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**EXAMINING THE NATURE AND EXTENT TO WHICH LEARNERS WITH
SPECIAL EDUCATIONAL NEEDS ARE INCLUDED IN REGULAR SCHOOLS:
THE CASE OF FOUR PRIMARY SCHOOLS IN CAPE TOWN, SOUTH AFRICA**

by

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Supervisor

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DECLARATION

I hereby solemnly declare that, to the best of my knowledge and belief, this thesis entitled **Examining the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in regular schools: A case of four primary schools in Cape Town** represents my original work. It has not been submitted to any other institution of higher learning for the award of any degree or qualification. Where I have used information from the published or unpublished work of other scholars, I have acknowledged such sources in text as well as in the list of references.

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ABSTRACT

The study is premised on the assumptions that learners with special educational needs are not fully included in regular schools and that perceptions of teachers influence their behaviour toward and acceptance of learners with special educational needs in regular classes. In light of this, the aim of the current study was to examine the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in regular schools with the ultimate aim of assisting learners with special educational needs to be fully catered for by schools and teachers. The researcher opted for the mixed method approach which is embedded in the post positivist research paradigm. The mixed method approach makes use of quantitative and qualitative methods of data collection, presentation and analysis. Data were generated from a sample of 60 teachers and 4 principals from 4 regular primary schools mainly through questionnaires. Data were also generated from interviews, observation and documents. These data from interviews, observation and documents were used to buttress results from the questionnaires. The findings of this present study showed that many schools are now moving towards inclusivity. There is a relative prevalence of learners with disability in schools. The study also established that the inclusion of learners with special educational needs in regular schools was faced with a number of problems. There were inadequate professionally-trained teachers in schools. Shortage of classrooms, large class sizes, equipment and materials affected the quality of access to education for learners with special educational needs. Although there was significant support at school level, it emerged that there was inadequate quality in-service training programmes for teachers conducted by district officials. Overall, the findings of the study have confirmed the assumptions of the study. For learners with special educational needs to be fully included in regular schools, the study would recommend that the government improve the quality of teachers through in-service training programmes. Moreover, schools must be adequately resourced and government should commit itself to the alleviation of large class sizes. The study further revealed that, gaps still exist in the inclusion of learners with special educational needs between the intended and the actual practice. The study, therefore, recommends that research be conducted with the possibility of establishing strategies for the inclusion of learners with special educational needs in regular schools. This might improve the actual practice of including learners with

special educational needs in regular schools. In turn, learners with special educational needs can be said to have equal access to education.

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DEDICATION

This study is dedicated to my sons, *Brian T.* and *Bongani.* May this work inspire you to persevere in your quests to excel and to empower yourselves with knowledge even when circumstances challenge you

and to
the memory of
my late daughter, Sofie Shadaya

who inspired me to study in the field of Inclusive Education.

ACRONYMS

ACE	- Advanced Certificate in Education
CAPS	- Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement
CEMIS	- Central Education Management Information System
DBE	- Department of Basic Education
DBST	- District Based Support Team
DHET	- Department of Higher Education and Training
DoE	- Department of Education
ESSS	-Education Social Support Services
HoD	- Head of Department
IQMS	-Integrated Quality Management Systems
NCSE	- National Council of Special Education
OBE	- Outcomes-Based Education
SACE	- South African Council for Educators
SADoE	- South Africa Department of Education
SGB	- School Governing Board
SAPS	-South African Police Service
SBST	- School Based Support Team
SNE	- Special Needs Education
SIAS	- Screening, Identification, Assessment and Support
ZPD	-Zone of Proximal Development

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CHAPTER ONE

THE PROBLEM AND ITS SETTING

1.1 Introduction

This study examined the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in regular schools. It was important to undertake this study because, as reflected in the South African Schools Act 84 of 1996 Section 5(1), public schools must admit learners and serve their educational requirements without unfairly discriminating in any way. This study, therefore, sought to find out the nature and extent to which public or regular schools included and possibly serve the interests of learners with special educational needs as required by the South African Schools Act of 1996 (Section 5 (1)).

This first chapter presents the problem and its setting which includes the background of the study starting with the International scene from Europe and America, into Africa and the South African situation as this is where the study is premised; the Conventions/ Declarations guiding inclusive education and in South Africa and processes that are carried out, statement of the problem, research questions, purpose of the study, objectives, assumptions, significance of the study, delimitation of the study, defines key terms as used in the study and gives an outline of the organisation of chapters.

1.2 Background to the study

In most countries, persons with disability were viewed as outcasts. They did not command any respect and recognition in society. On the other hand, in Europe, people with disabilities were considered to pose a social threat contaminating an otherwise pure human species and were killed and / or used as objects of entertainment (Kisanji, 1999). In Africa, the attitude towards persons with disability insinuated the colonial governments' insensitivity to the plight of persons with

disability (Chitiyo & Wheeler, 2004). Kisanji (1999) points out that this led to the development of two separate systems of education within countries, namely, regular and special education. The Universal Declaration of Human Rights was adopted in 1945 by the League of Nations (Kisanji, 1999) and passed in 1948. Article 2 of the Declaration affirmed that everyone is entitled to all rights and freedoms set forth in the Declaration without distinction of any kind. Article 26 of the Declaration specifically proclaims the right of every citizen to an education which is free and compulsory at elementary stage with technical and professional education made generally available and higher education equally accessible to all on the basis of merit (Kisanji, 1999). As a result, there was a demand to change the education systems so that pupils with disability could experience full involvement within. Ajodhia-Andrews and Frankel (2010) postulate that inclusion respects and values the diversity of each child as well as acknowledging that each individual child is a contributor to society regardless of abilities.

Inclusive education cannot be viewed in isolation from education as a whole. According to Werthelmer (2007), the principle of inclusion raises fundamental questions about the nature and purpose of our education system and the part which schools play in the life of the community. Werthelmer (2007) argues that the school's role is solely to instil learning in children, but article 29 of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (UN, 1989) suggests a somewhat broader perspective. The United Nations Convention on the Rights (1989) of the Child suggests that education should be directed not only at developing the child's personality and talents and mental and physical abilities to their fullest potential, but also be fostering respect for the child's own cultural and national values and those of others (Werthelmer, 2007). Forlin (2013) posits that inclusive education has been influenced by principles such as human rights, promotion of social justice, the provision of quality education and the right to basic education for all.

As Hammarberg (2012) suggests, if Article 23 of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (UN, 1989) (the disabled child's right to achieve participation in the community and the fullest possible social integration) is combined with the type of education described in Article 29, it follows logically that there is an aim for an inclusive school where there is a place for everyone and education is such that the school atmosphere is one that welcomes everyone. Major initiatives towards

including learners with special educational needs in ordinary schools have been taken internationally in both policy and practice (UNESCO, 2009). The four main documents covering these developments, as pointed out by Werthelmer (2012) are given as follows:

- (i) The UNESCO Salamanca Statement and Framework for Action on Special Needs Education (1994). The Statement begins with a commitment to Education for All, recognising the necessity and urgency of providing education for all children, young people and adults within the regular education system. The Statement points out that those children with special educational needs must have access to regular schools. The Statement emphasises that regular schools with an inclusive orientation are the most effective means of combating discriminatory attitudes, creating welcoming communities, building an inclusive society and achieving education for all. Moreover, regular schools provide an effective education to the majority of children and improve the efficiency and ultimately the cost-effectiveness of the entire education system;
- (ii) The United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989). While Article 2 of the Convention states that all rights shall apply to all children without discrimination on any ground and specifically mentions disability, Article 3 states that in all actions the child's best interests shall be a primary consideration. Further, Article 6 states that every child has the inherent right to life, and each country should ensure the child's survival and development to the maximum extent possible. It is the researcher's feeling that the right to life and development to the maximum extent possible has a direct link to the provision of education especially in a regular school as this is the closest semblance to the child's home environment.

Article 12 states that the child has a right to express an opinion (among peers as in a regular school- the researcher's opinion) and to have that opinion taken into account, in any matter or procedure affecting the child. Article 23 states that the child with special educational needs has the right to enjoy a full and decent life, in conditions which ensure dignity, promote self-reliance and facilitate the child's active participation in the community. It also states that the

right of the child with special educational needs to special care, education, health care, training, rehabilitation, employment preparation and recreation opportunities shall be designed in a manner conducive to the child achieving the fullest possible social integration and individual development, including his or her cultural and spiritual development. In Article 28, it is stated that the child's rights to education shall be on the basis of equal opportunity while Article 29 states that a child's education should be directed at developing the child's personality and talents and mental and physical abilities to their fullest potential. Article 29 goes further to state that education shall prepare the child for an active and responsible as an adult, fostering respect for basic human rights and developing respect for the child's own cultural and national values and those of others;

- (iii) The 1990 World Conference on Education for All was held in Jomtien, Thailand and its goal was universal primary education with a major focus on providing educational opportunities designed to meet basic learning needs in a more flexible manner, responding to the needs, culture and circumstances of learners. Article 3, Clause 5 contained the only reference to children with disabilities. A global commitment to the achievement of Education for All, as a fundamental right for all children, was restated at the World Education Forum and the Dakar Framework for Action (2000); and
- (iv) The United Nations Standard Rules on the Equalisation of Opportunities for Persons with Disabilities (1993) contained in the declaration that countries should recognise the principle of equal primary, secondary and tertiary education opportunities for children, youth and adults with disabilities in integrated settings. They should ensure that the education of persons with disabilities is an integral part of the education system.

Children with and without special educational needs possess the same right to educational opportunities. These declarations resulted in children with special educational needs being given equal educational opportunities as those without. This made possible the learning of these children together in regular schools, a result of which was education systems worldwide having an objective to understand schooling processes in place in an endeavour to provide opportunities for success in

school for all learners. There was then a change in the provision of education from a segregated education system to an inclusive approach.

Globally, policy-makers have viewed inclusive education as a crucial tool for protecting the rights of all people and ensuring fair treatment in the area of education (Ajodhia-Andrews & Frankel, 2010). By protecting the rights of all people, policy-makers assumed that learners with special educational needs would develop and extend their potential, participating as equal members of the society (South Africa Department of Education- SA DoE, 2002). Considering the diverse needs and abilities of all students within a typical education setting means and requires a systemic educational reform which includes restructuring of the school system (Ajodhia-Andrews & Frankel, 2010).

The last decades have seen drastic changes in education systems (de Boer, Pilj & Minnaert, 2011). One such change is that of educating children with disabilities in regular schools. In many countries, legislation to support this movement was developed (Kisanji, 1999). In the United States of America (USA) for instance, the passing of the PL42-142: Education for All Handicapped Children Act in 1975 set the scene and basis for inclusive education (Kisanji, 1999). The Act emphasises on the least restrictive environment. In the United Kingdom (UK), the Warnock Report of 1978 abolished disability categories and introduced the term *special educational needs* (Kisanji, 1999).

In addition, Kisanji (1999) writes that the Warnock Report set the scene and basis for inclusive education in the UK. In 1990, in Thailand, the Jomtien Conference reauthorized PL42-142. The world community pledged to ensure the right to education for all regardless of individual differences (Kisanji, 1999). A proclamation was made in 1994 to this through the Salamanca Statement on Principles, Policy and Practice in Special Needs Education. All children with special educational needs would have access to regular schools.

The Education for All Handicapped Children's Act, PL42-142, gazetted by the United States Congress in 1975 was one of the most significant events in the move to inclusive education for African countries like Uganda (Charema, 2010). As a result of PL42-142, thousands of children previously not eligible for regular school education were enabled access to public school classrooms (Charema, 2010). According to

Charema (2010), in 1993, Lesotho launched its programme which saw all children with disability being included in the regular classroom. Chitiyo and Wheeler (2004) write that for Zimbabwe, until 1980, children with disability were exposed to conditions of insensitivity similar to those of the colonial government. Chitiyo and Wheeler (2004) further note that children with special needs received their education by means of charitable organisations and churches in either boarding schools or institutions which taught them practical skills. Upon gaining its independence in 1980, Zimbabwean children with disabilities were integrated in regular schools where the child would make adjustments to the requirements of the school.

Integration took the form of resource rooms, resource classes, special classes and integration units (Chitiyo & Wheeler, 2004). Later on, Chireshe (2011) notes inclusion-related policies such as the Education Act of 1996 which introduced free and compulsory education for all students regardless of any differences and the Zimbabwean Disabled Persons' Act of 1996 which addressed the rights of people with disabilities.

After the first democratic election in 1994, inclusive education became a possibility in South Africa. This was after the Bill of Rights of 1996 raised expectations in this regard. The South African Bill of Rights (1996) stipulates that all learners have a right to basic education, including adult education and further education (Frempong, Reddy & Kanjee, 2011). Similarly, The South African Schools Act 84 of 1996 puts forward that education is compulsory for learners from seven years until fifteen. It further stipulates that public schools are committing an offence if they exclude learners on the basis of background characteristics. In particular, Section 5 (1) of the Act states:

A public school must admit learners and serve their educational requirements without unfairly discriminating in any way.

It, thus, makes it mandatory for public schools to admit learners and ensure that no form of discrimination befalls these learners in any way.

However, research evidence indicates that the merging of special and general education into one single education system was not easy-going, especially in developing countries such as South Africa. Teachers needed to be professionally-developed and prepared for inclusion. In rural areas and remote places,

infrastructure is less developed and teachers work under difficult conditions due to a shortage of resources and lack of support (Charema, 2010). It must be noted that this can have a negative impact on the implementation of inclusive education when teachers develop negative perceptions and attitudes towards change. Charema (2010) argues that it has been revealed that where attitudes are positive, inclusion also is likely to succeed.

According to Meltz, Herman and Pillay (2014), this put South Africa in an awkward position where it was now faced with the challenge to change from an education system which was viewed as unsatisfactory and separating. Hence, in order to keep to the principles such as human rights and promoting social justice, classroom teaching practices such as using time efficiently, having good relationships with learners, providing them with support were to be taken to effect. Nevertheless, in some South African schools, children with special educational needs are required to adjust and fit the classroom (Ngcobo & Muthukrishna, 2011) rather than the teachers altering their teaching to accommodate learners with special educational needs.

Meltz et al. (2014) further point out that currently, some children are accommodated (included) while others are excluded from regular schools. A consequence of this is that inclusive practices are being inhibited. An analysis of primary schools in Cape Town identified two school contexts - on one continuum are advantaged schools (well resourced) and on the other are disadvantaged schools (under-resourced). Both types of schools are under the same Basic Education Department. On account of these challenges, it seemed obvious that the inclusion of learners with special educational needs in regular schools deserved more attention. Hence, this study examined the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in regular schools.

South Africa has begun a process designed to transform its education system from an exclusive education system to an inclusive education system as demonstrated by its adoption of the guiding principles of the Salamanca Statement (1994) as reflected in the constitution of the Republic of South Africa Act 108 of 1996. Act 108 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa of 1996, Section 29 (1) states:

Everyone has the right to basic education, including adult basic education and to further education, which the state through responsible measures must make progressively available and accessible.

Walton (2011) posits that it is this statement which is key to ensuring that the schooling system is inclusive in nature. The implementation of inclusive education started at primary school level, and twenty-one years into democracy, this study finds it necessary to examine the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in regular schools.

The South African Government has taken the initiative in terms of adopting the recommendation of the Salamanca Framework for Action (UNESCO, 1994) which called on the International Community to endorse the approach of inclusive schooling. The United Nations Convention on the Rights of People with Disabilities (1989) also made similar advocacy, resulting in 144 countries being signatories to the adoption of inclusive education. According to the Salamanca Framework, inclusive schools must recognize and respond to the diverse needs of their learners, accommodating all learners, regardless of any difficulties or learning differences. The introduction of the White Paper on Education and Training (1995); the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa in its Bill of Rights (1996); the South African Schools Act of 1996; the Report of the National Commission on Special Needs in Education and Training and the National Commission on Education Support Services of 1997 and later, the White Paper 6 Special Needs Education (2001) are good examples of the government's commitment to inclusive education.

Following the passing of The South African Bill of Rights (1996) and The South African Schools Act (1996) in October 1996, the then Ministry of Education appointed two commissions to look into issues pertaining to the provision of an inclusive education. The National Commission on Special Needs Education and Training (NCSNET) and the National Committee on Education Support Services (NCESS) jointly produced a report that recommended that the South African education system foster the development of inclusive and supportive centres of learning (Meltz et al., 2014). Consequently, in 2001, the Education White Paper 6: Building an Inclusive Education and Training System was published.

The Education White Paper 6 (2001) emphasises that all learners can learn and have an entitlement to support (SADoE, 2001). Further, the Education White Paper 6 (2001) clearly states that the learners are to be educated in the most appropriate, least restrictive environment, where barriers to their learning will be prevented. The White Paper 6 articulates strategies for developing new knowledge, a new paradigm, and new strategies in the movement towards inclusion. According to the Education White Paper 6 (2001), the emphasis for change is directed towards the education system and its environment (school) rather than remediation of special educational needs.

In this inclusive paradigm, the teacher is encouraged to focus on what an individual learner is able to do rather than what he or she is unable to achieve in a learner-centred environment (Pottas, 2005). Further, the philosophy behind the inclusive paradigm encompasses the belief that all learners have the right to learn together and that curricular activities including learning styles and pace, content of learning materials and methods of assessment are central to the success of inclusivity within education. The Education White Paper 6 (2001) further points out that the most important way of addressing barriers arising from the curriculum is to make sure the process of learning and teaching is flexible enough to accommodate different learning needs and styles. The curriculum must, therefore, be more flexible across all bands of education so that it is accessible to all learners irrespective of their learning needs.

Although new policies and curricula have been initiated, numerous questions arise about the extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in general education. One such question is: "Does the school personnel provide appropriate education for all learners enrolled in the ordinary school?" Presently, there is little information available on the extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in regular schools; particularly with regard to the White Paper 6's broad definition of current barriers to learning and development specifically an inflexible curriculum and assessment policies (Peel, 2004). This forms the basis for undertaking this study.

The White Paper 6 states that barriers to learning arise from within the various interlocking parts of the curriculum such as: the content of the learning programme,

the language and medium of instruction (teaching and learning), the management and organisation of classrooms, teaching style and pace, time frames for completion of curricula, the materials and equipment that are available, and assessment methods and techniques (SADoE, 2001). According to Makoelle (2009), following the adoption of inclusive education, there were curriculum changes and, most notably, Curriculum 2005 which underpinned Outcomes-Based Education (OBE). Makoelle further points out that it is this OBE that sought to bring an inclusive culture in the areas of teaching and learning. It is worth noting at this stage that these curriculum changes had an effect on the role of the teacher and education provision. In particular, curriculum changes significantly dictate how teachers in their new role would or would not practice the philosophy of inclusion (Makoelle, 2012). Thus, this would to a great extent influence the relationship between teachers and learners through determining the extent to which the notion of inclusion would be practised.

Following the release of White Paper 6, teachers have also raised a host of concerns informally towards inclusion of learners with special education needs in regular classrooms (Singh, 2004; Engelbrecht & Green, 2007). These concerns include inadequate teacher training, difficulties adapting to an individualized curriculum, lack of funding, lack of teacher aide support, lack of knowledge, lack of time, increased workloads and the severity of the disability (Singh, 2004; Engelbrecht & Green, 2007). This could imply that the needs of learners with special educational needs are not being adequately met in regular school classrooms.

