of attitudes they hold towards inclusive education has, therefore, been confirmed.

In order to understand this relationship there are three possible accounts that could be considered.

The first account is the contextual framework of South African education system during apartheid era. Literature (Donald, 1993, p. 139; Levitz, 1996, pp. 7-8; & Muthukrishna & Schoeman, 2000, p. 316), for instance, shows that gross inequality of provision in general education has applied with severity in special education services with African children being the most affected group when compared to Coloured and Indian children who were also deprived. This was the time when education system according to Green (1991, pp. 85-87) served the needs of about one million white learners while at the other end of the spectrum of education provision, about six to seven million black school aged children were subjected to the conditions of insufficient school buildings, large classes, very limited resources. Involuntary mainstreaming rather than intentional was, therefore, the norm in black schools. Consequently, moderate to mildly handicapped (whether physically or mentally) were temporarily or permanently found in the regular classrooms because no other options were available. Owing to these conditions of historical inequality, some black teachers find themselves accustomed to involuntary mainstreaming or inclusion by default. White teachers in the same type of schools, on the other hand, have little confidence in their ability to cope with special needs and they have many fears and prejudice to overcome. Under such conditions of inequality, Darovill (Barnatt & Kabzems, 1992, pp. 142) contends that opposition to mainstreaming is stronger where special programmes have been available than where they have been not. In this context then, one may assume that the difference in attitude is associated with historical experiences of unequal provision of resources.

The second account that may provide some kind of explanation is the perceived self-efficacy. The reviewed literature in chapter three (D'alonzo et al., 1996, p. 305; Houck & Rogers, 1994, pp. 447-448, Monahan et al., 1996, p. 317) reveals that some teachers from general education have left education of students with special educational needs to

those who are trained to teach them because they believe that they are not trained to cope with additional special needs of children in the classroom. Consequently this creates doubts on adequacy as well as necessary background of general teachers' skills for making needed instructional adaptations for students with specific learning disabilities and to teach them. The special education teachers, on the other hand, perceive themselves as being better trained, more effective and using different methods than general education teachers. When this is put in the context of the study, some of the respondents may have perceived themselves as not competent to cope with mixed ability teaching, as reflected in one of the respondent's additional comments, "If inclusive education is to be implemented, more training and classroom assistance should be offered to educators."

The third account is the circumstantial inclusion that has left teachers with no choice but to accommodate children with learning disabilities. The reviewed studies (Barnatt & Kabzems, 1992, p. 144 & Minke *et al.*, 1996, pp. 178-180) reveal that it has been found that teachers who have more experience with disabilities as well as old more experienced teachers tend to have more favourable attitudes towards integration of students with learning disabilities into regular classroom. The assumption thus deduced from these findings is that working closely with disabilities demystifies the special education process. These studies further show that positive attitudes towards integration is related to resources, for instance, teachers who do not have appropriate resources tend to hold negative attitudes towards integration than their counterparts with such resources. To confirm this in the present study one of the respondents had this to say in the additional comments, "Many of these statements will be influence by the resources available e.g. classroom size, special facilities *etc.*"

Given the extent of the different age groups; different backgrounds and varied experience of the educators who participated in this study it suffices to contend that the statistical significant difference in attitudes that teachers from different backgrounds hold towards inclusive education is influenced, among other things, by direct contact with children who have special educational needs; their training as well as availability of appropriate resources. If this contention is true, equity in provision of appropriate resources; relevant

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training and exposure to learners with special educational needs should result in more similar positive attitudes towards inclusive education among teachers from different backgrounds.

Regarding perceptions of different disabilities this study has shown that there is statistically significant difference in perceptions of teachers as a group towards the study statements 5; 8; 11; 12; 14; 16; up to 22, thus hypothesis number two that teachers as a group perceive different disabilities differently has been confirmed for these study statements. There are two possible dimensions that could provide an explanation for this significance. The first version is the dimension of those who have no experience and those who have vast experience with disabilities may also be applicable on perception of different disabilities. Giangreco, Dennis, Cloninger, Edelman and Schattman (Davies & Green, 1998, p. 100) are of the opinion that general familiarity with disabilities is more likely to promote positive attitudes. The second version is the dimension of conceptual understanding of disabilities where the significant difference may be due to the background and experiential influence of conceptualization of special educational needs by different respondents towards the study statements in question. It is maintained, for instance, that if perceptions are based on narrow sources of conventional wisdom, where teachers are not well informed and knowledgeable about that learning difficulty the responses to some questions relating to that learning difficulty may be marked by diversity of opinions (Enon, 1997, p. 23).

For study items 6; 7; 9; 10; 13 and 15, however, there is no statistical significant difference in perceptions of teachers as a group, hence; hypothesis number two has not been confirmed for these study statements. Teachers' perceptions in the present study, therefore, do not differ on these statements. This suggests that there is a consensus in teachers' perceptions towards these study statements. This is in line with the studies reviewed (Davies & Green, 1998, p. 100; Farrel, 2000, p. 158 & Barnatt & Kabzems, 1992, p. 138) which show that the order of acceptability of children with special educational needs has been found to follow the pattern of physical impairment followed by sensory impairment (visual impairment, hearing impairment) and finally intellectual

impairment. Children with emotional and behavioural problems have been found to be the least accepted group.

5.5 Summary

Although the study has revealed positive perceptions towards most disabilities, the ANOVA results have made it possible to detect that teachers from different backgrounds do not have the same understanding of all these disabilities, that is, their perceptions are not at the same level. As a result there is a significant difference in their perceptions to some of these disabilities. It is also noted that teachers from historical White primary schools have negative perceptions towards behavioural problems and one of them in additional comments had this to say, "Learners who present with specific disabilities e.g. anger, hostile attitudes, defiant and non-compliant attitudes are a threat to other learners and constantly disrupt and spoil the harmonious environment required for fostering growth and security and education." These perceptions need to be interpreted as culmination of community values that most teachers from historical White primary schools have regarding behavoural deviation of students. As such, therefore, this is more likely to be a reflection of what is being accepted as the standard behaviour by teachers from historical White schools. Carrington (1999, pp. 261-262), for instance, contends that common values that exist in the local community may influence the acceptance of differences and implementation of inclusive practices. She further maintains that some communities may be less accepting of differences in society and this could influence how inclusive processes are implemented and accepted.

Despite the fact that in the reviewed studies no comparison of teachers from different backgrounds was found the results of this study concur with some of the assumptions and conclusions that have been put forward. For instance, teachers who have experienced inclusion by default, in this study, have shown positive attitudes towards inclusive education and indeed these findings are supported by the concept of demystification of special education (Barnatt & Kabzems, 1992 & Minke *et al.*, 1996). Teachers from historical White primary schools still have fears and prejudices to overcome and this is

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how one of them in additional comments expressed this, "Never have I felt such frustration as I have this year. If more 'problems' were added to the load I would resign. I used to love my job, now job satisfaction is judged by the number of disciplinary difficulties I face each day." This study has also revealed that some teachers have perceptions that inclusive education is going to compromise the standards and this was strongly expressed as "Let us not destroy education!" It is worth noting, however, that there are teachers, who are very positive about the success of inclusive education, stating this positive attitude one respondent said, "I support the inclusive education so that everybody can be aware that the learners with disabilities can learn and also that they have the right to learn. I hope this process of inclusion will be successful."

CHAPTER 6

RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

6.1 Introduction

This study was designed to investigate the nature of attitudes that teachers from different backgrounds hold towards inclusive education as well as how teachers from different backgrounds perceive different disabilities. The focus was on whether there is any significant difference in their attitudes towards inclusive education and whether there is any significant difference in the way they perceive different disabilities.