A research study by Mokhele (2013) in the Mpumalanga Secondary Science Initiative in South Africa revealed that teachers' knowledge of subject matter is important. Further, while grappling with the implementation of OBE, teachers have been introduced to Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS). Inclusive education holds implicitly that education should take place within a system of formal and informal support (SADoE, 2001). Forlin et al., cited in Travers, Balfe, Butler, Day, DuPont, McDaid, O'Donnell and Prunty (2010) in analysing teacher concerns, raise issues such as insufficient pre-service training to cater adequately for a child with an intellectual disability in their classroom, difficulty monitoring other students when attending to the learner with special educational needs and reduced ability to teach other students as effectively as they would like when including a student with

intellectual disability in their class. Similarly, research study by Mafa (2012) on challenges of implementing inclusive education in Zimbabwe Education System revealed that the effective teaching of inclusive classes was influenced by a number of factors included, namely, teachers and teaching methods, school organisation, resource provision and in-service training.

There have been a lot of issues raised in the media regarding inclusion particularly of learners with special education needs (Evans, 2015). They include large class sizes, the same criteria for assessment for all children in the class regardless of their special needs, students from diverse cultural and linguistic backgrounds, developmental variations of students' skills, social problems, and what teachers label as unacceptable behaviour. Evans (2015) further reported high dropout rate among learners with special education needs. High drop out among learners with special education needs means exclusion from accessing education and violation of their rights (Gordan, 2012). There is, therefore, no denying that it is important to examine the extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in the regular school.

Alicia (2015) noted, in her column in the Sunday Times 17 May 2015, that among many learners who did not perform well in international assessment tests were those with special education needs. The newspaper provided examples of poor performance by South African learners in assessments done by Southern African Consortium for Monitoring Education Quality (SACMEQ) II in 2006 where South Africa was placed at the bottom in both reading and mathematics (Kristein, 2012; Singh, 2004). It also gave another example from International Mathematics and Science Study of 2006 and 2011 where South Africa scored the lowest of 45 participating countries in mathematics with 352 compared to an international mean of 467 (Human Sciences Research Council, 2012; Reddy, 2006).

It attributed such poor performance, particularly among learners with special education needs, to problems associated with poor resources, schools not being prepared, teachers' attitude and the way the curriculum is delivered (Kristein, 2012; Singh, 2004; Engelbrecht & Green, 2007). In South African township schools for example there are classes with 40 or more learners, including several learners with

special education needs and with no extra support for the teacher in the classroom (Candice, 2013).

The researcher, who also works as a teacher at a special school, has come across a number of teachers in the regular school who have informally expressed a lot of dissatisfaction and concern over having learners with special educational needs in their classrooms. These concerns evolve around issues of expertise to handle these learners, time, support from the employer and the large class sizes. Further, the implementation of the Inclusion policy does not take into consideration the state of readiness of the schools and staff. Yet, according to Gillard (2010), the state of readiness of any organisation or resource provision could limit the impact of any programme. Consequently, this could lead to the exclusion of learners with special educational needs in terms of quality education.

It is against this background that the present study examined the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in the regular school in Cape Town with the ultimate aim of finding out whether inclusive education is succeeding or not.

1.3 The organisation and administration of education in South Africa

1.3.1 Three (3) bands of education

South Africa's National Qualifications Framework (NQF) recognises three broad bands of education; namely, General Education and Training (GET), Further Education and Training (FET) and Higher Education and Training (HET) (Education Information Centre, 1996). Under the South Africa Schools Act of 1996, education is compulsory for all South Africans from age 7 (Grade 1) to age 15, or the completion of Grade 9.

General Education and Training also includes Adult Basic Education and Training (ABET) which is available to adults who want to finish their basic education. Further Education and Training takes place from grades 10 to 12, and also includes career orientation education and training offered in other FET institutions, namely, technical

colleges and private colleges. Diplomas and certificates are qualifications recognised at this level (SADoE, 2000).

1.3.2 Structures and responsibilities in the National Department of Education

The National Department of Education is split into two ministries, namely, Basic Education and Higher Education and Training (SADoE, 2000). Each ministry is responsible for its level of education across the country as a whole, while each of the nine provinces has its own department. The Ministry of Basic Education focuses on primary and secondary education, as well as early childhood development centres. The Ministry of Higher Education is responsible for tertiary education up to doctoral level, Technical and Vocational Training, as well as ABET. It also oversees public and private FET colleges which cater for out-of-school youths and adults. The split has also seen the Sector Education and Training Authorities (SETAs) move from the Department of Labour to Higher Education, aiming to foster a more cooperative approach to skills development.

The central government provides a national framework for school policy, but administrative responsibility lies with the provinces. Power is further devolved to grassroots level via elected school governing bodies, which have a significant say in the running of their schools. Private schools and higher education institutions have a fair amount of autonomy, but are expected to fall in line with certain government non-negotiables such as 'no child may be excluded from a school on grounds of race or religion' (Education Information Centre, 1996).

Umalusi Council, which is appointed by the Minister of Higher Education, sets and monitors standards for GET and FET, while the Council for Higher Education keeps an eye on Higher Education and Training, including accreditation and quality assurance (SADoE, 2000). Higher Education and Training or Tertiary Education includes education for undergraduate and postgraduate degrees, certificates and diplomas up to the level of the doctoral degree. Higher Education and Training is also offered at private institutions registered with the Department of Higher Education to confer specific degrees and diplomas.

The National Student Financial Aid Scheme (NSFAS) was established in 1999 to make Higher Education possible for financially-disadvantaged students through loans and concessions, such as not charging interest on student loans until 12 months after a student has graduated (Department of Higher Education, 2006a).

Worldwide countries are increasingly promoting the inclusion of children with special educational needs in regular classrooms (Werthelmer, 2007). Thus, children with disabilities should be educated with their peers to their fullest extent. Furthermore, support should be provided within the general classroom and in other environments (Nyoni, Marashe & Nyoni, 2011). Nonetheless, complaints and concerns have been raised by teachers and the media on the readiness of education to promote the inclusion of children with special educational needs in regular schools. There appears to be a gap between what policies expect and what is happening (practice) in the classrooms. Hence, this study examined the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in the regular schools in Cape Town, South Africa.

1.4 Statement of the research problem

In the South African context, inclusive education is described as a process of addressing the diverse needs of all learners by reducing barriers to, and within the learning environment (SADoE, 2001). Further, most issues relating to inclusive education are contained in the White Paper 6 of 2001. The Department of Education (2001) has made it clear that all schools have to ensure that all learners access education. In other words, all schools have to implement inclusive education and districts have to ensure that they provide adequate support (Engelbrecht & Green, 2007). This translates into ensuring regular education teachers are adequately prepared to receive learners with special educational needs in their classrooms.

Although inclusive education is underway, the current problem is that teachers have raised concerns informally regarding issues which might affect inclusion. These concerns include inadequate training, difficulties adapting to an individualised curriculum, lack of funding, lack of teacher aide support, lack of knowledge, lack of time, increased workloads and the severity of the disability (Singh, 2004;

Engelbretch & Green, 2007). The media too has raised concerns that many learners with special education needs are performing poorly. This is reflected in classrooms as well as in international assessment tests (David, 2013; Gordan, 2012; Human Sciences Research Council, 2012; Reddy, 2006). These sources attribute this to school environmental issues including teacher attitude and the way the curriculum is delivered (Gordan, 2012).

According to Makoelle (2012), changes in curriculum have a significant bearing on how teachers in their new role would or would not practice the philosophy of inclusion; this, to a great extent, influences the relationship between teachers and learners through determining the extent to which the notion of inclusion would be practised.

While effort exists, as indicated in the declarations stated in earlier sections that South Africa is moving towards full inclusion, there seems to be various stumbling blocks. The needs of learners with special educational needs do not seem to be adequately met in regular school classrooms. Given these concerns, it is not clear how and to what extent learners with special educational needs are included in regular schools. It is in this light that the study examined the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in regular schools.

1.5 Purpose of the study

The purpose of the study was to examine the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in regular schools in four primary schools in Cape Town with the ultimate aim of providing information on assisting learners with special educational needs to be fully catered for by schools and teachers.

1.6 Assumptions of the study

The researcher assumed that:

- learners with special educational needs are not fully included in regular schools.
- perceptions of teachers influence their behaviour toward and acceptance of learners with special educational needs in regular classes.

1.6 Research objectives

The main objective of this study was to examine the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in regular schools in Cape Town. Further, the study sought to:

1.8.1 examine the nature and extent to which the inclusive education concept and practice are embraced in regular schools.

1.8.2 assess the nature and extent to which educators who have learners with special educational needs in their classrooms possess requisite skills and training to address those needs.

1.8.3 find out what monitoring and support programmes are put in place to ensure learners with special educational needs are included in regular schools.

1.8.4 examine the challenges that are faced in the inclusion of learners with special educational needs in regular schools.

1.8.5 explore effective ways of including learners with special educational needs in regular schools in Cape Town, South Africa.

1.7 Research questions

1.7.1 Main research question

What is the nature and extent of inclusion of learners with special educational needs in regular schools?

1.7.2 Sub-research questions

1.7.2.1 How do schools include learners with special educational needs?

1.7.2.2 To what extent do educators who have learners with special educational needs possess requisite skills and training to address those needs?

1.7.2.3 How is the inclusion of learners with special educational needs supported and monitored in the four schools?

1.7.2.4 What challenges are faced with regard to the inclusion of learners with special educational needs in the regular schools?

1.7.2.5 What could be done to enhance Inclusive Education in regular schools?

1.8 Significance of the study

Examining the extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in regular schools is of great importance as a means of ensuring that there is an increase in the participation of students in, and reducing their exclusion from cultures, curricula, communities of local learning and addressing barriers to learning and development experienced by all learners. So far, the researcher has not found any information on the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in regular primary schools in South Africa.

The findings of this study might contribute to the existing world debate on the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in regular primary schools. Furthermore, this study might be of great benefit to the Department of Basic Education (DBE) as it might unravel the importance of teacher capacity, perceptions and the impact of the material resources in the inclusion process of learners with special educational needs in regular primary schools. The Ministry of Basic Education may also use the results of this study to re-enforce and strengthen the inclusion of learners with special educational needs in regular primary schools.

Curriculum Education Specialists may benefit as this study might provide knowledge and insight on how schools in different contexts include learners with special educational needs and also solutions on how the inclusion of learners with special

educational needs could be improved within regular primary schools. Learners may also benefit from the findings of this study as new and improved strategies for inclusion might be developed. This ensures equal access to education for all learners.

The findings of this study might provide vital reference material for other researchers who may want to carry out similar studies in the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in regular primary schools from a South African perspective.

1.9 Delimitations of the study

The study examined the extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in regular schools. The study was restricted to teachers and principals at four primary schools in Cape Town.

1.10 Definition of terms

1.10.1 Special Educational Needs: Nel, Nel and Hugo (2012) point out that special educational needs refers to the problem within the child whereby barriers to learning force us to see the learner as a human being first before recognising he/ she is experiencing a barrier/ barriers to learning. In the present study, the term was used as defined above.

1.10.2 Learner with special educational needs: The Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (2008) defines learners with special educational needs as not only those with physical, mental or neurological impairments, but also those experiencing learning difficulties as a result of socio-economic deprivation. The understanding here is that a child may have a disability, but that does not say he or she requires special educational provisions to be made for him or her. Frederickson and Cline (2002) describe a child who has special educational needs as one who has a learning difficulty which calls for special educational provision(s) to be made for him or her. In this study, a learner with special educational needs would be

described as one experiencing learning difficulties irrespective of cause and needing special educational provisions to be made for him or her.

1.10.3 Access to education: A learner is said to have “access to education” when conditions of learning and teaching in all learning institutions are such that all learners can be fully accommodated and can flourish and contribute effectively to the regeneration of society today, the economy and the country (Sisonke Consortium, 2006). The argument is that because learners possess unique individual characteristics, instruction should comprise differentiated teaching based on the learning characteristics of the learning population and the environment should be least restrictive. This is the definition that was used in the study.

1.10.4 Inclusion: It is the process of increasing the participation of students in, and reducing their exclusion from, cultures, curricula, communities of local centres for learning, and addressing barriers to learning and development experienced by all learners (SADoE, 2001). According to Bornman and Rose (2010), inclusion is increasing participation by the removal of barriers in order for children to reach their potential. Will (2006) defines inclusion as a process of addressing and responding to the diversity of needs of all learners through increasing participation in learning, cultures and communities and reducing exclusion within and from education.

From the above, it can be noted that inclusion is not about being in a class physically but also increasing their participation and removing any barriers that may be in the way of children’s learning and eventually achieving their full potential. This will enable them to flourish and contribute effectively to the regeneration of society. In the study, the term *inclusion* was used in line with Will’s definition which sees inclusion as a process of addressing and responding to the diversity of needs of all learners through increasing participation in learning, cultures and communities and reducing exclusion within and from education.

1.10.5 Regular school: This is a public elementary school providing instruction and education services that does not focus primarily on special education (Peel, 2004). In the study, regular school means public schools - be it former model ‘C’ schools or previously disadvantaged public schools, and in particular, the study is restricted to primary schools.

1.11 Organisation of the study/ Chapter outline

This study was organised into five chapters. Chapter 1 is the problem and its setting. It focused on the background to the study, the statement of the problem, purpose of the study, research questions, assumptions, rationale of the study, significance of the study and delimitations for the study. The chapter also defined terms as used in the study.

Chapter 2 reviews related literature. On this, it looked at the Conceptual and Theoretical Frameworks and finally examined empirical studies.

Chapter 3 presented the research methodology that was followed in conducting the study. Issues of research paradigm, research approach, research design, population, sample and sampling procedures, instrumentation, validity and reliability, data collection procedures, data analysis and ethical considerations were discussed.

Chapter 4 was on data presentation and analysis/ discussion.

Chapter 5 gave a summary of the study, drew conclusions from the study and made recommendations.

1.12 Chapter summary

This chapter gave the background that led to the pursuit of the study. This included the concerns and complaints raised by stakeholders on the nature of inclusive education in South Africa and the inclusion of learners with special educational needs in regular schools. The statement of the problem, purpose of the study, research questions, research objectives guiding the study, assumptions, significance of the study and the delimitations for the study in addition to defining the key terms as used in the study were presented. The next chapter reviews literature.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1 Introduction

A review of literature in a study is important because it gives an insight into what “is” and what other people say “is” (de Boer, Jan Pijl & Minnaert, 2011). In this study, a review of literature assisted the researcher to understand the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in the regular school in Cape Town, South Africa. In addition, the researcher gained some understanding regarding what teachers say inclusion is and how learners with special educational needs are included in the regular school. Likewise, the researcher unearthed what other writers have written on the nature and extent of inclusion for learners with special educational needs in other countries.

This chapter is divided into three parts. The first part presents the conceptual framework while the second part looks at the theoretical framework that guided this study. The third part looks at empirical studies locally and internationally.

2.2 Conceptual framework

2.2.1 The Concept of Inclusive Education

In South Africa, inclusive education has developed as a post-apartheid strategy (Landsberg, 2008). Its aim was to give all learners the chance to participate in education so that eventually, they (learners) can become contributing members of society. Following the passing of NCSNET/NCESS report (1997) and the White Paper 6 (2001), an inclusive education system aims at promoting the inclusion of persons with disabilities (or special needs) in the classrooms, workplace, social environment, political sphere and sports arena. In addition, inclusive education aims

at acknowledging that special needs is often arising from factors outside of the person. As such, learners with disabilities should, therefore, be referred to as having special educational needs (Landsberg, 2008).

It is worth noting that, it is one thing to understand what inclusive education is and another to understand what practicing inclusive education entails. According to Engelbrecht, Green, Naicker and Engelbrecht (2003), with the existing paradigms of education, it will not be easy to implement inclusive education. Engelbrecht et al. (2003) add that teachers have the responsibility to create conditions necessary for inclusive education. Landsberg (2008) points out that many problems faced by South African teachers emanate from the fact that not all learners experience the same barriers to learning, and to this, learners have different learning styles that have to be catered for.

As learner diversity differs from culture to culture and background to background, the teacher needs to consider each learner's experience in his/her endeavour to include the learner with special educational needs in the regular classroom (Hays, 2011). In other words, the teacher needs to be skilled in multiple methods of teaching and also have knowledge of different learning styles for his/her learners in the classroom as some learners have had traumatic experiences in life which now explain the individual learner's behaviour within the classroom and his/her peers. Some learners have been witnesses to, or victims of a crime and/or a traumatic experience while others are victims of their own cognitive learning styles. In this regard, successful inclusion of a learner with special educational needs will depend on the teacher's ability to employ different teaching techniques as well as managing diversity in his/her classroom. All this highlights to the importance of the teacher in the inclusion process.

Murphy (2006) posits that it is the teacher's knowledge, beliefs and values that help create an effective learning environment for learners. In addition to knowledge, beliefs and values are the teacher's perceptions that will determine his/her ability to manage diversity in classrooms. The assumption is that should the teacher perceive his/her knowledge and/or training to be inadequate, this belief will affect the nature and extent to which they include learners with special educational needs in their classrooms. This points to the fact that the teacher's experiences and perceptions

may become the determining factors of the acceptance of a child with special educational needs in the classroom. According to Romi and Leyser (2006), the teacher's level of training, years of experience and his/her individual culture have been found to have an impact on their self-efficacy beliefs.

Looser (2007) maintains that human background and experience have a strong influence on what is observed in reality, and as such, bias is unavoidable. As knowledge is formed by an interaction of one's previous knowledge and experience, it becomes difficult to ignore teacher perceptions as an important factor in inclusive education. In order for learners with special educational needs to be successfully included in the regular school, teachers must first perceive they have the knowledge and skill (Landsberg, 2008). In the absence of a positive perception, no matter how well resourced a school can be, learners with special educational needs will still face exclusion in the classrooms (Landsberg, 2008).

Resources and knowledge are often mentioned alongside (Brownlee & Carrington, 2000). Engelbrecht et al. (2003) point out that resources can come in forms such as funding, human-based and community-based. Funding is a necessary resource where adaptations need to be made, buying of teaching equipment as well as the training of the school personnel while human-based resources may relate to skilled staff, therapists and other personnel involved with children in education such as the police and social workers. Some resources stretch across contexts and have an impact on the school such as parents and non-governmental organisations, and this relates to community-based resources.

Nickerson and Brosf (2003) commented that for successful inclusion to be realised, focus should not only be on resources and perceptions of teachers but also on the collaboration between the various professionals. These professionals include teachers, therapists, management at schools and the policy-makers. Nickerson and Brosf (2003) add that within any collaborative approach, teachers need to share their perceptions and experiences. In this way, policy is holistically informed thereby enabling teachers to provide education that meets the needs of the diverse learners in the classrooms. One of the assumptions underpinning this study is that perceptions of teachers may influence their behaviour toward and acceptance of learners with special educational needs in regular classes.

2.2.2 What is the understanding of inclusion?

The term *inclusion* has been found not to be constant (de Boer et al., 2011). As a result, readers are confused because factors such as time (decade), countries and practitioners have a way of describing inclusion. Booth (2005), cited in Polat (2011), describes inclusion as a philosophy and this philosophy is based on values aiming to maximise the participation of all in society and education by making less of exclusionary and discriminatory practises. According to de Boer et al. (2011), inclusion is when the education system ensures the learning environment is modified to enable children with disability to access education in regular schools.

Idol (2006) describes inclusion as when learners with special educational needs spend their entire day in general education classes. This is unlike mainstreaming where learners either spend part of their day in special classes or with general education learners (Idol, 2006). Often, the terms *inclusion* and *mainstreaming* are confused, and Booth and Ainscow (1998) say this is because no significant time has been spent by writers on defining these concepts which are important in inclusive education. Booth and Ainscow (1998) argue that it is the way in which these terms are defined which impacts significantly on the way in which special educational needs are perceived. This has a tendency to affect even the way in which the intervention, in respect of the difficulties, is conceptualised and how teachers and policy-makers respond to learner diversity. Booth and Ainscow (1998) maintain that national and local circumstances have an influence on inclusion.

According to Mitchell (2008), within inclusive education, a whole suite of provisions is put in place, including adapting the curriculum, adapting teaching methods, modifying assessment techniques and accessibility arrangements. However, all these adaptations and modifications require that the teacher be supported at classroom level. Florian (2008) notes that inclusive education is generally understood as pivoted around, and as part of a human rights agenda. Thus, the child with special educational needs has a right to education (access) as well as rights in education (equity). The 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights affirms education as a human right. As stated in Article 2 of the Convention on the Rights of a Child (UN, 1989), it is equally important for the child not to be discriminated against. Logically looking at this, it is the right of all children not to be discriminated

against when and in receiving education. In essence, inclusive education is partly the solution in fulfilling access to and equity in education.

Muthukrishna (2001) asserts that inclusion is about access of all people, that is, who is out and who is in, and which learner is valued or neglected in the mainstream. Within an educational setting, the educational focus is on how best to accommodate the needs of the individual learners within a classroom setting rather than forcing the individual to conform to the educational environment which may be highly unsuitable to their particular needs. Clearly, the Salamanca Statement states that:-

Regular schools with an inclusive orientation are the most effective means of combating discrimination, creating welcoming communities, building an inclusive society and achieving education for all (UNESCO, 1994:5).

According to the DoE (2001), the emphasis for change is directed towards the system and its environment rather than the learner, and to accommodation rather than remediation of special needs. Thus, within an inclusive paradigm, the educator is encouraged to focus on what an individual learner is able to do rather than what he/she is unable to achieve in a learner-centred environment. Further, an inclusive education philosophy encompasses the belief that all learners have a right to learn and they can learn. Curricular activities including learning styles and pace, content of learning materials, methods of assessment are central to the success of inclusivity within education (SADoE, 2001).

According to Forlin (2013), in India, the nature of inclusion is that of caring and charity. Although learners with special educational needs are included in regular schools, they are provided with little opportunity to participate in curriculum and/or culture of the schools (Forlin, 2013). It is the researcher's view that there is a desire to promote the welfare of learners with special educational needs expressed through integrating them in the regular schools. Polat (2011) posits that inclusion is not limited to the inclusion of all young and old who have disabilities. Rather, it includes aspects such as race, gender, ethnicity, disability, sex orientation, language, socio-economic status and other aspects making an individual's identity to be perceived as different. The Salamanca Statement asserts that:-

Schools should accommodate all children regardless of their physical, intellectual, social, emotional, linguistic or other conditions. This should

include persons with disability and those without, the gifted, street kids and working children among other marginalised groups (UNESCO, 1994:4).

In the South African context, an inclusive education and training system is one that:

- recognises and respects the difference among all learners and builds on their similarities;
- supports all learners, teachers and the system as a whole so that all learning needs can be met. This means developing ways of teaching that help teachers to meet the different learning needs of all learners; and
- focuses on overcoming and getting rid of the barriers in the system that prevent learners from succeeding (DoE, 2002).

In the view of Nyoni, Marashe and Nyoni (2011), inclusion means that all children (with and without disability) are taught subjects generally in the same manner. Further, children with disability socially interact with many different people. This makes them to be better prepared to take their place in society when they complete school (Nyoni et al., 2011). Article 6 of the Salamanca Statement (1994) describes inclusive education as encompassing inclusion and participation, and there is enjoyment while human rights are also exercised. Thus, inclusive education is essential to human dignity.

From the above views, it can be noted that inclusive education is important for human dignity. It encompasses the right to learn for all and issues of participation and accommodation. Of importance in inclusive education is that regular schools should be made to be welcoming for all learners without considering the difficulties the learners might have. Where and when necessary, support should be provided to get rid of any barriers to learning in the system. For the purpose of this study, the term *inclusion* refers to a process of addressing and responding to the diversity of needs of all learners through increasing participation in learning, cultures and communities and reducing exclusion within and from education. Mushoriwa (2001) notes with concern, however, that many countries rush to introduce inclusive education without first making extensive research on the programme's practicability in the respective countries. The inability to make such extensive research might have an effect one way or the other on the nature and extent to which learners with

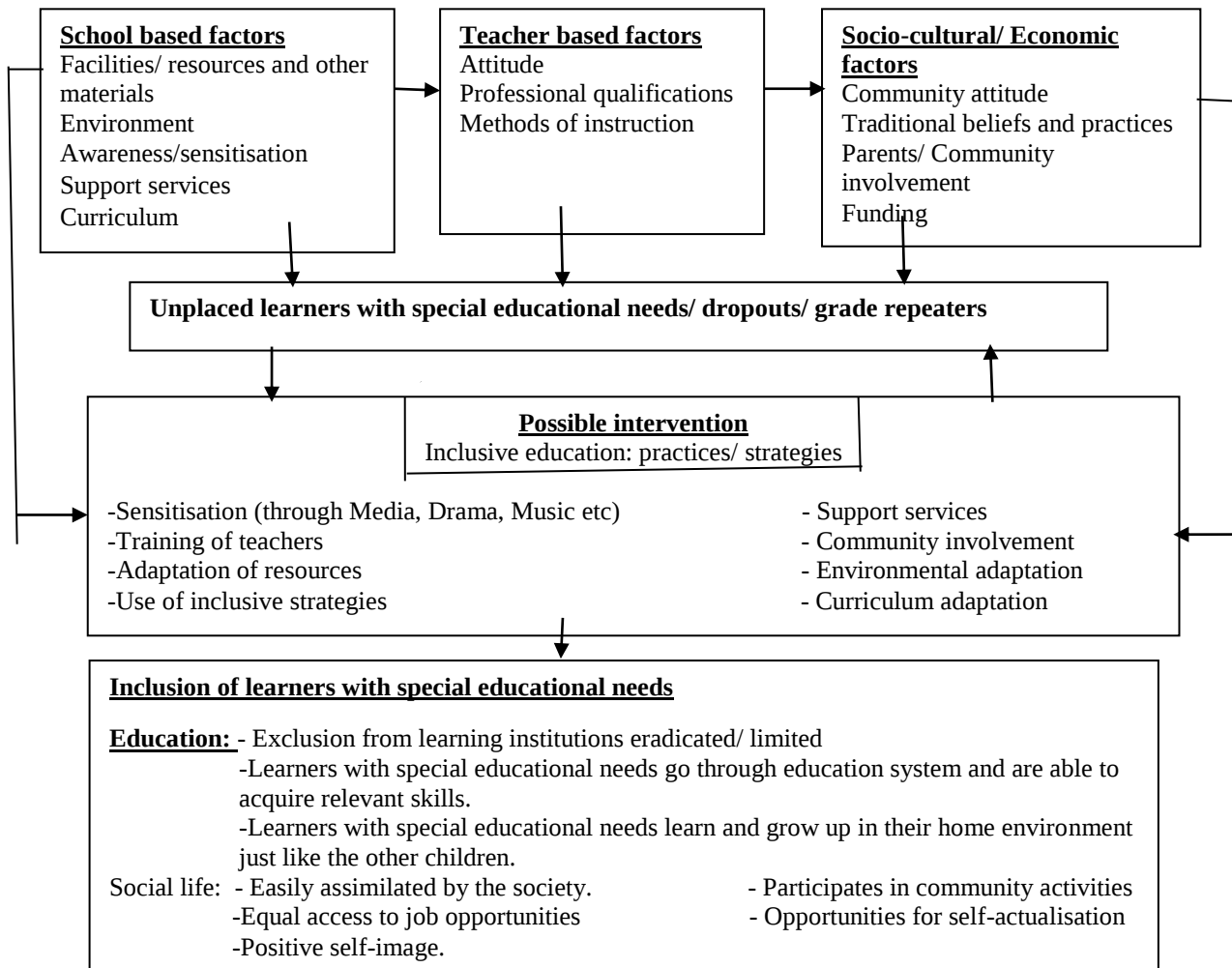
special educational needs are included in regular schools. Hence, this study is undertaken to examine the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in regular schools.

2.2.3 Why study Inclusive Education?

Prior to 1975, placement in school for learners with disability was excluding. Obiakor and Algozzine (2010) point out that in as much as children with disability were going to school, it was known as mainstreaming. In the 1970's and 1980's, this form of placement for many children with disabilities was by choice. It was only after teachers, parents and other professionals observed that students with severe disabilities were still being excluded and segregated that mainstreaming became inclusion. Tassoni (2003) asserts that the concept of inclusion was as a result of a change of mind-set. Parents and other people with disabilities put pressure on their respective governments to review and change the education system so that it would allow all children to have fair and equal access to education. Tassoni (2003) further points out that this campaign was not just restricted to children with disabilities but included also children who had been traditionally discriminated against such as those coming from travelling families.

The researcher has adopted Mutisya (2010)'s conceptual framework to show the relationship between factors such as the school, teacher and socio-cultural and inclusion for learners with special educational needs (Figure 1). The researcher assumed that it is important to look closely at and understand these factors as they could shed more light on the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in regular schools. Besides, the study adopts a mixed method approach to understanding the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in regular schools, thus making the examination of these factors of relevance to the nature of the study.

Figure 2-1: Factors associated with Inclusion



Source: Mutisya (2010) from Rieser's Social Model of Disability

Figure 1 shows a situation portraying learners with special educational needs as unplaced in regular schools as a result of factors such as school, teachers, socio-cultural and/ or economic. It is also from an interaction with these factors that the researcher sought to find the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in regular schools. In the event that these factors are found to contribute to the exclusion of learners with special educational needs, the model poses possible intervention measures which can be taken and in turn help eliminate the barriers to learning. The ultimate focus is a strive for equal opportunities for learners with special educational needs which will result in self-actualisation and self-reliance like any other child without special educational needs.

2.2.4 Rationale for including learners with special educational needs in the regular school

Inclusion, as a policy, is generally understood to be pivoted on issues of human rights and demanding access to and equity in education (Florian, 2008). In other words, it is inclusive education which enables access to and equity in education (Florian, 2008). This implies that even if learners are enrolled in regular schools, it will not lessen the need to look at and examine the welfare of these learners. Therefore, like all learners without special educational needs, schools must continue ensuring human values are recognised for learners with special educational needs.

Worldwide, the consensus is that children have a right to be educated together (Mutisya, 2010). Regular schools have been put in the limelight to facilitate this process (Charema, 2010). This is based on the recognition of the fact that children with special educational needs have difficulties in obtaining a good social position in regular education as they are less accepted by their peers. This explains why in some countries such as India, Italy and Norway, the number of children with special educational needs attending school in special schools is decreasing annually, and an increase is noted in regular schools with inclusive classes (Mutisya, 2010). In Kenya for instance, Mutisya (2010) reports that despite the government's order to have learners with special educational needs enrolled in regular schools, many of these children are still waiting to be placed. They are on waiting lists for placement in regular schools.

Johnstone (2010) points out that educational services are inclusive when they are reflective of the needs of all students entering school, from those achieving most highly to the most challenged educationally. Hence, South Africa, in a bid to address the issues of excluding, has enacted legislation as well as formulating policy which strives to establish an education system which is inclusive (Walton et al., 2009). It is the researcher's contention that the journey from an excluding education system to one that includes is facilitated, quickened and made less stressful by examining the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in the schools. This study, however, is restricted to four regular primary schools in Cape Town, as mentioned in the previous chapter.

Research on inclusion and inclusive education has consistently stressed the need to provide opportunities for children with special educational needs to improve and be able to participate as fully as members of their communities and the country. Mitchell (2008) notes that there are advantages to including learners with special educational needs in regular schools, and if the inclusion is properly handled, firstly, learners with special educational needs will gain academically, socially and develop a positive self-concept. Secondly, they get to learn alongside their peers who do not have special education needs and it is also economically viable. This is to say, there will not be expenses to transport learners to special schools, and parents or the state will not be paying to accommodate learners in special schools, especially where these are boarding schools - as most are.

In some cases, for instance, in Denmark, they still practise a dual system of education despite the fact that Denmark was one of the pioneer countries of inclusive education (Rustermier, 2002). There are special classes within the regular school setting. Such education provision may lead to discrimination and the labelling of learners with special educational needs. This situation makes the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs are included more and more important. Hence, there is this need to examine the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in the regular school by the researcher.

Mand (2007) cited in de Boer et al. (2014) says that there is evidence that pupils with special educational needs are not popular in both regular and special schools. Ngcobo and Muthukrishna (2011) cited in Forlin (2013) also raised concerns about homogenising children with special educational needs. Children with special educational needs are allocated the same expectations and behaviour (Ngcobo & Muthukrishna, 2011). Singal (2008) reports that in India, there are few opportunities for children with special educational needs to participate in the curriculum or culture of the schools.

In line with the above cases stressing the need to provide opportunities for children with special educational needs, in the developing island of Tobago, there were significant predictors for progress (Forlin, 2013). Findings of the investigation were that parental involvement and support, student engagement and support for and

difficult school work were found to significantly affect academic achievement for children with special educational needs (Forlin, 2013). Many of the predictors cited in this paragraph and earlier are likely to be present in other countries, prompting a basis for greater research on the nature and extent of inclusion to which learners with special educational needs in the regular schools in Cape Town, South Africa.

According to Obiakor and Algozzine (2010), prior to 1975, treatment was not fair for children with special educational needs and in particular, those with disability. Many of these children spent their lives in institutions. Further, going to the same school with neighbours and friends was a dream, as they were not permitted to do so. Such treatment warrants an examination of the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in regular schools, Cape Town schools included. Recognition is that first and foremost, these children are human beings and deserve to be treated like all other people without disabilities.

In South Africa, the government is clearly aware that merely going to the same school with neighbours and friends alone does not guarantee access and equity in education. To this effect, the government has put in place policies and structures for including children with special educational needs in regular schools. Section 5(1) of the South African Schools Act of 1996 compels public schools to admit learners and ensure that these learners are not unfairly discriminated against (Frempong, Reddy & Kanjee, 2011). Further, as of 2007, investment in education had almost tripled from 6.6% in 1994 to 17.7%.

Unfortunately, research has shown that both policies and structures have failed to achieve their intended purposes of redressing past injustices and providing opportunities for all children to succeed in schools. The resultant effect might be continued poor classroom practices that do not translate into gains in learning outcomes for learners with special educational needs. The introduction of inclusive education in schools came with confusion among teachers. Many teachers thought that maybe only teachers with a special qualification should teach these learners while others did not understand that some learning difficulties were as a result of methods of teaching, the way curriculum was adapted, the school system or problems at home or in the children's communities (DoE, 2002). To some, it was an extra burden as they did not understand inclusive education was an important part of

Outcomes-Based Education (OBE). This situation implies that the training institutions and education structures may have failed to achieve their intended purposes of transforming teachers' knowledge, beliefs and attitudes. Hence, examining the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in regular schools ought to be an issue of central concern to all who care about access to and equity in education for learners with special educational needs in regular schools.

Basson (2011) captured in Meltz, Herman and Pillay (2014), found that there were different degrees of inclusion practised in the same school. The author's argument is based on the times teachers received their training. Thus, teachers who are old in the service were trained during the era when learner difference instituted provision of education in a separate school, whereas those who are newly qualified have had within their curriculum inclusive education and have a greater knowledge of management of difference and diversity. Again, the two separate systems of education prior to 1994 are brought to the picture. Similar concerns were noted by Ngcobo and Muthukrishna (2011) about children being required to adjust and fit the classroom rather than the teacher adapting his/ her teaching methodology and content to accommodate the disadvantaged group.

On account of these results, it seemed obvious to the researcher in this study that the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in the regular school deserves more attention when implementing inclusive education. Further, the researcher has, in this study, been motivated to look at the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in the regular school with a view to bringing them to light and finding better and more effective ways of including them in regular schools.

2.2.5 Purpose of including learners with special educational needs in the regular school

Traditionally, children with special educational needs have found themselves receiving education in environments separate from mainstream school (Wang, 2009). Such environments would be specially designed to take into cognisance the child's incapacities. Inclusion of children with special educational needs in the

regular school should aim at changing the way children experiencing difficulties and learners with disabilities are educated. At the same time, the end result of this change should assist learners with special educational needs improve in their academic achievement, social skills and personal development (Wang, 2009). Further, it involves reorganising ordinary schools such that they can accommodate every student regardless of disability.

Wang (2009) stresses that the most significant and immediate outcome for including learners with special educational needs in regular school is a positive impact on the student's acquisition of basic abilities, as well as confidence in teachers' ability to deal and support their individual children's needs. Contained within is giving a balanced and broad coverage of curriculum experiences that cater for all children, promoting a secure and orderly teaching and learning environment with evaluation and monitoring of each individual student's learning progress. Unfortunately, most regular schools fail to achieve this purpose, and regular schools in Cape Town are no exception.

In a research on inclusion of children with special educational needs in regular schools in Trinidad and Tobago by Johnstone (2010), it was revealed that regular schools admit learners with special educational needs because they want to cut on the need for multiple levels of governance, and inclusive education is seen as among the most promising and readily available paths to achieving this. Sakarneh and Nair (2014) also report that it is believed including learners with special educational needs has advantages in terms of social relationships and confidence through reducing labelling or stigma, contributing to their growth and enhancing the way society views special educational needs learners. In the Salamanca Statement (1994), "Regular schools with an inclusive orientation are the most effective means of combating discriminatory attitudes, creating welcoming communities, building an inclusive society and achieving education for all"(UNESCO, 1994:5).

2.3 Theoretical Framework

In South Africa, inclusive education has been influenced mainly by international and national trends. Major shifts in the attitudes and paradigms of people working with

disability have occurred over the years. Specifically, the one major shift has been noted where people have moved from an approach disregarding the rights of the individual to one centred on the rights of an individual (Engelbrecht et al., 2003).

This research study examined the extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in the regular school in Cape Town. Quite a number of theories have relevance to the research study. The anchor that guided this study is the medical model of disability (Landsberg, Kruger & Nel, 2009) and the socio-cultural model (Vygotsky, 1978). The two theories directly influence the way in which people view special educational needs and decide on the types of educational options that will be provided for learners with special educational needs within particular regular schools. On one end of the continuum of special educational needs is the medical model also known as the clinical-pathological paradigm and on the other, is the socio-cultural paradigm (UNESCO, 2004).

The theories helped in responding to the research questions posed as well as the interpretation of the data that were collected. In as much as the theories contradict, the researcher saw some salient issues in them that help in understanding the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in regular schools. The medical model itself strives to explain the child with special educational needs as having disabling/impairing factors within himself/ herself, identifying the actors to change them. To a great extent, the medical model and the socio-cultural model have impacted on the implementation of inclusive education. Below, the two models are described and discussed- showing how they relate to the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in regular schools is given.