6.2 The aims of the study

The aims of the study were:

- To find out about the nature of attitudes teachers from different backgrounds hold towards inclusive education.
- To find out how teachers as a group perceive different disabilities.

6.3 Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were formulated:

- There is a relationship between teachers' background and the nature of attitudes they hold towards inclusive education.
- Teachers as a group perceive different disabilities differently.

6.4 Methodology

Chapter one consisted of motivation regarding this study, that is, attitudes of selected group of teachers towards inclusive education. Chapter two focused on exposition of attitude; attitude formation and attitude components as well as attitude measurement. Chapter three comprised of the previous work done on this study area, that is, literature review. Chapter four provided details of the method of study that was followed in this research. The instrument used was a Likert-type of scale, the Attitudes Toward Mainstreaming Scale (ATMS) that has been cross-validated and found to be reliable and valid for use in further studies on attitudes towards mainstreaming or inclusion. In order to render items meaningful within the context of South African inclusive education the researcher contextualized some items on the ATMS. Chapter five presented the analysis of data collected (results), and finally in chapter six a summary of the whole study and recommendations were made.

6.5 Findings

The following findings were revealed by this study:

There is a relationship between teachers' background and the nature of attitudes they hold towards inclusive education. This relationship could be explained as a culmination of apartheid education system under which teachers have served. Literature shows that resource provision during apartheid era was based on racial discrimination such that white schools received the best provision the government could afford. Even on special education white children received the best and other racial groups receiving least provision with black children being the majority yet the most affected group. The dearth of special schools, especially for black children, resulted in inclusion by default such that black teachers found themselves having big numbers of students in their classes including those who had special educational needs. White teachers on the other hand enjoyed comfort of small numbers, learners with special education needs being catered for in

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special settings relevant to their needs. It could be assumed, based on these circumstances, that black teachers developed accepting attitude towards these learners.

Based on these findings, however, it cannot be confirmed with certainty that teachers from historical Black and Coloured/Indian schools will be willing to accept learners with special educational needs in their classrooms. The operation of attitude components, for instance, has proved that the cognitive component (beliefs), affective component (feelings) and behavioural component (action tendency) are not always consistent. The results therefore, need to be interpreted with caution in the sense that they may be an expression of beliefs and feelings and not relate to action tendency.

These findings have further shown that the issue of training and resources is very crucial in terms of how teachers perceive the success of inclusive education and this concurs with the literature reviewed in chapter three as well as other literature referred to in chapter five under discussion. It was also noted that as much as teachers in historical White schools are generally perceive to have more resources they are not positively disposed towards inclusive education. The findings have also confirmed the results of other studies whereby the order of acceptance of the disabilities by teachers is physical impairment followed by sensory impairment (visual impairment, hearing impairment) and finally intellectual impairment. Children with emotional and behavioural problems are the least accepted group.

Teachers from historical White primary schools, in this study, are more apprehensive of behavioural problems than other racial groups.

6.6 Recommendations

The problem that is facing most of the developing countries is to copy expensive models of education from the first world countries that can hardly be implemented even if they can they are very expensive to sustain. The feasible system is that South of the Sahara countries need to pull their resources to meet their needs within the sustainable framework as the developing countries (Charema & Peresuh, 1996, p. 79). On the bases

of the findings of the study and the practical cost implications on the developing country like South Africa, the following recommendations were arrived at:

- Basic training of teachers to enable them to cope with differentiated education. This could be achieved by redesigning the curriculum of teacher training institutions so that when a teacher qualifies she has completed theory and practical part of the training in regular as well as in inclusive setting. She should demonstrate that she is able to cope with challenges of meeting the needs of learners with special educational needs within the inclusive setting. On top of the training there should be some well structured and coordinated ongoing trainings enabling teachers to keep abreast with new developments in education.