2.3.1 The Medical Model/ Theory

Kauffman (1997) describes a model that guides teachers and policy-makers in decision making as a conceptual model. As the medical model guides teachers and policy-makers in making decisions pertaining to inclusive education and the inclusion of learners with special educational needs in regular schools, it can, therefore, be described as a conceptual model. Kauffman (1997) further points out that conceptual

models are used in instances where there is the shaping of the way one thinks about a topic.

Zaretsky (2005) points out that conceptual understandings of special education and disability are informed by other professional fields outside education. The medical and social sciences' fields have largely played a role in shaping educational practises. Researchers (e.g. Kauffman, 1997; Engelbrecht et al., 2003; Kiel, Miller & Cobb, 2006) argue that the most prominent fields that affected educational practices have been the medical model and law.

The medical model approach has significantly influenced people's views on disability and education in ways without number. According to Brownlee and Carrington (2000), a person with a disability is seen as different from peers and in need of treatment. Thus, it is assumed, diagnosis of their disability automatically leads to treatment of disability and classification of symptoms exhibited. A result of this classification is that those similar disabilities are put in the same group resulting in a society that is segregated on the basis of ability. In the classroom, because learners' symptoms are seen as permanently existing in the learner and not a result of the environment, learners are labelled as handicapped or slow (Forness & Kavale, 2001). Brownlee and Carrington (2000) further point out that in this regard, emphasis is placed on the learner's inability, as opposed to their abilities.

By conceptualising learners with disability according to the medical model, Kiel et al., (2006) argue that discriminatory practices may develop. Because individuals are not given access to the same opportunities based on their ability, discriminatory practices develop. According to Brownlee and Carrington (2000), emphasis in the medical model is on the within-child factors. This is to say, other factors resulting from the environment such as poverty are overlooked and only the child's inability is considered. Kiel et al. (2006) criticise the medical model when they point out that some behavioural, emotional and social difficulties of learners which cannot be explained in terms of disability tend to be overlooked. In support of the medical model, Kauffman (1997) contends that this approach is the most empirically-based and such as, decision-making should be based on evidence.

Kiel et al. (2006) further examined how the medical model influenced policy-makers in their decisions regarding special educational needs. The finding of their study was

that because the medical model could not cope with learners with behavioural or social deficits, as a special educational needs framework, it needed to be reformed. According to Kauffman (2007), when there is social disparity, the fields of medicine or law take the forefront. In this case, legislature started to change when the medical model showed cracks.

In the United Kingdom, researchers (e.g. Brownlee & Carrington, 2000; Kiel et al., 2006) pointed out that the Disability Discrimination Act (DfEE, 1995) arose and acknowledged that poverty, disadvantage and social exclusion that persons with disability experienced was not as a result of their inability but environmental factors such as attitudes and the behaviour of people without disabilities. Brownlee and Carrington (2000) note that the DfEE (1995), as a legislature, arose from a social model which conceptualised persons with disability as an under-privileged group who were in need of equal access to opportunities as their peers who did not have a disability.

Forness and Kavale (2001) argued that there was need to acknowledge both the symptoms permanently existing in the learner and the environmental factors in the way in which people conceptualised disability. This thinking marked the shift in paradigms from the medical model to one which is more inclusive and systematic in conceptualising disability and special educational needs.

The medical model, also known as the clinical-pathological paradigm, is a model of diagnosis and treatment (Landsberg, Kruger & Nel, 2009), and it fits well with what existed and may still exist in many countries before and after inclusive education was introduced. In medical terms from which it originates, it is focused highly on pathology, sickness, the nature and aetiology of the presenting problem and dealing with the specific pathology in a centred way (Landsberg et al., 2009). Medically, where there is a problem, a cure has to be the ultimate goal. In education, the learner is singled out as one who is different from others in some way. According to Nel, Nel and Hugo (2012), such a learner is not seen as normal. Similarly, Meltz et al. (2009) pointed out that this model was bounded by the norm. As a result, those in the care of such learners want to find out what is wrong with the child and help accordingly. To achieve this, thorough assessments need to be conducted, resulting in treatment and consequently placing in a specialised environment which may lead

to labelling (Landsberg et al., 2009). The realisation that the child had a problem prompted research into remediation. This caused educationists to look for more effective teaching methods to meet the learners' needs.

Traces of the medical model are still evident in educational practice and attitudes today. Landsberg et al. (2009) point out that medical information cannot be ignored completely and is still necessary as the current conceptualisation of a person's function and disability is conceived of as a dynamic interaction between biological, individual and social perceptions. The identification and assessment of learners with special educational needs reflects a diagnostic approach to disability, employing a psychological deficit and a needs assessment (Rayner, 2007). This eventually leads to an appropriate specialist intervention or placement. It is the researcher's view that this is the influence of the medical model in education.

The researcher finds this theory relevant to the study in that to better understand the extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in the regular school, attitudes of those working with the learners are important to know. Besides, the very fact that the learner has special educational needs means that he/ she has a challenge and processes such as identification and diagnosis need be carried out before proper intervention can be given. This aligns with an earlier statement that the nature and aetiology of the presenting problem needs to be considered and then dealt with in a centred way (Landsberg et al., 2009).

2.3.1.1 Criticism of the Medical Model

While the medical model addresses separateness and thus discrediting inclusion, to a great extent, this belief conflicts with the socio-cultural model of togetherness. Consequently, the medical model excluded children who were seen as not fitting into the norm, a belief associated with deficiency (Soudien & Baxen, 2006). A belief in diversity promotes a unified education system and inclusion. The medical model is problematic as it locates the differences within the learner and perceives their inability as something to be made right and does not account for diversity. This model results in the isolation of learners with special educational needs and advocates special schools.

Society can construct disability through its actions. It erects barriers and structures that to a great extent limit the person's ability to function in a normal way. In turn, these barriers erected by men then tend to limit such persons' ability to access the opportunities, privileges and resources in society (Baffoe, 2013). Among other things, Baffoe (2013) posits that as a result of physical, organisational and attitudinal barriers, children with special educational needs are excluded from participation. The researcher finds relevance in this assertion to the present study, particularly when aligned with The White Paper 6 (South African Department of Education, 2001) which states that some barriers are as a result of the curriculum and environment that is not least restrictive.

Teachers have raised concerns (Chapter 1) that they have overcrowded classes, inadequate knowledge of inclusive education- as result of a lack of adequate training in inclusive education, difficulties adapting the curriculum to suit learners, especially those with learning difficulties, time to offer individualised attention to learners experiencing challenges against completing the syllabus as expected by the Department of Education and the severity of some of the disabilities (Singh, 2004; Engelbretch & Green, 2007). All this, as the researcher assumes, might shed light on the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in regular schools.

If society fails to change its ways of seeing children with special educational needs, it is creating handicaps that, in turn, oppress persons experiencing challenges in education access. The opposite of this can see children with special educational needs functioning at much higher levels. Simply put, it is not the inability of the child to learn but a curriculum that is not properly adapted to cater for the child's developmental needs. It can be further said that this shows that within an environment, there are obstacles that make education inaccessible for the child with special educational needs rather than the child himself or herself.

From what was discussed in Chapter 1, African attitudes and beliefs on disability have been based on a misunderstanding of causes of disability, fear of the unknown, stereotypes, discrimination and ultimately a denial of rights and resources that are afforded to all citizens. It is the researcher's assumption that to an extent, this has a bearing on how these learners with special educational needs will be received in

regular schools. Twenty-one years into democracy and under a constitution that views all people as equal, it is in this light that this study examines the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in regular schools.

2.3.2 The Socio-Cultural Theory

At the other end of the special educational needs continuum is the socio-cultural theory by Vygotsky (1978). The socio-cultural theory recognises the need to consider both personal and social factors in trying to understand special educational needs. In so doing, one aspect is not made dominant over the other (Baffoe, 2013). Within the socio-cultural theory, three elements become important, and these are: the rights of a human, social justice and equality (Rayner, 2007). Rayner (2007) posits that the socio-cultural theory is politically-oriented. Rayner (2007) further argues that the politics of social justice, equal opportunities and human rights which were used to redress the injustices of the political government prior to 1994 have been applied in education. In education, it has been used with an intention to reduce barriers to access and learning for children with disability.

The above views are shared by Meltz et al. (2009) who concede that the socio-cultural theory is a social justice approach to inclusion. As a social justice approach, it embraces all people without discriminating. Supporters of this view have a vision of an equitable society (Meltz et al., 2009) taking into account a broad range of diversity beyond disability (Polat, 2011). According to Florian and Kershner (2009), the socio-cultural theory offers a productive way of thinking about how to understand and respond to the complexities inherent in educating diverse groups of students in different contexts. It is through the provision of education in regular schools that this approach seems to be achievable.

Florian and Kershner (2009) further point out that one of the main principles of socio-cultural analysis is to take account of what happens in different contexts when people participate in activities, develop knowledge together and generally contribute to the development of cultural beliefs, practices and artefacts which are valued in the immediate and wider contexts of life. Similarly, Rieser (2002) argues that society is, therefore, encouraged to view special educational needs from a human rights

perspective within the socio-cultural model. In this light, Florian and Kershner (2009) comment that individuals' team and change their contacts with other people and they, in turn, become capable of changing what is understood and valued in the other social and cultural settings where they participate. This is when all learners with special educational needs are first humans who are equal to those without special educational needs and the inability they exhibit taking second place. For this reason, the problems they may have should not be seen to be embedded within individual children; society should assist in carrying and alleviating these ills. In a way, Rieser (2002) encourages society to work with these learners in fighting whatever handicaps them. This will result in a barrier-to-learning-free situation and self-actualisation for learners with special educational needs.

Within the socio-cultural theory, the focus of the problem has shifted from the individual child to the social environment within which the child lives (UNESCO, 2004). The social environment could include care-givers, teachers and peers. It can also be political or economic. Moreover, the socio-cultural model sees learners with special educational needs as members of a group, sharing a strong identity (Subban & Sharma, 2005). To this, focus then is on the removal of stumbling blocks within society for the participation of all (Landsberg et al., 2009). If teachers of learners with special educational needs view these learners as part of a cultural minority group able to achieve the same outcomes as any other child who does not have special educational needs, they prevent the barrier caused by negative attitudes to and stereotyping of difference from occurring (DoE, 2001).

In South Africa, inclusive education is explicitly viewed as a means to address issues of social justice, inequality and human rights (Meltz et al., 2014). In other words, people should be treated justly, regardless of who or what they are. The socio-cultural theory can be seen to contradict the medical model. Supporters of this model view inclusion as a means to remove the injustices of the past as well as the present. Thus, the socio-cultural theory is seen to encourage learning and self-growth within the community which can either be home or school.

As this study sought to examine the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in the regular school, it became equally crucial to understand how society views special educational needs and disability. Mutisya

(2010), writing about Kenya, notes that it is through issues such as fear, ignorance and prejudice that barriers and discriminatory practices develop. The result of this is disability and handicap. Thus, society makes learners with special educational needs often feel it is their own fault that they are not like everyone, that they are different (Mutisya, 2010).

The socio-cultural model does not dispute the fact that learners with special educational needs experience difficulties in the education system. Mutisya (2010) asserts that these difficulties experienced could be a result of an extensive, demanding, rigid and inflexible curriculum as well as an inaccessible school environment, lack of adequate resources and materials and negative attitudes- a view shared in South Africa (DoE, 2001). From an inclusive education approach and socio-cultural model point of view, these difficulties should not be explained in terms of the learner. The researcher finds relevance to the study in the socio-cultural model in that if the above issues are not addressed, this could have an impact on the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in regular schools.

Under the circumstances cited in the paragraph above, it is, therefore, not an option to have separate schooling for learners with special educational needs. Separate schooling only perpetuates exclusion, and the learners with special educational needs are separated from a family and society they are born into and will grow in and even come back to after their schooling years. Therefore, the school should not, in any way, be seen to create barriers to learning for learners with special educational needs. Rather, school should provide an environment that is supportive and enabling for learners with special educational needs. Rieser (2002) posits that the socio-cultural model first sees the strength within the individual child rather than his/ her inability. For its alignment to the values of an inclusive education system, the researcher finds relevance to the study in the socio-cultural model. The relationship between society and the learner with special educational needs is, thus, a platform to examine the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in regular schools.

2.3.2.1 Criticism of the Socio-Cultural theory

According to Daniels and Hedegaard (2011), the adoption of the socio-cultural theory in explaining and supporting inclusion has caused a lot of opposition in the education of learners with special educational needs among teachers, administrators and parents. The socio-cultural theory states that there is a need to consider both personal and social factors in trying to understand special educational needs (Baffoe, 2013). The opposition lies in the belief that learners with special educational needs should be integrated in the regular education classrooms whether or not they can meet traditional curricula.

Daniels and Hedegaard (2011) argue that the socio-cultural theory offers little descriptions of contexts of children of various ages or developmental levels. In other words, the theory assumes that all cultures are the same. Thus, the theory consists mainly of general ideas (Berg, 2004). In addition, Daniels and Hedegaard (2011) cite cultural differences of the home and school which can be large. Differences in culture can have an effect on school provisions where schools make an effort to bridge the gap between home and school setting (Daniels & Hedegaard, 2011). In the study are four primary schools- all serving under the Department of Basic Education. The study examined the school contexts to establish if the cultures are different as well as if the provisions got in the way of including learners with special educational needs. Daniels and Hedegaard (2011) further note that the ease with which learners with special educational needs learn how to operate in any regular school setting can depend on the culture of that school, an aspect overlooked in the socio-cultural theory.

In the words of Farrell (2010), a socio-cultural view to special education can close the door on understanding disability and disorders that are specific. Laying the blame, in part, on society can limit provisions in the areas of pedagogy, curricula or therapy. Such limitations can lead to a situation where educational progress and social development are hindered. Thus, because the socio-cultural theory presents special educational needs as a social construct, it insufficiently recognises the permeating effect of the physical reality of disability (Farrell, 2010).

2.4 Models of implementing inclusion for learners with special educational needs in regular schools

Any implementation of a program comes with decision-making. This is to say that decision-making is very important and is a necessary part during any implementation process. In any organisation, schools included, change has to be implemented and to do so requires a multitask approach. According to Ornstein and Hunkins (2004), whichever way we have to take implementation, three initial stages have to be observed, and these are: initiation, implementation and maintenance. At the initiation stage, the stage is set for the implementation process. This involves getting the culture of the school receptive to the intended innovation. Planners get to ask questions of who does what, with what or which support and how many people are for the innovation during the stage of implementation. Therefore, the innovation is presented to people who try it out on a small scale. In school, as this is where the research takes place, it is the teachers' concern to do the implementation phase as they are the classroom practitioners. The nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in regular schools depends on the capacity of teachers as well as the support which can be either financial or material or even both.

As inclusion is a process, it is the researcher's contention that its successful implementation should have some novelty. Thus, curriculum implementers should feel encouraged to be creative. This means that by considering the whole process of curriculum activity, teachers can be helped to come up with own approaches to include learners with special educational needs in the classroom. The learning situation, in part, rests on the methods of teaching which teachers use. However, the choice of approach teachers make will greatly be influenced by their philosophical preferences and the model of implementation they use.

Quite a number of models can be used to implement inclusion for learners with special educational needs. To guide the study, the researcher used three models as discussed by Ornstein and Hunkins (2004) to shed more light on the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in regular schools but modified by the researcher. The three models are: the Overcoming Resistance to Change model (ORC), the Concerns-Based Adoption model (CBA)

and the Educational Change (EC) model. The combined insight that can be gained in using the three models outweighs using one of the threesome. In fact, the insight is much more relevant, significant and important. Below each of the models is discussed in view of how each one fits into this study.

2.4.1 Overcoming Resistance to Change model

The Overcoming Resistance to Change model is anchored on the assumption that there is a present programme being followed and there is need to change to a newer programme. The success or failure of change rests on the ability of leaders to talk to their staff against resistance to change (Ornstein & Hunkins, 2004).

According to Ornstein and Hunkins (2004), if any new programme needs to be implemented, there must be people who are there to sell the programme to those who implement it convincingly. Diversity of thoughts and ideas should be welcome. Thus, there is need for people who are willing to embrace views, ambiguous as they may be, and accept creative conflict in an effort to correct present notions people might have regarding the nature and value of a curriculum (Ornstein & Hunkins, 2004). Ornstein and Hunkins (2004) further argue that for people to embrace a new programme, they first have to address any fears, misgivings and any other factors that may get in the way of accepting the change. In this way, they are able to start a community of supporters for the new programme. Teachers, as implementers of inclusion, must be convinced that they are part of the programme by considering their values, assumptions, beliefs and visions. In other words, teachers need not be given orders from somewhere but that they should take part in building the programme. In this way, they become convinced their ideas will be treated with honest and humility.

The ORC model is of the view that management and members (teachers in the case of inclusive education) work together to overcome resistance by teachers. The success of including learners with special educational needs in regular schools will depend on leaders in the school, being mindful when dealing with concerns of teachers and other staff. It is for this reason authors such as Ornstein and Hunkins (2004) term it a *concerns-based adoption model*.

Before learners with special educational needs can be included in regular schools, this model (ORC) assumes that the implementers (teachers) must first change. As change is a personal experience, room must be given for people to show personalities in the change or implementation process. Furthermore, including learners with special educational needs in regular classrooms (schools) must first address the needs of the teachers and other members of staff involved with learners. In their research on the implementation of curriculum in schools and colleges, Ornstein and Hunkins (2004) quote Hall and Loucks (1981) who noted that concerns can be grouped in four classes of unrelated concerns, personal concerns, task-related concerns and impact-related change.

Hall and Loucks (1981) cited in Ornstein and Hunkins (2004) further argue that within the ORC model, teachers must deal with their personal concerns, task-related concerns and impact-related change if learners can be successfully included in regular schools. Failure to deal with these concerns or ignoring them may result in instances where learners are included in ways that have not been intended at the program's conception. It should be noted, therefore, that school principals and Heads of departments can assist in addressing these concerns through staff meetings and keeping teachers informed about any new innovation by way of development workshops. When concerns are shared, teachers feel empowered to deliver the new programme in its intended way. A similar model of change to ORC is the Concerns-Based Adoption (CBA) model (Ornstein & Hunkins, 2004).

The assumption of this model is that resistance to change by change agents is as a result of concerns which are not directly dealt with such as personal concerns, task-related concerns and impact-related concerns. The researcher found relevance in this model to the study in that if teacher concerns are ignored, teachers may deal with any change in ways that are not intended in a programme such as inclusion's conception. As noted in chapter 1, some teachers are insecure regarding inclusion of learners with special educational needs in the regular school. When these concerns are shared, teachers may find that they really have nothing to worry about, and do not necessarily have to make changes. Perhaps through staff development meetings conducted at school level or district level, teachers could find that all they need to do is to change their teaching strategies without teaching a different content. In addition, by sharing concerns, they may realise that they are capable of making the necessary

changes to ensure the successful inclusion of learners with special educational needs in regular schools and deliver this new program in its intended fashion.

2.4.2 Concerns-Based Adoption model

Within this model, concerns are very important and need to be considered seriously. Similar to ORC, the Concerns-Based Adoption model sees all change as emanating with individuals. Through individual change in behaviour, a programme can be accepted by implementers. Since change is personal, for teachers to be able to include learners with special educational needs successfully, they must have ownership of the concerns in the process. Furthermore, in their view the result of successfully including learners with special educational needs in regular schools must have a personal impact on their professional lives. Marsh and Willis (2003) are of the view that as change begins with an individual and individuals are different, there is need to consider the pace at which this process will go. Some people are fast/quick to embrace change while others are slow. Furthermore, individuals need and take time to learn new skills and formulate new attitudes.