- The model of inclusive education followed in South Africa is that of three levels of support, that is, high-intensive educational support provided at special/resource schools; moderate support provided at full service school and law-intensive of support provided at regular school. Besides this core function special schools will provide support to full service schools and full service schools support a cluster of neighboring regular schools (White Paper 6, 2001, p. 15). In view of this model the challenge facing South African education system is the geographical dispersion of schools according to rural settlements. Given the nature of the location of the schools, therefore, itinerant teacher model where a teacher consultant will serve a cluster of schools is recommended. This model is the only realistic way, where learning disabled children are spread over a large rural area, to provide special needs education services and allow them to remain in the regular classroom. The itinerant teacher acts as a consultant to classroom teacher and serves as a tutor providing assessment and instruction for some children (Charema & Peresuh, 1996, p. 79).

- Appointments to critical positions related to inclusive education should be based on relevant experience and competence. This will eliminate the problem identified by Abosi (Charema & Peresuh, 1996, p. 81) who contends that in most countries

South of the Sahara those who have little understanding of special education are the policy and decision makers and they control its affairs.

- There is a great need for general education teacher participation in decision making regarding the implementation of inclusive education. Roubinek (Myles & Simpson, 1992, p. 305) cautions that successful change in education requires participation of general education classroom teachers in decision making. On the same token Kugelmass (2001, p. 50) asserts that teachers working in schools operating under hierarchical leadership frequently resist external imposed reforms, even when those reforms are consistent with their own values and beliefs. The willingness to accept exceptional students in general education settings may depend on whether teachers have input into integration decisions or whether they perceive inclusion to be imposed on them by external forces (Myles & Simpson, 1992, p. 305).

- There should be a strong shift from restorative to preventative model of service delivery which will be achieved by building a strong collaborative support relationship between special needs education teachers with parents from the preschool years through to young adulthood (Kristensen, 1997, p. 70 &Vitello, 1994, p. 67). Training reading or writing should be part of a total development of the child in the community and this could be achieved by advising parents on how they can raise, train and teach children with special educational needs at home and a dialogue about the child with special needs must take place among all persons who have influence on the child's total development i.e. on child's developmental potentials and the possibilities that should be provided (Kristensen, 1997, pp. 70-71).

- The other barrier to the success of inclusion is accessibility to schools. Physical disabled children in rural areas, for instance, have to traverse long distances where there is no transport. It is imperative that inclusion be contextualized within the service provision beyond the school environment. On this, the decisive steps should be taken either to provide boarding facilities in special schools and full

service schools or provide transport for disabled learners to access relevant institutions. This will also call for the Department of Transport to construct and maintain access roads so that they withstand any weather conditions.

6.7 Conclusion

In conclusion, Zigmond and Baker (1995, p. 250) contend that with commitment to change, with leadership at building level, with training, with preservation of extant special education resources, and with cooperation from parents, children, and teachers, full inclusion of students with learning disabilities can be brought about.

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ANNEXURE A:

PROVINCE OF KWAZULU-NATAL
ISIFUNDAZWE SAKWAZULU-NATALI
PROVINSIE KWAZULU-NATAL
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
UMNYANGO WEMFUNDO
DEPARTEMENT VAN ONDERWYS

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RESOURCE PLANNING

INHLOKOHHOVISI	HEAD OFFICE	PIETERMARITZBURG

Enquiries:		Reference:		Date:
Imibuzo:	M Francis	Inkomba:	0029/06	Usuku:
Navrae:		Verwysing:		Datum: 05/06/2006

Mr CZ Machi
Private Bag 860
Port Shepstone
4240

PERMISSION TO INTERVIEW LEARNERS AND EDUCATORS
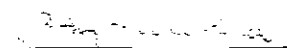
The above matters refer.

Permission is hereby granted to interview learners and educators in selected schools of the Province of KwaZulu-Natal subject to the following conditions:

1. **You make all the arrangements concerning your interviews.**
2. **Educators' programmes are not interrupted.**
3. **Interviews are not conducted during the time of writing examinations in schools.**
4. **Learners, educators and schools are not identifiable in any way from the results of the interviews.**
5. **Your interviews are limited only to targeted schools.**
6. **A brief summary of the interview content, findings and recommendations is provided to my office.**
7. **A copy of this letter is submitted to District Managers and principles of schools where the intended interviews are to be conducted.**

The KZN Department of education fully supports your commitment to research attitudes of selected groups of teachers towards inclusive education.

It is hoped that your will find the above in order.

Best Wishes

R Cassius Lubisi (Phd)
Superintendent-General

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ANNEXURE B:

The copy of the covering letter that accompanied Attitudes Toward
Mainstreaming Scale (ATMS).

THE SURVEY REGARDING ATTITUDES TOWARDS INCLUSIVE
EDUCATION (INCLUSION)

Kindly fill in the attached questionnaire on perceptions/attitudes towards inclusive
education (inclusion). Though this is a personal survey, it is hoped that the results may
help on decision making and service delivery.

The questionnaire has section A: Biographical information and section B: Attitude scale
toward inclusion. Attitude scale has twenty three (23) statements which are rated from
strongly agree to strongly disagree. Please indicate your choice by **X** in the appropriate
box. There is no right or wrong answer, the answer you choose only reflects your
feelings and beliefs about inclusion.

Your cooperation will be highly appreciated.

Thank you

_____

C.Z. Machi (DCES-PGSES)

ANNEXURE C:

ATMS used in this study.

SECTION A

BIOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

1. Age: 21-25yrs   26 – 30yrs   31 – 35yrs   36 – 40yrs   41 – 45yrs

☐   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐

46 – 50yrs   51yrs and above

☐   ☐

2. Gender: Male   Female

☐   ☐

3. Racial Group: white   Black   Indian   Coloured

☐   ☐   ☐   ☐

4. **Name of the school (optional)** _____

5. Historically: White school   Black School   Indian School   Coloured School

☐   ☐   ☐   ☐

6. Type of school: Special   Regular

☐   ☐

SECTION B

ATTITUDES TOWARD MAINSTREAMING SCALE
(CONTEXTUALISED VERSION)

STATEMENTS	Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
	1	2	3	4	5
1. In general, inclusive education (inclusion) is a desirable educational practice.					
2. Learners (all learners) should have the right to be in regular classrooms.					
3. It is feasible to teach gifted, normal and intellectually disabled learners in the same classroom.					
4. Learners who have mild intellectual disabilities should be in regular classrooms.					
5. Learners with visually impairments who can read standard printed material should be in regular classrooms.					
6. Blind learners who cannot read standard printed material should be in regular classrooms.					
7. Hearing impaired learners, but not deaf, should be in regular classrooms.					
8. Deaf learners should be in regular classrooms.					
9. Physically disabled learners confined to wheelchairs should be in regular classrooms.					
10. Physically disabled learners **not** confined to wheelchairs should be in regular classrooms.					
11. Learners with cerebral palsy who cannot control movement of one or more limbs should be in regular classrooms.					

STATEMENTS	Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
	1	2	3	4	5
12. Learners who stutter should be in regular classrooms.					
13. Learners with speech difficult to understand should be in regular classrooms.					
14. Learners with epilepsy should be in regular classrooms.					
15. Learners with diabetes should be in regular classrooms.					
16. Learners who are short tempered and easily angered should be in regular classrooms.					
17. Learners who provoke peers or authorities should be in regular classrooms					
18. Learners who are defiant and non-compliant should be in regular classrooms.					
19. Learners who have poor frustration tolerance should be in regular classrooms.					
20. Learners who are unwilling to compromise should be in regular classrooms.					
21. Learners who are angry or hostile should be in regular classrooms.					
22. Learners who present persistent discipline problems should be in regular classrooms.					
23. Inclusive education will be sufficiently successful to be retained as a required educational practice.					

SECTION C

ADDITIONAL COMMENTS IF ANY: _____

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