According to Marsh and Willis (2003), the focus of the CBA model is the adoption phase. The assumption is that teachers and other education workers already have a curriculum that is being followed in the school and now they have to be enabled to adopt this new curriculum or system of doing and dealing with things and see it as their own. Like the ORC model, the CBA model is a curriculum implementation model. The curriculum is a resource to be used, and teachers are part of the system's users. To get teachers ready to include learners with special educational needs, those in the position of curriculum implementation must find out what concerns teachers have and address them. The question becomes whether teachers' concerns are addressed when it comes to including learners with special educational needs in regular primary schools.

Once the concerns of the teachers regarding the inclusion of learners with special educational needs are addressed and successfully, so will the inclusion of these learners in regular schools be successful. In this model, teachers should be creative in curriculum implementation and make modifications where necessary for learners with special educational needs, thus making it appropriate in a unique way for

learners with special educational needs. Again, characteristic in this model is that both teachers and principals can modify the curriculum; that is to say, there is also room for such as in-service training for teachers.

In this study, the CBA model was adopted in looking at the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in the regular school with regard to the curriculum. Everything acts within a certain environment and so is inclusion of learners with special educational needs who operate in schools. School as an environment has parents, learners, teachers, school principals and the district-based support team within it and working together as a team in ensuring learners with special educational needs are successfully included in the regular schools. Each group of people has a role to play, which needs not malfunction or the whole system fails. It should be noted, however, that existing is an interplay or overlap among these groups of people (Ornstein & Hunkins, 2004).

Where there is an interplay or overlap among the groups, issues of respect for one another are of paramount importance for the successful implementation of a programme. Those in higher work teams should respect those in lower work teams in terms of considering their concerns and valuing their views to including learners with special educational needs in schools. The researcher found relevance in this model to the study- including learners with special educational needs in regular schools (teacher concerns have to be valued for successful inclusion of learners in classrooms). The next model under discussion is the Educational Change model (EC).

2.4.3 The Educational Change model

The researcher is of the view that just as schools are different from each other, so are their notions about how to include learners with special educational needs. Currently, it is assumed that all schools are the same in terms of how they implement curriculum for learners with special educational needs. This is based on the fact that all teachers in schools are qualified to be there; they have undergone the same minimum basic pre-service training and have an idea of curriculum implementation strategies.

The study looked into the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in regular schools on the basis of the change model. According to Ornstein and Hunkins (2004), successful inclusion of learners with special educational needs in regular schools involves the need for clarity where there are some complexities and this will bring about quality in any programme. As noted in the earlier models of implementation, successful inclusion of learners with special educational needs depends on the following key players in education: teachers, principals, learners, the school board (parents) and government (district-based support team). Each of the key players has a role to play and effectively hinges upon them being clear of the new programme being rolled out, an aspect considered essential in the study, thus the need to look at this model.

Change entails characteristics, and if people wish to successfully include learners with special educational needs in regular schools, it is important to understand the characteristics that change entails. Fullan (1981) cited in Ornstein and Hunkins (2004) discussed key factors that affect implementation and these are communication and support from all stakeholders therein. These characteristics can be at school level or district level. Mpofu (2010) posits that often, people resist change and any innovation because there has not been any proper communication to and with them. In the event that there was any communication, probably it was not well received by the implementers and will affect change. Based on the discussion above, the researcher is of the view that the clarity with which teachers within the schools under study have about a programme, such as including learners with special educational needs in regular schools, will influence their need to change.

When implementing any change in education, stakeholders should know what the incoming will do as well as what it will involve. In including learners with special educational needs in regular schools, the school governing board (parents), teachers and learners (who will share the environment with those labelled as having special educational needs) should know what inclusion of learners with special educational needs will do and what it will involve. In other words, there is need for clarity in terms of the purpose for including learners with special educational needs in the school, how this is going to be conducted, what it will involve and benefits if any to this move. This view is found to impact on the success of including learners with special educational needs in the regular schools.

Teachers, as people who are directly involved with learners with special educational needs, should be clear from the beginning on the goals of the move (inclusive education) and have their involvement specified. Many a time, teachers are not clear how a move such as including learners with special educational needs will have an effect on what they have been doing. Therefore, they should be enlightened on why these learners are included instead of keeping them in special schools as well as the gains this entails.

Ornstein and Hunkins (2004) argue that keeping the KISS (Keep It Short and Simple) theory is worth remembering in any organisation as change may be complex, depending on whether the staff of implementers is experienced or inexperienced. However, in as much as simple changes have satisfying effects, they often do not make much difference (Mpofu, 2010). The implementers of inclusive education need to recognise the innovation (including learners with special educational needs in regular schools) for what it is and have a picture of its level of difficulty. In disagreement, Ornstein and Hunkins (2004) note that people can only accept innovation when they are able to accept its worth, quality and practicality. Referring to Technical Vocational Education, Mpofu (2010) concedes that it could face some problems if teachers are not provided with the necessary and relevant equipment for learners. Similarly, in including learners with special educational needs in regular schools, there could be some problems if teachers are not provided with relevant and necessary equipment for teaching and learning. Mpofu (2010) further argues that parents and the responsible authority should ensure teachers are well provided for with needed support as well as learning materials.

2.4.3.1 District level characteristics

Monitoring and supervision are crucial for and in the implementation of any programme. If this is done by the District-Based Support Team, it is to determine what is taking place in schools in terms of whether curriculum is implemented in accordance with set objectives or policy. The District-Based Support Team provides direction and guidance making sure teachers and principals have the required necessary skills to implement inclusive education.

Considering teachers' capacity and, in turn, conducting in-service training courses has the tendency to boost their knowledge and teaching strategies. In addition, it makes the goals and objectives of a programme such as inclusive education clearer. This does not take the school out as this is the environment within which learners with special educational needs are included.

2.4.3.2 School level characteristics

In implementing inclusive education, the school is paramount as this is where learners with special educational needs will be. As such, the characteristics of the primary schools under study need to be taken into consideration. The four primary schools under study, to an extent, are of different contexts. In as much as they belong to the same responsible authority which is the department of basic education, some are well resourced while others are under resourced and they have not all begun practising inclusive education at the same time. Hence, this difference in characteristics may have an influence in the way these schools include learners with special educational needs. Regardless of the approach one adopts, in matters of curriculum implementation, it is necessary to understand the learners' needs. This view is shared by the constructivist curriculum paradigm.

Fullan (1981) cited in Ornstein and Hunkins (2004) concedes that in curriculum implementation, teachers' requirements must be attended to. Attending to teachers' requirements enables them to accept the new curriculum. This means paying attention to their professional qualification, specialisation, experience, attitudes and motivation level. Failure to attend to these may lead to unsuccessful implementation of the desired innovation. Hence, this study's focus on whether teachers have the capacity to implement inclusive education as well. Teachers' professional qualifications, specialisation and experience would be considered a crucial factor in the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in regular schools.

The Educational Change model was used to examine the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in regular schools considering the role played by all stakeholders in curriculum implementation. In addition, the Educational Change model has a high measure of relevance to the South African

scenario as EDOs, ESSs, principals, teachers, parents and learners are considered key players in the implementation process of inclusive education. This is as stipulated by the Constitution of South Africa, Act 108 of 1996 and the Education White Paper 6 of 2001.

Mpofu (2010) quotes Bottery (2001) who argues that for a school to survive, decisions that pertain to the operations of the school must be shared with the school community at school level. Further, a need exists to assess how these individuals either promote or inhibit successful implementation of inclusive education.

2.4.4 Learning theories related to pedagogy and teaching methods in inclusion

The enactment of the White Paper 6 in 2001 required South African schools to examine how best to address the needs of learners with special educational needs. The White Paper 6 (2001) emphasised that all children can learn and have an entitlement to support (DoE, 2001). This shifts the instructional focus with regard to learners with special educational needs from where they are educated to how they are educated. It requires that learners with special educational needs have access to general education curriculum by participating in the same assessments as students who do not have special educational needs unless the nature of special educational need is determined to be too severe to do so.

With so many factors seemingly making the inclusion of learners with special educational needs in regular schools not a reality, one cannot stop to think what learning theories might support the idea of inclusion. In an effort to understand the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in regular schools, the researcher wanted to find out the extent to which teachers who have learners with special educational needs in their classrooms possess the requisite skills and training to address the diverse learner needs. Thus, in supporting students to learn, it was important to examine the pedagogical methods used by teachers in teaching an inclusive classroom.

Within the school setting, all children (with or without disability) are expected to learn academic concepts as well as behaviour skills (Lamport, Graves & Ward, 2012). Both these areas (academic concepts and behaviour skills) are often potential

barriers to learning more especially when students have special educational needs. Learners can develop low self-esteem issues which may hinder them socially. Ntshangase, Mdikana and Cronk (2008) commented that due to their histories of repeated failure at school, learners with special educational needs are likely to feel as though academic outcomes are beyond their control and see themselves as less competent than their peers. Of importance for learners with special educational needs in this regard is that academic content and social skills be addressed within the classroom.

Albert Bandura developed the social learning theory which states that learning (both cognitive and behavioural) takes place through observation, modeling and imitation of others. The centrality of observational learning, a causal model involving an environment or person or behaviour system, cognitive contributions and self-efficacy and agency is what Miller (2011) identifies as the main characteristic of the social learning theory. The social learning theory proposes that for academic and behaviour modeling to take place, there has to be verbal instruction, live modeling by a person and symboling modeling through attention, retention, reproduction and motivation (Lamport et al., 2012).

Combined with the Freudian learning principles, the social learning theory focuses on teaching children important real-life social behaviours (Miller, 2011). Advocates of inclusion thought this course of action would help learners with special educational needs by emerging them into a learning community that learners with special educational needs are able to interact with peers and develop friendships.

When included in regular classrooms, learners with special educational needs have the opportunity to see their peers' working habits and behaviours in order to reflect their own. The researcher assumes this insight into the Freudian theory of identification through observation of learned behaviour from peers in their classroom and around them in the school. Expanding on the exploration of Sigmund Freud's identification through modeling, Bandura and Walter realised learners with special educational needs can attain new behaviour by observation (Miller, 2011). This plays into the observational theory where learners with special educational needs have the opportunity to watch the correct behaviour and model that desired performance.

Not only do learners with special educational needs learn desired behaviours from peers through social learning, they can also learn academically within their classrooms. Children can be the best teachers themselves. Co-operative learning involves social interaction amongst learners with special educational needs and is key to educational thinkers such as Piaget and Vygotsky (Slavin, 2009). By being involved in social interaction and active experiences, learners with special educational needs are helped to feed knowledge to one another. Social interaction methods have also been found to promote social communication skills that children will need to possess in adult life.

Learners with special educational needs need to be able to effectively discuss the various issues that occur as life processes (Lamport et al., 2012). Besides, as a result of social interaction and active experience in learning, learners with special educational needs offer educational knowledge and/or social skills to their peers. In other words, they (students) teach others and learn from others. An added benefit to teaching others and learning from others is that learners with special educational needs will feel a sense of belonging, pride and responsibility - qualities which better prepare them for participating as active members of their communities and the society at large. Harding (2009) posits that with peer learning, students are helped to build effective listening and communication skills.

The Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) also has implications for pedagogic methods in inclusive classrooms. The zone of proximal development, whose proponent is Lev Vygotsky states that for students to learn, there has to be an adult to guide or other capable peers (Lamport et al., 2012). Miller (2011) commented that a more competent person collaborates with a child to help him/her move from where he/she currently is to where he/she can be with help. Other than learning from their peers, learners with special educational needs can get support of adult guidance in an effort to gain a better understanding of the concept being taught. In an inclusive classroom, a teacher can provide scaffolding. Scaffolding is when new concepts are introduced (Lamport et al., 2012). Gradually, support is taken from the learner as he/she masters the concept/content. According to Ntshangase et al. (2008), social interaction is not only important for learners' academic achievement but also for their general well-being and personal development in the long run. Theoretically, the social learning theory, in conjunction with the zone of proximal development, helps

explain how learners with special educational needs progress academically and increase appropriate social interactions when these learners are placed within inclusive classrooms.

2.5 Challenges of including learners with special educational needs in regular school

This section discusses some of the important aspects in the inclusion of learners with special educational needs in regular schools as unveiled by some studies elsewhere. The way in which these aspects are given consideration will either support or hinder the inclusion of learners with special educational needs in regular schools as will be revealed in the discussion below. These aspects relate to the school and the systems therein. As the study examines the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in regular schools, the researcher adopted Bronfenbrenner's ecosystemic theory to understand these factors.

This study explored aspects of the school which deal with learner factors, teacher capacity, support (human, material and financial) and monitoring and continuous professional development of teachers. Support and monitoring highlight best practices for the effective inclusion of learners with special educational needs in regular schools. In addition, findings from other studies on the inclusion of learners with special educational needs in regular schools are discussed, as well as identification of the gap in the literature into which the topic under study fits well.

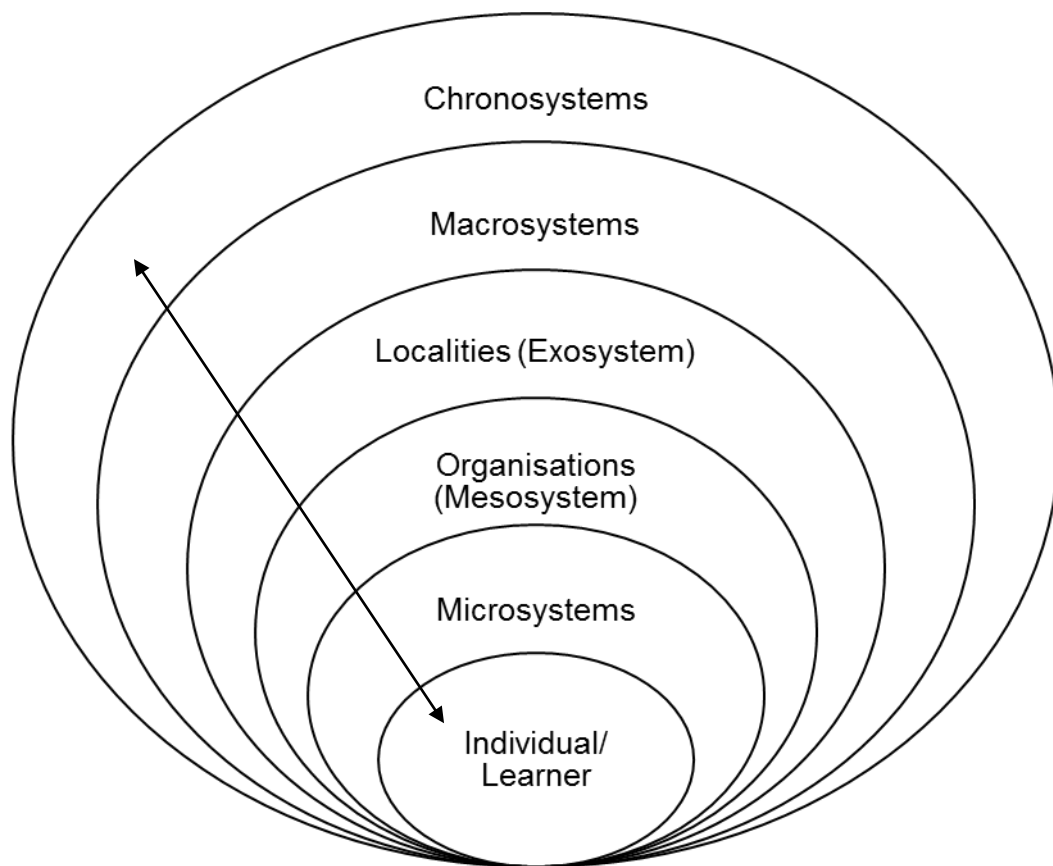
2.5.1 Bronfenbrenner's ecosystemic theory

To have a better understanding of inclusive education in regular primary schools under study and the aspects that affect its implementation (including learners with special educational needs), Bronfenbrenner's ecosystemic theory was adopted in this study. The ecosystemic theory is a blend of ecology and systems theories (Dalton, Elias & Wanderman, 2001). Ecology speaks to the interdependence between different organisms and their environment while systems describe the relationship between human beings and the interactions between groups of people in

their particular contexts. A major characteristic of the theory is to show how the different context levels are interconnected in the inclusion of a learner with special educational needs in the regular school. Recognising the functions and relationships of these levels is what makes the theory relevant to the study. With reference to Figure 2.4, the study looks at the link between the local community (the learner, family, school and teachers in class and peers), the wider community and the whole social system. In as much as the family and peers were not examined in detail, reference was made to them in passing in the study as they in a way have an influence on the nature and extent to which a learner with special educational needs were included in the regular school. Thus, there is a connection between the school and family from where learners come.

Bronfenbrenner's theory consists of five environmental systems that range from close interpersonal interactions to broad-based influences of culture; these are the: microsystem, the mesosystem, the exosystem, the macrosystem and the chronosystem. Dalton et al.'s (2001) description of the different levels of Bronfenbrenner's model has been considered and adopted by the present researcher in looking at factors related to the individual learner and those related to his/her context. Figures 2.2 and 2.3 are an adaptation of Dalton et al.'s (2001) representation of Bronfenbrenner's ecosystemic theory.

Figure 2-2: Bronfenbrenner's ecosystemic model



Source: *Community psychology: Linking individuals and community* (Dalton, Elias & Wanderman, 2001)

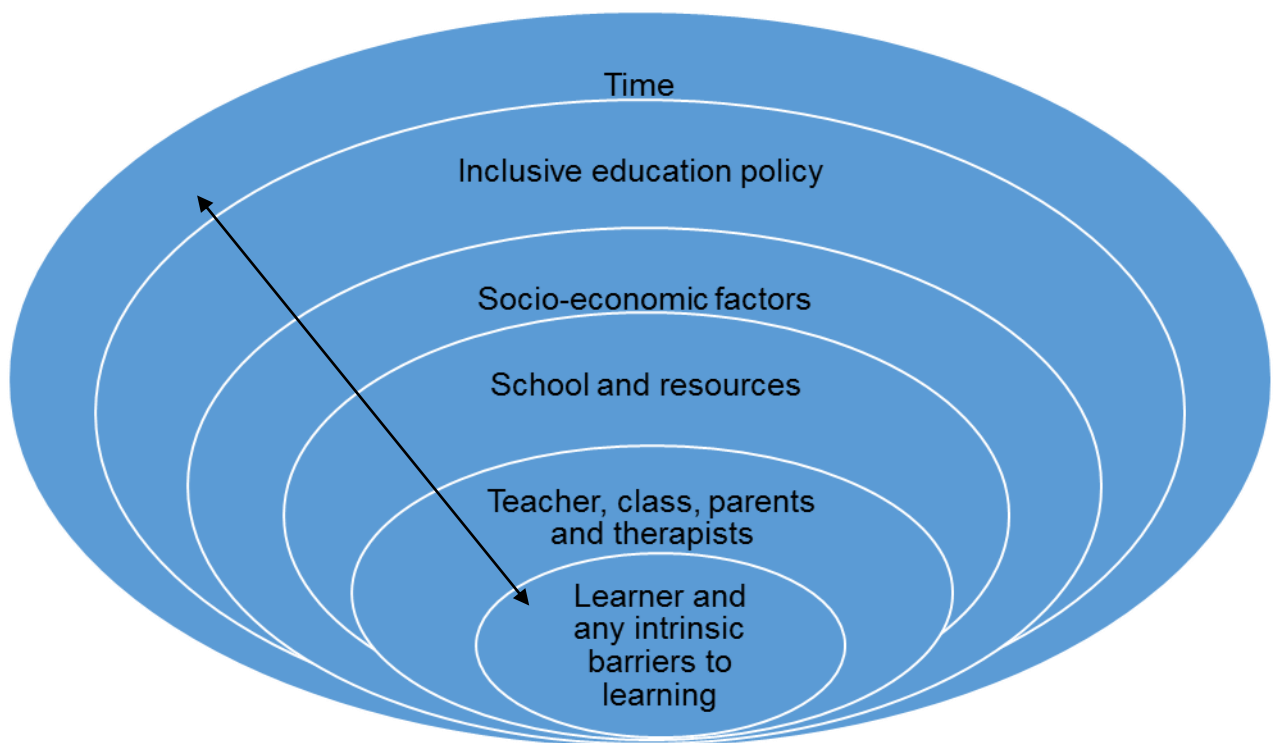
At the centre of the ecosystemic theory is the learner with special educational needs. As the central figure in the inclusion process, the learner chooses his/her environment and the kind of relationship he/she would like to have with his/her environment. The learner with special educational needs may adapt or change the way he/she behaves in order to make the relationship meaningful based on the influence of the chosen environment to his/her relationship with it. Alternatively, the learner may impact on his/her environment depending on how he/she as an individual participates in it.

The microsystems level of analysis speaks to the environment that the learner with special educational needs interacts directly with others and form relationships with time. In figure 2-2, this is the second ring. The third ring is the organisational level of analysis also referred to as the meso-system, according to Bronfenbrenner's ecosystemic theory. The organisational level of analysis consists of smaller

microsystems such as committees and/or subgroups of people forming the organisation. The localities' level of analysis or the exosystem is the fourth ring. It includes geographic or regional districts. Community relationships also form the localities level of analysis. At the macro-systemic level of analysis, different societies and cultures are examined. Contexts within which other levels function are formed at the macro-system level and subsequently influence all levels that occur within this level.

Dalton et al. (2001) do not mention the chrono-systems. According to Hook, Watts and Cockcroft (2002), time is an important consideration at the chrono-systems level of analysis. Transitions over periods in history are determined by time. Some barriers to learning, which result in special educational needs are a result of traumatic experiences a learner was a victim of or a witness of. For example, witnessing the brutal murder of a loved one such as a parent can have a long lasting effect on the emotional stability of any child or person. For a child of school going age, in as much as the loss is felt more severely initially and fades over time, the interactions between the child and the various levels would be different from year to year. Figure 2-3 below describes Bronfenbrenner's ecosystemic theory as it applies to education.

Figure 2-3: Bronfenbrenner's ecosystemic model applied to the education context



Source: *Community psychology: Linking individuals and community* (Dalton, Elias & Wanderman, 2001)

The learner and any intrinsic barriers to learning he/she might have are at the centre of the ecosystemic theory. Learner examination and analysis takes place at the individual level (Figure 2-2). The examination and analysis involves taking into account the learner's individual needs based on the nature of disability. At this level, focus is on the disability inherent to the child.

Teachers, parents, classmates and other people who interact with the child form the microsystems level. Interactions and relationship between these people are also looked at. At the microsystems level, learner-teacher relationships are explored as well as the teacher's ability to manage diversity in the classrooms.

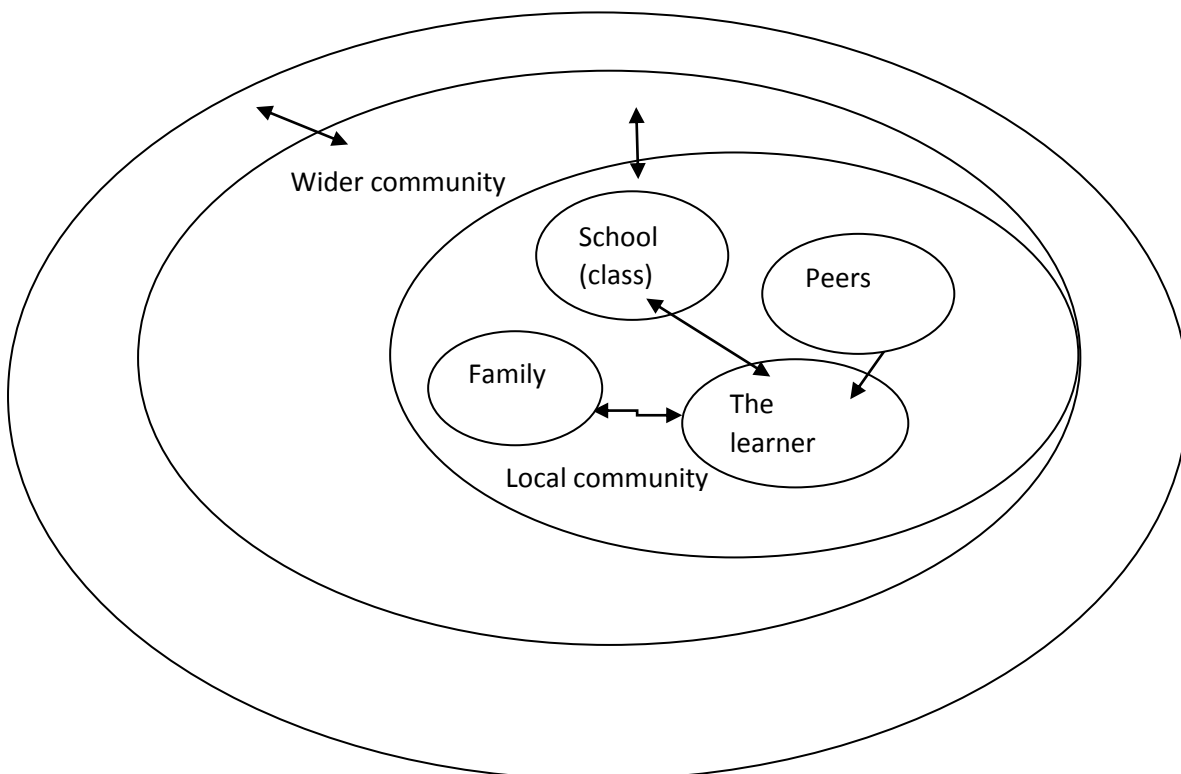
The organisational level of analysis comprises the staff at the school, the school and members in the school board. The management of the inclusion process, as well as the school's policy of inclusion, are discussed at this level. Also taken into account at this level is the teacher-training and school-resources.

The community from which the school is located is at the localities level of analysis. Socio-economic factors are also analysed at the localities level of analysis. The education policy and the policy-makers are at the level of the macro-systems. At the macro-systems of analysis, the context of inclusive education is also set.

There are changes which take place in the world view on disability and these take place at the chrono-systems level of analysis. In South Africa, for instance, with the development of inclusive education over time, there was a need for a new system of education post-apartheid. Literature (e.g. Engelbrecht et al., 2003; Landsberg, 2008; Hook et al., 2002) reveals that teacher concerns about the inclusion of learners with special educational needs in regular classrooms occurred on the various levels of the model.

Figure 2.4 below is an adaptation of Bronfenbrenner's ecosystemic theory to help in understanding those central ecosystemic interactions in the education process as adapted from Donald, Lazarus and Lolwana, (2010).

Figure 2-4: Levels of systems related to inclusion in education



Source: *Educational psychology in social context: Ecosystemic applications in Southern Africa* (Donald, Lazarus & Lolwana, 2010)

At the family level, inclusion may be influenced by family factors such as the resources of the family, language spoken in relation to medium of instruction at the school, family values of achievement versus cognitive and emotional support. The learner as the individual to be included in the regular school and eventually in the classroom has values. These values may interact with those of the family she/ he comes from, the school, the class/ teacher, peers, the local and the wider community up to and including the whole society (Donald et al., 2010). Resources and their availability may be influenced between the different levels. There are state policies, the curriculum or the cognitive capabilities (learner) and these, at some level, interact.

In essence, according to Donald et al. (2010), systems (thus different groups of people and different levels) interact and the functioning of the whole is dependent on this interaction between parts. If a tension arises at one level, it affects the functioning of the whole. The same can be said about how clearly and directly these levels communicate. It is crucial to their functioning and interaction. It should be noted however that in some of the levels the learner is not as active a participant but the events that occur in the levels affect or are affected by what happens in the level containing the learner.

2.5.1.1Learner factors on Inclusion

The background of the learners and the strengths and weaknesses they bring to regular schools can support or hinder their inclusion. Some learners come from environments where no one supports their studies (Rogan & Grayson, 2003). The identification process for which learners become labelled as having special educational needs, especially those with learning difficulties, can also have a bearing on their inclusion. Research has found that learner composition in classes can also have an effect on their achievement. Opdenakker and Van Damme (2006) have found that composition of learners in classrooms and some school practices are to some degree related to each other. In different countries, there is a different identification process for learners with special educational needs especially those who do not have disability.

In Zimbabwe, learners are identified as having special educational needs by use of continuous assessment and examination results (Mpofu, 2010). Kellaghan and Greaney (2004) also talks about the selection of students using examination results or tests. Standardised achievement tests are the normally preferred mode. The use of standardised tests is disadvantageous for learners with learning difficulties as they test knowledge for academic purposes and not the individual learner's strengths.

Among other reasons for including learners with special educational needs in regular schools is their social participation. Social participation has been described as the presence of positive social contact/ interaction between learners with special educational needs and their classmates (Koster, Jan Pijl, Nakken & Van Houten, 2010). Involved within the social contact/ interaction is their being accepted by classmates and learners with special educational needs feeling they are accepted by classmates. In a study in Netherlands by Koster et al. (2010), a striking situation is revealed by the results of the study. Including learners with special educational needs has had negative outcomes such as loneliness and rejection. Learners with special educational needs have been found to be socially excluded than their typically developing peers. In a situation such as this, there is a great need to take measures that will change the situation. The study looked at social exclusion in relation to the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in regular schools- the focus of this study.

Mitchell (2008) concedes that the classroom's psychological climate is a significant determinant of the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in regular schools. The author argues that it is a tendency for learners with special educational needs to experience emotions associated with failure. Some of these emotions are as a result of rejection and even hostility from others. As a result, they do not trust their learning environment or their own ability to survive in it. Being an effective and efficient teacher means having the knowledge that these learners are at risk for lowered self-concepts, depression, anger, anxiety and try to arrest this vicious cycle by setting up learning environments that emphasise positive emotions and reduce negative one as much as possible.

Mitchell (2008) further points out that with a sense of failure learners with special educational needs might devalue their abilities with the result that they do not set

goals for themselves. Where others set goals far beyond their capacity, if they do set goals they might be socially inappropriate. Furthermore, through prolonged failure they reject the notion that they are capable of learning. This situation becomes compounded if teachers and parents also show low expectations for their performance. According to Mitchell (2008), learners with special educational needs learn better when the environment feels safe and it is predictable with motivation and promoting goal setting.

2.5.1.2 Teacher factors on Inclusive Education

A nation can survive and prosper economically depending on how well its human resources are well developed. According to Mpofu (2010), one of the prime agencies this development can be brought about is the school. Engelbretch and Green (2007) argue that giving teachers' confidence to believe in themselves is the biggest challenge education has. Teachers need to believe that they can accomplish the task of teaching inclusive classes. Besides, this is the responsibility of those responsible for teacher education to drive the change process forward. Ornstein and Hunkins (2004) concede that teacher competence is necessary as they are directly involved with the inclusion of learners with special educational needs in regular schools.

Inclusive education requires that teachers be able to not only meet but also cater for the needs of the diverse learner populations in areas of academic, social and culture. Thus, teachers play a crucial role in the inclusion of learners with special educational needs in regular schools. Koster et al. (2010) point out that teachers are widely acknowledged as key in the successful implementation of inclusive education. They have the ability to make accurate assessments of learners. This enables early intervention and learners with special educational needs get to be assisted in a timely manner. Similarly Nyoni et al. (2010) make note of teacher expertise at the schools as well as support in institutions of learning.

Teaching styles can help to interpret the influences of teachers on the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in regular schools (Opdenakker & Van Damme, 2006). In essence, the calibre of teachers matters the most with regards to the inclusion of learners with special educational

needs in regular schools. Teachers should be able to deliver content and make learning of interest to the learners ensuring participation of learners is maximum. Education becomes inaccessible especially to learners with special educational needs when teachers are not well qualified, are not caring and lack commitment.

Teachers adopt a teaching approach based on their beliefs about how learners learn. However, a challenge arises when they wish to develop an inclusive practice. According to Florian (2008), their personal view of what inclusion is matters most. In as much as they may not change the organisational structure of schooling it is possible to change their work based on the knowledge that all children can be supported to learn. In this regard, issues of teaching strategies and the recognition that all learners are not the same matters the most. Teaching strategies become effective with the knowledge of what is being taught and to who is presented among teachers. Moreover, learner difference is a matter of degree and only becomes a concern if it exceeds the teacher's capacity to know how to respond to each particular magnitude of difficulty.

By including learners with special educational needs, classes become more diverse. Laukkan (2008) asserts that for this reason, teachers have to be pedagogical educated expects. This is one way of saying teachers should have knowledge of subject matter which in this case is inclusive education practices. Similarly, Santrock (2011) asserts that having a good command of their subject matter (inclusive education) and teaching skills (inclusive teaching strategies) area solid core effective teachers have. In support, Mitchell (2008) argues that the skills of teachers at the school level matter the most in inclusive education.

Together with this is instructional planning and lesson management. Santrock (2011) further points out that such teachers understand how and what motivates learners and they have the ability to communicate well with learners. Teachers' ability to tap into the learners enables them to work with those of varying skill levels and of cultural diverse backgrounds.

Taking the case of South Africa where curriculum changes are inevitable, Ornstein and Hunkins (2004) argue that teachers needs to continually develop themselves to acquire different knowledge and teaching skills. This will enable them to face the new curriculum especially when they are faced with a diverse group of learners in

their classrooms. Teaching rests upon teachers' developed talent, the human ability to understand the minds of others (Northedge, 2003). Thus, upon teachers is a demand for a high level of training and education. In sharing this view, Kansanen (2003) concedes that it should be the basic aim of every teacher education programme to educate competent teachers who have the necessary professional qualities to ensure lifelong teaching careers for teachers. Kansanen (2003) further points out that pre-service teacher training is of outmost importance as any challenges encountered in the programme will have consequences some of which are difficult to correct in the future.

Including learners with special educational needs in regular schools and subsequently regular classrooms has given new urgency to improving professional development among teachers. It is not enough to simply tell teachers, just to do a better job without empowering them with skills and knowledge on how to deal with problems which arise with diversity in classrooms in an effort to help them when executing their duties (Ward, 2007). Thus, training is an essential component of any inclusive education programmes (Gagnon & Leone, 2001). Training should include the identification and/or classification of special educational needs by characteristics exhibited by each as well as how to effectively teach to meet learner differences (planning and methods of teaching). Training should also be extended to help teachers better understand the issues that affect learners with special educational needs when they are included in regular classrooms (Ward, 2007). The National Association of School Psychologists (2006) and Feuerborn and Tyre (2012) state that schools should organise staff development and training programmes designed to guide teachers through the process of developing inclusion strategies that prevent any social and academic exclusion for learners with special educational needs in regular schools.

Vermeire (2010) stresses that an essential element to ensuring learners are effectively included in schools is ensuring there is a positive school environment which provides teachers and other school-staff and administrators with relevant professional development opportunities that focus on creating an inclusive school culture and the consistent, effective, and fair implementation of the school's inclusion policies. Moreover, school personnel should be trained to incorporate the philosophies of creating an inclusive school environment and implementing non-

excluding practices into the daily operation of their school, including utilising curriculum that incorporates the values of diversity. Ward (2007) concurs that with the recent emphasis on accountability, staff developers are being compelled to show that in-service training is changing teacher behaviour and, ultimately, is improving classroom practice and enhancing learner achievement. Hence, critical components of an inclusive plan can be appropriately implemented and maintained through comprehensive staff development (Gagnon & Leone, 2001).

Serakwane (2007) supports the need for training and development of teachers and thus holds that teachers require a profound shift in their attitudes and in their posture towards learners with special educational needs and their inclusion in the regular classroom. Ward (2007) is of the view that comprehensive and unending training can reduce the frequency of teacher concerns in feelings of inadequacy and incompetency to feeling more secure in handling learner diversity. Programmes can include the development of the ability to identify learners who are likely to develop special educational needs for the purpose of early preventive intervention.

Ward (2007) proposes the following recommendations for school personnel who are searching for ways to better prepare teachers to cope with diversity among learners:

1. Staff development should include curricular elements that prepare teachers to work with learners from diverse backgrounds. This should include:
 - (a) identifying warning signs of special educational needs;
 - (b) establishing and maintaining an inclusive school environment; and
 - (c) minimising potentially excluding situations.
2. Staff development sessions should train teachers to make the instructional environment conducive for learning for learners with special educational needs. This means modifying the class or other school areas to prevent possible excluding practices.
3. Staff development should prepare others to serve as resources, mentors, or on intervention teams.
4. Staff development should emphasise wide-ranging inclusion approaches that incorporate programmes of prevention and intervention.

5. Staff development should emphasise the essence of collaboration and the team-teaching approaches.

The Centre for Disease Control and Prevention (2009) suggests that schools should:

- Offer professional development on ways to organise and structure the classroom to promote a positive environment as developmentally appropriate inclusive strategies assist learners in developing a positive self-concept;
- Educate school staff on strategies to effectively involve parents in their children's school life. Important skills include how to establish regular communication, communicate effectively with parents from diverse cultures, conduct effective parent-teacher-learner conferences, involve parents in homework assignments, and organise classroom events that engage parents; and
- Provide training on all curricular the school plans to use, as well as effective teaching methods (for example, cooperative learning, active learning); to maximise the curricula's effectiveness. Ensure that teachers have the necessary materials, time, resources, and support to effectively use the skills learned in training.

Noordien, Samson and Siers (2008) argue that for the inclusion of learners with special educational needs to be successfully maintained schools should:

- arrange the training of selected teachers in basic counselling;
- organise the training of the same or a further group of teachers to strengthen and support the implementation inclusive education;
- organise a mentoring system. Place teachers who are struggling with handling learners with special educational needs in their classrooms next to more successful teachers and arrange times for them to observe and discuss examples of good classroom practice; and
- provide opportunities for staff development and training in children's rights and participatory learning approaches.

In this case, staff development becomes an essential tool in the inclusion of learners with special educational needs in regular schools. However, Serakwane (2007) maintains that educators often receive little formal training in classroom management

and that without such training, it may be easier for them to resort to strategies of inclusion which exclude other learners. Specifically, teachers should be trained to use data from curriculum-based measures to identify learners who are at risk in terms of academic achievement (Gagnon & Leone, 2001).

Researchers in the United States of America (e.g. Feuerborn & Tyre, 2012) have come up with staff development programmes such as Safe and Civil Schools Foundations. This is a staff development tool that utilises a series of multimedia presentations to guide school teams through the process of planning for and implementing inclusive practices. Key features of the Foundations programme consistent with SWPBS include: clear definition, explicit teaching, and the use of data to drive intervention planning and monitoring of progress across all educational settings (Feuerborn & Tyre, 2012). The Safe and Civil Schools Foundations programme incorporates a staff development model which encourages reflection, data utilisation, structure, and collaboration. When faced with a challenging situation in the classroom and schools, school staff members are encouraged to use self-reflection to determine how to help the learner with special educational needs experience more success in the future. In this manner, staff views challenging classroom situations as learning opportunities for both learners and teachers (Feuerborn & Tyre, 2012). Another staff development programme, Building Effective Schools Together (B.E.S.T.), provides a standardised training programme aimed at improving school and classroom practices for inclusion (Sprague, 2003).

The programme aims to train representative school team members to develop and implement school inclusion policies, team-teaching, positive reinforcement systems for learners with special educational needs, data-based decision making at the school level, effective classroom management and curriculum adaptation (Sprague, 2003). Previous studies (e.g. Sprague, 2003) have shown significant improvement in academic performance for learners with special educational needs of up to 50%. In addition, school staff and teachers in particular report greater satisfaction with their work, compared to schools that did not implement B.E.S.T. (Sprague, 2003).

It is also imperative for schools to consider the training of parents if learners with special educational needs can be successfully and effectively included in regular schools. Accordingly, the Centre for Disease Control and Prevention (2009) advises

that schools should implement training workshops that provide parents with skills to better manage their children's special educational needs. Skills can include identifying communication strategies, listening skills, setting expectations for behaviours, and appropriate praise. Parents also can learn about how to teach their children self-worth and development of a positive self-identity.

The National Association of School Psychologists (2006) also encourages schools to provide parenting classes on effective discipline, particularly as it relates to such issues as homework, school grades, peers, learning programmes and developmental expectations. In addition, schools should provide school-based consultation to parents on effectively managing and merging home and school expectations. Noordien et al., (2008) emphasise that schools should raise funds for parent's workshops on children's rights, parenting skills and basic counselling so that parents can implement inclusive education at home and at the school. They also suggest that a non-governmental organisation could be invited to run a series of workshops on parenting skills. Some of the issues to be discussed during workshops are risk factors such as lack of parent-child attachment, family breakdown and many others as these may in themselves act as barriers to learning. Parents can be provided with information to help improve their home situation. Furthermore, guest speakers can be invited to address gender stereotypes and how these affect the way families' parent children. The facilitators should also stress the need to foster core values such as respect, compassion and kindness in the parenting of both boy and girl children. Naker and Sekitoleko (2009) warn that for training programmes to be successfully implemented, provision of resources is a necessity during training of staff members and other stakeholders.

Hawkins (2009) observes that the facilitators in charge of training should understand that the ability of individuals to grasp information differs and that they should conduct workshops with that in mind. The strategies employed at such workshops should make it possible for parents to comprehend everything that is discussed. Facilitators should therefore make use of charts, posters and any other medium to convey information in a clear manner. Consultants could also assist parents in implementing these approaches at home (Gagnon & Leone, 2001).

In his study carried out in Mpumalanga, South Africa, on the importance of training for parents and teachers, Nkabinde (2007) found that in the studied schools, workshops and meetings were conducted to train teachers and parents on collaboration strategies with the ultimate aim of successfully and effectively including the learner with special educational needs in the regular school. The results of a similar study conducted by Hawkins (2009) in Eastern Cape, South Africa, however, reveal that there was no adequate training for parents on teacher-parent partnerships. Hawkins' (2009) findings concur with Serakwane's (2007) findings which reveal that insufficient and in some cases lack of teacher training and development contributed to social exclusion for learners with special educational needs in regular classrooms in schools under study. In addition, Human Sciences Research Council (Chireshe, 2006) found that in South Africa, lack of training negatively affects the identification of learners' problems. Thus, lack of training for school staff and parents might have a negative effect on the implementation of inclusive education strategies used to successfully and effectively include learners with special educational needs in regular schools.

From the literature reviewed, it is indicative that training of school staff and parents is crucial if learners with special educational needs are to be successfully and effectively included in regular schools. Training empowers school staff and parents with knowledge, skills and attitudes which foster the successful implementation of the inclusive education policy in schools through participation of all stakeholders. As a result, the researcher found relevance in this strategy as relevant to this study.

2.5.1.3 Support and monitoring

Underlying inclusive education is a requirement that all schools be open to all children and have the ability to respond to diversity. If a school has access and no quality it leaves the education system in a position of vulnerability. This implies that access is negatively affected and achievement is also affected. This education is seen to fail to meet the goals of equity and social justice. In South Africa, the Department of Education's policy on inclusive education identifies two approaches to addressing barriers to learning, and these are prevention and support. Further, the Department of Education published the Norms and Standards for Educators in which

teachers' roles are spelled out (Landsberg et al., 2009). With prevention (Donald et al., 2010), education institutions and curricula should facilitate access to an education that is appropriate for all learners.

There is also a focus on social transformation intended to help the occurrence of barriers to learning. On the other hand, support focuses on the provision of education support services to schools, staff, parents/ caregivers and learners (Donald et al., 2010). Thus, at every level of the system, there should be development to accommodate diversity and provide a supportive teaching and learning environment conducive to all. This implies that learning can occur in various ways, but there should be acknowledgement and respect for difference.

As noted in Chapter 1, literature shows that there has been an increase in countries worldwide in a focus on inclusive education. This is because including learners with special educational needs is continuously being viewed as a means of increasing access to education and the practice of social justice and reducing barriers to learning (Maguvhe, 2014). Maguvhe (2014) further added that including learners with special educational needs in regular school may have a positive effect on academic gains and motivate the ability of seeing sameness among all humans. However, despite the general acceptance of inclusive education as essential to redressing past injustices in education, literature (e.g. Maguvhe, 2014; Charema, 2010; Florian, 2008; Forlin, 2013) has consistently pointed the ineffectiveness of most inclusive education programmes. Different authors have suggested ways to effectively implement inclusive education. According to Charema (2010), classrooms are the best places from which to start the practice of inclusive education.

Forlin (2013) accepts that there are possibilities to provide equity in education in regular schools. What is needed is taking a proactive systematic approach supplemented by local input. Naturally, teachers already practice support as part of their daily practices in the classrooms. It, therefore, is the responsibility of the schools to ensure classrooms are fully involving to all learners and there are opportunities for meaning interaction between the teachers and their learners.

Inclusive education demands nothing new out of teachers. Teachers already have knowledge and skills necessary to practise teaching. What they may lack is confidence in the competences they already possess. Thus, with provision of support

systems both within schools and from outside, including learners with special educational needs in the regular classrooms, would not be such an issue (Charema, 2010). This view is shared by Mitchell (2008) who concedes that inclusive education requires support for it to be successful. This support has to come from within the school and outside of this school.

Monitoring and support are important aspects to be considered if any implementation of a programme is to succeed. If inclusion is to be effectively implemented in schools, education officials and other stakeholders should be actively involved in monitoring and supporting the intervention programmes. Education officials (DBST) can have a positive impact on schools' inclusion policies by providing support to teachers (Fitzsimmons, as cited in Ward, 2007). Thus, according to Sugai and Horner and Walker et al. as cited in Sprague (2003), educators in today's schools and classrooms should be supported to adopt and sustain effective, cost effective practices. Gagnon and Leone (2001) confirm that administrative support is critical for successful inclusion programmes. Evidence suggests that support should be visible, predictable and continuous.

Monitoring is a more immediate and continuous process meant to keep things on track and ensure that the right inputs are included for successful implementation of a programme (UNICEF, 2009). According to the Department of Basic Education and MIET Africa (2010), monitoring is the regular collection and analysis of information relating to a programme or intervention. Progress is usually monitored in relation to goals, objectives and activities of the programme or intervention. The purpose of monitoring is to track the progress of activities during implementation and to be on guard for shortfalls and deviations in order to take early corrective action.

The process of monitoring must lend itself to making a comparison between the actual achievement and the targets. Researchers (e.g. Shrestha, Koirala, Bajracharya, Shrestha, Dhakal, Subedi, & Basnet, 2004) pointed out that differences between the target and the achievement are used as feedback to modify the policy. Vermerie (2010) affirms that monitoring the implementation and impact of school inclusion policies and practices allows school officials to determine successful strategies for addressing and correcting underlying teacher and learner concerns. Regular data collection and assessment also provides an opportunity to eliminate

inclusion practices that do not effectively address teacher and learner concerns and to ascertain whether inconsistencies or disparities in implementation occurred. Any inclusion practice or policy adopted by a school should be regularly evaluated to ensure that it effectively reduces barriers to learning and ensure learners' diverse needs are well catered for.

The Department of Basic Education and MIET Africa (2010) add that the primary purpose of monitoring data is to assist implementers and programme managers in knowing how the programme or intervention is functioning and in making decisions. Vermerie (2010) validates that data collection and analysis, to help track the effectiveness of school inclusion policies, should be comprehensive in nature. In particular, it is important to collect and analyse data on the types of concerns that undermine learning and the rate of success for various interventions. In addition, Gagnon and Leone (2001) ascertain that consultants are necessary in monitoring inclusive intervention programmes as they provide support to teachers with record-keeping and data analysis to help assess the effectiveness of the intervention. Continuous access to qualified consultants can assist educators in their attempts to implement procedures with a high level of fidelity (Gagnon & Leone, 2001). Thus, the support of the wider school community in promoting positive teacher attitudes and dealing with incidents which might give rise to exclusion is essential (Murithi, 2010).

According to the Department of Education and Children's Service (Bilatyi, 2012), the District Education Officials' core functions with regards to monitoring and support of inclusion in schools are to: (i) support school principals in ensuring that school planning addresses the implementation of the School Inclusion Policy, this implies ensuring that schools establish the School Based Support Team (SBST); (ii) support school principals in ensuring that each school's admission code addresses needs specific to its community, and this implies that school policies that deal with admission should be crafted in such a way that they include learners with special educational needs; (iii) ensure the District Based Support Team (DBST) provides appropriate services to school communities such as the provision of capacity building workshops; (iv) work with school principals to ensure that mechanisms are developed at a local level to provide appropriate placements for learners requiring temporary alternative placement, this implies referrals by school based support team for learners who are in need of professional specialist services; (v) support school

principals and other school personnel to manage learner diversity. Subsequently, if schools are given support by the education officials (DBST), it could lead to staff commitment in including learners with special educational needs in regular classrooms.

Gagnon and Leone (2001) assert that to maintain positive results, on-going staff commitment and access to technical assistance and consultation from an outside source are important, as well as regular SBST and DBST meetings to review data on learner referrals, identify behavioural patterns, and make data-driven decisions related to programme modification. This, therefore, suggests that stakeholder-willingness to support and implement an intervention programme is critical to its success. Learners show significantly more improvement with teachers who implement a prevention programme consistently (Gagnon & Leone, 2001).

Fundamentally, the successful adoption of any systems-level initiative in matters pertaining to the inclusion of learners with special educational needs requires the support and active participation of stakeholders within the school system to restructure current school-wide practices. A key component to achieving this support and active participation is to ensure that teachers have the knowledge and skills necessary for the full implementation of the school-wide innovation (Feuerborn & Tyre, 2012). This implies that education officials and other stakeholders should fully support the implementation of the inclusive education policy strategies in order for the inclusion of learners with special needs in regular classrooms to succeed.

Considering the crucial role played by monitoring and support in the implementation of inclusive education strategies in schools, Chauke (2009) in his study in Gauteng Province in South Africa, found that the involvement of the Department of Education with regard to learners with special educational needs' access to education was significantly low. Teachers confirmed that the support service they received from the Department in this regard was inadequate. Similar findings were recorded by Bilatyi (2012) in his study conducted in Eastern Cape Province.

Charema (2010) argues that with time, through workshops, seminars and exposure, teachers will build on their experiences and skills, thereby reaching all learners. A team of professionals consisting of (a) the general educator who receives guidance and advice from (b) a specialist advisor (district support team) with access to (c)

other professionals (e.g. psychologists, social workers) and (d) assistant teachers in schools (in South Africa, these are teacher aides) and from parents/ caregivers (Mitchell, 2008) can be professionally developed and prepared for the situation psychologically, socially and attitude-wise (Charema, 2010). The researcher is convinced that developing countries have not yet reached this stage where all regular schools can practice inclusion. For this reason, selected schools could be assisted through professionally developing teachers and properly resourcing them to include all learners. Charema (2010) elaborates that whenever they have an opportunity, teachers can support one another through discussing problems and barriers of inclusion.

At the beginning of any programme is planning, delivery then implementation. To ensure a programme is well implemented, there should be monitoring and support. The Walsall Council (2006) points to the benefit of monitoring. The Walsall Council (2006) argues that within monitoring is tracking the progress of a project and making necessary adjustments. As such, custodians of curriculum implementation such as school principals and the district-based team have to monitor it. Ornstein and Hunkins (2004) acknowledge the Walsall Council's (2006) view that curriculum implementation has to be monitored. It goes without saying that the inclusion of learners with special educational needs has to be supervised (monitored). In monitoring the teaching and learning process for learners with special educational needs, principals and heads of departments are in a position to establish if teachers have the necessary skills to implement the programme and use the appropriate teaching methods or strategies (Ornstein & Hunkins, 2004). Lack of monitoring might influence the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in regular schools. Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2011) accept that successful classroom management needs monitoring.

In South Africa, support for learners with special educational needs is contained in the Education White Paper 6 (Landsberg et al., 2009). In fact, it is said to be the cornerstone of successful inclusive education. The Education White Paper 6 (2001) clearly states that support would be rendered according to the level of need, not the impairment. It is further argued by Donald et al. (2009) that help is needed in classrooms and at various times. It is, therefore, important for the school to link up with other professionals as in Bronfenbrenner's ecosystemic theory

According to Florian (2008), it is those things that staff do in school which define inclusion including teachers and learners having no support. Within the inclusive paradigm are support and the ways in which teachers respond to diversity. Teachers make choices about how group work is structured using their specialist knowledge. While for many, the concept of inclusive education involves systems of schooling organised around difference for learners with special educational needs (Florian, 2008), the researcher would argue that additional provision lies within the professionalism of teachers to determine the support needed for the diverse learners in the classroom. In other words, teachers have a variety of choices to make about what to do for learners experiencing difficulties. Thus, teacher training is a crucial area when examining how teachers will include learners with special educational needs. This means there is need to understand the role of the professional training teachers have received and how well this has prepared them to take up challenges to deal with diversity among learner groups bearing in mind these vary on many directions (Florian, 2008).

The lack of teacher training services and lack of qualified teachers has been found to be one of the major obstacles to achieving inclusive education in Africa (Polat, 2011). The case is not that teachers are not trained but it is quality pre-service/ in-service training programme that is an absolute necessity. These training programmes will equip teachers with essential skills which in turn help them meet the needs of the diverse learners in their classrooms. In Tanzania (Polat, 2011), the government launched the Primary Education Development Programme. The aim of this programme was to ensure that an adequate number of quality teachers are provided, management is efficient when it comes to education delivery as well as ensuring there is a conducive learning and teaching environment for both learners and teachers. Nyoni et al. (2011) have recommended that pre-service training programmes provide student teachers with positive orientation toward disability, developing understanding of what schools can achieve with what is locally available in the area of support.

In countries throughout the world is the acknowledgement of how immensely important in-service education for the professional development of teachers is (McKinney & Steven, 2007). In a paper commissioned by OECD (2008), Coolahan (2002) locates this trend within the wider policy agenda of lifelong learning. Teachers

can receive professional development either within the school or off-school. Research by Frazer et al., (2007) suggests that professional development is an essential part with regards to improving school performance.

An area of concern in the inclusion of learners with special educational needs in regular schools is the availability of resources (Charema, 2010). Charema (2010) points out that schools in rural areas as well as in remote places are less developed. Some schools are under-resourced while others are well resourced. In South Africa, Frempong et al. (2014) report on the poor quality of some schools with limited resources which results in poor performance by learners. In addition, teachers work under conditions characterised by a shortage of resources and lack of support. Similarly, Nyoni et al. (2011) commented that if only schools were well prepared in terms of human and material resources, learners with special educational needs would be attending school with peers without special educational needs. If inclusion is going to work in such areas and places, there is need to do groundwork in both schools and communities (Charema, 2010).

Besides, education authorities, school governing boards, parents, school principals, learners and members of the support staff all need to support the programme. It cannot be ruled out that schools will encounter obstacles of a differing nature according to their various contexts in the way, but then way has to be found around through such as professional development for teachers and awareness campaigns for parents, other learners and the community at large all of which require that there are available funds to undertake these. Sending learners with special educational needs into separate classes or institutions has an alienating effect (this has been found to be particularly true for learners with disability) and is expensive, especially in rural areas, as mentioned earlier (Mitchell, 2008). School have to make provisions for two systems of education in one school.

All and any material that is used in class to support teachers in their teaching and learners in their learning is teaching and learning support material. Teaching and learning support materials are important in the implementation of a programme such as including learners with special educational needs in regular schools. The researcher assumes that the availability and adequacy of teaching and learning materials determines the nature and extent of teaching and learning that takes place

in any classroom. To an extent, it determines the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs will be included and this is the focus of the study. According to Ottenvanger (2002), this includes textbooks, teaching aids, assistive devices and any stationary that assists in the teaching and learning process.

Access and quality of education depend, in part, on teacher support materials. Schneider and Krajcik (2002) point out that teacher support materials are like a compass; they give direction to the teacher on how to enact the curriculum. This implies that teacher support materials are an integral part of the teacher's daily work.

Schools cannot afford to have one standard way of assessing learners for academic gains (Charema, 2010). Some learners require more time and assistance in order for them to complete a task. This, therefore, calls for more professionals in the exam room. If supervised by one teacher, as is the tendency in most regular classrooms and schools, it puts learners with special educational needs at a disadvantage, taking into consideration their limitations.

Funding is central to the implementation of any programme. Nyoni et al. (2011) assert that funding is an important consideration when it comes to including learners with special educational needs in regular schools. Most learners with special educational needs are of limited financial means and, therefore depend on donors. On the other hand, government funding is minimal. Often, this results in high dropout rates among learners with special educational needs when they cannot get funding. According to Article 71 of the Salamanca Statement (1994:7):

Resources must also be allocated to support services for training of mainstream teachers for the provision of resource centres and for special education teachers or resource teachers.

Similarly, Forlin (2012) notes that many countries lack the capacity to implement an education for all approach due to insufficient funding. This view is shared by Ajodhia-Andrews and Frankel (2010) who concede that it has not been easy for developing countries to maintain a suitable funding to support the inclusive education programme. The logic behind the difficulty faced by developing countries, being the huge expenses needed to run such a programme. As a result of its being expensive, inclusive education has not found favour with government budgets in many developing countries (Ajodhia-Andrews & Frankel, 2010).

Including learners with special educational needs in the regular school requires a lot of adaptations to be done to material resources and infrastructure; all of which will require substantial amounts to make sure the programme succeeded. In South Africa, following the introduction of inclusive education and inadequacy with regard to qualified teachers, the government adopted the cascade model of training teachers as it was seen to be cost effective (Shez, 2008). Without financial resources, a programme such as inclusive education would not run well. Thus, governments need to commit themselves to inclusive education implementation budgets. Ornstein and Hunkins (2004) concede that sometimes, implementation of programmes has failed due to shortage of financial support. In regular schools, how funds are managed and materials purchased influences the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs are included.

Financial and material resources are considered an important component for the successful inclusion of learners with special educational needs in regular schools. Schunk (2004) posits that learners need to be kept active by providing and ensuring that their learning environments are rich with hands-on activities and allow for active exploration. In line with this sentiment is the constructivist approach to learning (Prichard, 2009). Some conditions within special educational needs require that learners manipulate and experiment on the learning materials so as to improve their academic competencies. Johanson and Adams (2004) conducted studies in Kenya and Botswana on Vocational Technical Education while Gill and Heyneman (2000) carried out studies in Egypt and Dar (2000) in Tanzania. The results of these studies reveal that curriculum development, delivery and innovation require large financial inputs. The relevance of these results to the study is that with inclusive education comes curriculum development, delivery and innovation which also requires large financial inputs.

The reviewed literature, therefore, provides evidence that in order for learners with special educational needs to be fully included in regular schools and the inclusive education policy to yield positive results, there is need for education officials, teachers, parents and other stakeholders to monitor and support the implementation of inclusion programmes in schools. Monitoring and supporting inclusive education programmes will empower schools, school principals and teachers with necessary tools needed for successful inclusion of learners with special educational needs in

their schools. This, therefore, calls for the examination of the two aspects (monitoring and support) in the regular schools under the present study.

2.6 Empirical Studies

South Africa, like many other countries (e.g. UK, USA, Australia, India, and Bangladesh) has gone through a number of policy reforms and legislation to promote inclusive education (Ahsan, Sharma & Deppeler, 2012). South Africa made education compulsory for all by legislating the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa. Act 108, Section 29(1) of the Constitution states that everyone has a right to free basic education. Moreover, in 2001, South Africa enacted the White Paper 6: Special Need Education (DoE, 2001). The White Paper 6 emphasised that all children can learn and have an entitlement to support (SADoE, 2001).

In order that policy and legislation mandates for inclusive education are translated into improved teaching strategies at the classroom level, Forlin (2010) commented that there is need for reform in the teacher education programmes. Studies (e.g. Martinez, 2003; Romi & Leyser, 2006) have shown that teachers who have gone through a teaching programme that promotes inclusive education have a willingness to include learners from diverse backgrounds, and they are able to create inclusive classrooms (Ahsan et al., 2012).

Abbott (2006) reported that in Ireland, the implementation of inclusive education was met with serious constraints as teachers felt ill-equipped to cope with learners with special educational needs. Similar findings were reported by Molto (2003) who commented that, although education policies in Spain were shifting towards inclusion, the teachers' perceived lack of knowledge and skill was the biggest factor hindering progress. Of interest to note is that Ireland and Spain are developed countries where resources are not as scarce as in developing nations like South Africa, yet the teachers' perceptions on their ability to cope with diversity was not based on resources only but also primarily on their knowledge and experience.

Conroy (2008) argues that while inclusive education is increasingly becoming popular in developed countries such as the USA, Australia, Cyprus, Ireland and

Spain, in developing nations, it can be the only way in which the persons with disability can be educated. Conroy (2008) further points out that the success of special education in developing countries would require more financial and human resources. It is no wonder special education has not been considered highly enough in developing nations, where the majority of learners with special educational needs do not attend school (Singal, 2005).

In India, which is a developing nation like South Africa, the shift towards inclusive education was endorsed with the signing of Salamanca (1994). Singal (2005) writes that this shift towards inclusive education has taken place at policy-level, school-level and more interestingly at media-level. In addition, Singal (2005) argues that with the scarce resources in a country such as India, adopting an inclusive system of education is a viable economic option. Thus, in 1995, the Persons with Disability Act was launched in India with the ultimate aim to facilitate access to and opportunities in education for the greater number of children with disabilities (Singal, 2005).

Hay, Smit and Paulsen (2006) conducted a comprehensive study in South Africa on teacher preparedness for and attitudes towards inclusive education and the inclusion of learners with special educational needs in schools. This study revealed that teachers have a definite lack of knowledge about issues relating to inclusive education. Furthermore, the study revealed that teachers felt unprepared and unequipped to teach in inclusive classrooms. The researcher finds similarity in the study to the current study in that the present study examined the extent to which educators in the regular schools have requisite skills and training to address the needs of learners with special educational needs.

In a study by Engelbretch and Green (2007) with teachers from the Gauteng and Western Cape Provinces in South Africa, with regard to the inclusion of learners with special educational needs in regular schools, it was found that administrative issues, the behaviour of the learner, the teacher's perceived competence and parental involvement were stressful to teachers. Administratively, teachers have to take full responsibility for the learners with special educational needs as well as other learners in the class. The current researcher picked up an issue from the study. It is assumed that teacher role diversifies whether or not there were learners with special educational needs in their classes administratively and otherwise, yet it may not

always be the case. The study by Engelbretch and Green (2007) does not specify the district in particular where the study was conducted. Although learner behaviour and parental involvement were not a focus in the present study, it was worth looking at in passing as the researcher felt it could contribute to the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs were included in the regular school.

In addition, there was the issue of adapting the curriculum and adjusting lesson plans and lesson delivery. With learner behaviour, issues of poor communication skills and short attention span arose. Teachers' lack of competence resulted from inadequate in-service training to prepare them for inclusive education. On the other hand, teachers raised concerns on limited contact with parents and parents' perceived lack of understanding of learners' capabilities. With these teacher concerns, it still was a necessity to establish how teachers included learners with special educational needs, especially in the Western Cape Province seeing as their results at matric level are good. The results of the study could help other provinces in the implementation of inclusive education.

A research on the implementation of inclusive education in mainstream classes by Subban and Sharma (2005) in Victoria, Australia, revealed that teachers are faced with increased pressure as their roles diversify. The diversity of teacher roles in Victoria, Australia is not, in any way, different to that of South African teachers, an aspect picked up by the researcher and found to be of relevance to the study. It is expected of teachers to be sensitive to the variety of modern classrooms and rise to this challenge by adjusting their teaching styles in accordance with the multiplicity of learning styles they are faced with. On closer examination of these research findings, one important factor emerges. Teachers' beliefs and attitudes are critical and crucial in ensuring the success of inclusion since these are likely to affect the way how they commit themselves to the implementation of inclusion for learners with special educational needs in regular schools. At this point, it is clearly evident that the inclusive system places a heavy burden on teachers' shoulders.

A number of studies on inclusion (e.g. Hay et al., 2006; Ladbrook, 2009; Makoelle, 2012; Engelbrecht, 2006; Mayaba, 2008; Pillay, 2004) have been done in South Africa. Although there have been some studies conducted on the inclusion of learners with special educational needs in regular schools, the researcher has not

found much on the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in regular primary schools. Makoelle (2012) assessed the state of inclusive pedagogy in South African regular schools, and the results revealed that teachers are in dark about what constitutes an inclusive pedagogy in the South African context. It is under such circumstances of teachers being in the dark about what constitutes an inclusive pedagogy in the South African context that the researcher, in part, embarked on the examination of the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in the regular schools (in Cape Town, South Africa). While the researcher noted with apprehension these concerns, the present study sought to examine challenges faced with regard to the inclusion of learners with special educational needs in the regular schools and then try to establish what could be done to enhance Inclusive Education as this answered the question on the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs were included in the regular schools.

In 1999, Knight researched in Andhra Pradesh in India on the inclusion of learners with special educational needs and the results showed that there was a reproduction of the segregated special schools within a regular school. It can be noted that the study was conducted over 16 years ago. It is partly for this reason that this study is being conducted sixteen years later in South Africa to find out if there are any similarities or differences to the nature and extent of inclusion in Andhra Pradesh in India. Walton, Nel, Hugo and Muller (2012) conducted a study on the extent and practice of inclusive education in independent schools in South Africa. The study revealed that most independent schools include learners who experience various barriers to learning and employ inclusive practices that are described in the international literature. The present study examined the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in the regular school with the view of establishing among other things the barriers learners encounter and teacher practices in dealing with these learner barriers.

Geldenhuis and Wevers (2013) conducted a study on the ecological aspects influencing the implementation of inclusive education in mainstream primary schools in the Eastern Cape, South Africa. Results of the study revealed that inclusive education has not been implemented effectively in most mainstream primary schools in the Eastern Cape. Across the different levels of the education are issues

hampering the implementation of inclusive education. When addressing the conference on “Towards Inclusive Education in South Africa” in the Western Cape, Thomson (1998) emphasised that it was through high quality professional preparation of teachers that effective implementation of inclusive education depended on. At pre- and through in-service levels, teachers were equipped for and had their knowledge updated in meeting the needs of a diverse classroom population. It is important to examine the state of teacher preparedness in the regular schools as one of the major factors guaranteeing the success of inclusive education for learners with special educational needs. Teacher preparedness may influence their behaviour towards and acceptance of learners with special educational needs in the regular classrooms.

Bothma, Gravett and Swart (2000) investigated the attitudes of primary school teachers from middle class suburbs in the Gauteng province towards inclusive education and concluded that teachers seemed to harbour misconceptions about the South African policy on inclusive education. Their attitudes towards this policy seemed to be negative. Having a positive attitude towards any given task is key in its effective execution. It is also true that humans, teachers included, will invest more effort in programmes they perceive to be positive and functional (Knight, 1999). It became the researchers’ belief that if teachers’ beliefs and attitudes towards inclusive education were not addressed intentionally, they could become a critical barrier to learning and development and the successful implementation of inclusive education; thus the need to undertake this study.

Chireshe (2011) writes that many studies, internationally, have been carried out on the attitude of teachers including trainee teachers towards inclusive education. The results indicate that in most cases, trainee teachers had negative attitudes but females had more favourable attitudes. Further, Chireshe (2011), writing for Zimbabwe, noted that the area of teacher attitudes had not been researched on. Chireshe (2011) based his conclusion on literature reviewed from studies by Maunganidze and Kasaira (2002), Mushoriwa (2002a), Hungwe (2005) and Majoko (2005) which, in short, showed that there is need to examine the attitude of teachers where the nature and extent of inclusion for learners with special educational needs is concerned. Although the study had not considered gender as a factor, it became

of interest for the present study to examine the contribution gender had on the nature and extent of inclusion for learners with special educational needs.

Ajodhia-Andrews and Frankel (2010) postulate that it is not that universities/ colleges do not train teachers on inclusive education and disability but that universities/ colleges concentrate on the pathology of disabilities than instructing on modifications to suit learner needs. In addition, there are not enough programmes to train supervisors of inclusive education. This implies, therefore, that the support given to teachers during monitoring and evaluation might not be enough or proper and, in turn, influence the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in regular schools.

Studies (e.g. Woodcock, 2008; Kuyini & Mangope, 2011; Romi & Leyser, 2006) show that gender is significantly related to teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education. A study on both primary and secondary school level teachers by Woodcock (2008) in Australia found that female teachers were less concerned and had even more positive attitudes towards including learners with special educational needs in their classrooms than their male counterparts. In Israel, Romi and Leyser (2006) and in Ghana and Botswana (Kuyini & Mangope, 2011) also found that female teachers had comparatively more positive attitudes towards inclusive education than males. Bradshaw and Mundia (2006) also conducted a study with Bruneian in-service and pre-service teachers. The results of the study, however, show no significant relationship between gender and attitudes towards inclusive education.

Despite having positive attitudes towards including learners with special educational needs in their classrooms, teachers have their concerns regarding implementation of inclusive education. In a comparative study of Australia and Singaporean teachers' attitudes and concerns about inclusive education, Sharma and Desai (2002) found that teachers were concerned about inadequacy of resources and lack of peer acceptance towards children from diverse backgrounds. Sharma and Desai (2002) also found that teachers were concerned about classroom academic standards that they would decline with the inclusion of learners with special educational needs in their classrooms. Cook's (2002) study in the USA showed that while teachers showed positive attitudes towards including learners with disabilities, they were

concerned about having those children with behaviour disorders or multiple disabilities.

Financial and human resources have also been found to be of concern among teachers. Examining teachers' concerns and attitudes towards inclusive education in Ghana, Agbenyega (2007) found that although teachers had knowledge and skills to deal with children with disabilities, they were more concerned about availability of resources and support services. In South Africa, Oswald and Swart (2011) conducted a study with pre-service teachers, and similar results were also found. From this review of literature, it can be established that teacher concerns about inclusive education are predictors of their preparedness to include learners with special educational needs. This information is valuable when examining the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in regular schools.

2.7 The gap

Inclusion is a journey without an end (process), with all kinds of barriers and obstacles. Some of these barriers or obstacles are visible while others are invisible. In thinking about embarking on this journey, factors such as diversity of learner needs, respect for human rights, observing equal opportunities and observing social justice need to be considered. Further, in an inclusive setting, all children have to have access to any school of their choice regardless of their strengths, weaknesses and disability (Charema, 2010). If any of the factors is not properly considered, then understanding the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in regular schools becomes crucial in order to develop strategies to improve learning for learners with special educational needs.

Studies on the implementation of inclusive education have been carried out (such as Teacher preparedness for inclusive education, Inclusion for learners with special educational needs in Independent Schools, Experiences of therapists regarding support provision in inclusive education, The state of Inclusive Pedagogy in South Africa etc.), and none examining the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in regular schools. In other words, the researcher

has not found any research of this magnitude to have been conducted on the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in regular schools. The researcher can infer that this area has not been researched in South Africa for regular schools. In addition, these studies did not delve deeply into such variables as teacher capacity, selection of students for inclusive education, teacher support and how monitoring could shed light on the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in regular schools.

2.8 Summary

This chapter outlined the conceptual and theoretical frameworks which informed the study. The chapter further reviewed factors on the implementation of inclusive education according to Bronfenbrenner's ecosystemic theory with particular emphasis on connections between learner factors, teacher capacity, support systems in place and monitoring and learner identification. The study also looked into continuous professional development for teachers. Finally, the study reviewed other studies nationally and internationally on the implementation and practice of inclusive education. The next chapter discusses the methodology adopted by the study to find answers to the research questions.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the methodology that was followed in conducting the study. Issues of research paradigm, research approach, research design, population, sample and sampling, instrumentation, validity and reliability, data collection procedures, data analysis and ethical considerations are discussed.

3.2 Research Paradigm

Maree (2007) views a paradigm as a set of assumptions or beliefs about fundamental aspects of reality giving rise to a particular worldview. A paradigm, as perceived by Remler and Van Ryzin (2011), is a logical description of how a particular aspect of the world works. According to Sandelowski (2000), a paradigm is a worldview signalling the view of reality (ontology), knowing the relationship between knower and to-be-known (epistemology), mode of enquiry (methodology) and what is valuable (axiology). This view is shared by Morgan (2014) who asserts that within social science methodology, paradigms are understood as based on abstract systems of interrelated practice and thinking defining the nature of their enquiry using the concepts of ontology, epistemology and methodology.

Ontology is described as the nature of reality that is to be studied while epistemology specifies what can be known about that reality while methodology specifies how the researcher can go about studying practically what he/she believes can be known (Morgan, 2014). Mungunda (2003) describes a paradigm as a frame of reference or mental map through which one can view the world. Morgan (2014) argues that a paradigm is a belief system that has the ability to allow researchers to agree on the most important questions in their field and the most appropriate ways to answer

these questions. Based on the above, it is the researcher's view that a paradigm can be viewed as a reasoned and precise speculation about the answer to a research question. Thus, a paradigm sets down the researcher's intent, motivation and expectations for research.

According to Mackenzie and Knipe (2006), in research, there are different theoretical paradigms some of which are positivism, interpretivism and post-positivism. This study was premised within the post-positivist framework. In the section below is a brief description of the positivist, interpretivist and post-positivist paradigms, as well as the justification of the preferred paradigm.

3.2.1 Positivism

According to Dash (2005), a positivist paradigm is based on the philosophical ideas of August Comte, a French philosopher who emphasised observation and reason as a means of understanding human behaviour. In other words, Comte's view is that true knowledge is based on experience of senses and can be obtained by observation and experiment. Positivistic thinkers have adopted this scientific means of knowledge-generation. In this way, positivism is, thus, understood within the framework of principles and assumptions of science. This view is shared by Babbie and Morton (2010) who argue that positivism believes that social phenomenon can be studied using natural science methods.

Trochim (2006) contends that within positivism, the goal of knowledge is simply to describe phenomena experienced, with the purpose of science being that of sticking to what we can observe and measure. Trochim (2006) further says that positivists believe in the idea that observation and measurement are core in the scientific endeavour.

Noteworthy from these views on positivism is the fact that science is seen as the only way to get to the truth, the understanding of the world well enough, enabling prediction and control of it. Because positivism emphasises an objectivist approach to studying social phenomena, it gives importance to research methods focusing on quantitative analysis, surveys, experiments and the like (Dash, 2005). This lens of viewing the world and the nature of epistemologies has come under heavy criticism. The criticism is based on the divisions between objectivity and subjectivity, private

and public knowledge or scientific and emotional knowledge (Ryan, 2006). Critics of positivists argue that knowledge cannot be divorced from ontology and personal experience, and this view is especially inadequate when it comes to learning about how people live, how they view the world, how they cope with it, how they change it and so on (Ryan, 2006).

Guba and Lincoln (2005) argue that in the process of developing quantified measures of phenomena, positivists' methods strip contexts from meanings and the quantitative measures often exclude members' meanings and interpretations from data which are collected. Another way of looking at these methods is that they impose outsiders' meaning and interpretations on data. Kim (2003) contends that the positivist approach, in its blind faith, can potentially jeopardise the soundness of research in social sciences because methods aiming to draw causal inferences through examining only phenomena that are observable tend to ignore influential contextual factors in organisations.

The limitations of positivism have been identified to include a deterministic view of human beings, an objectivist approach to facts (Rensburg, 2001) which is simply obvious to the assumptions of the researcher. Rensburg (2001) further concedes that positivism has a tendency to preserve the status quo, as the research design has no transformative potential. Due to the above mentioned short-comings, the researcher was not able to use this paradigm as a standalone. It is the researcher's belief that there are multiple realities.

3.2.2 Interpretivism

According to Mackenzie and Knipe (2006), the interpretivist/ constructivist paradigm rests on the intention of understanding the world of human experience. This suggests that reality is socially-constructed (Cohen et al., 2011). This view is shared by Dash (2005) who asserts that knowledge is personally experienced rather than acquired from or imposed from outside. Further, interpretive researchers prefer meaning-oriented methods (Dash, 2005). The assumption is that knowledge and meaning are acts of interpretation, thus, there is no objective knowledge independent of thinking or human reasoning. Within the interpretivist paradigm, the researcher tends to rely much upon the participants' view of the situation being

studied. In addition, participants' background and experiences have an impact on the research (Mackenzie & Knipe, 2006). Cohen et al. (2011) add that interpretivists believe that reality is multi-layered and complex.

While positivism is anchored on objectivity, measurability, predictability, controllability and constructing laws and rules of human behaviour, interpretivism emphasises understanding and interpretation of phenomena and meaning-making out of this process (Dash, 2005). According to Dash (2005), the interpretivist researcher relies on qualitative data collection methods which include personal interviews, participant observations, accounts of individuals and analysis or combines qualitative and quantitative methods (mixed methods). Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) describe mixed method research as a class of research where qualitative or quantitative research techniques, approaches, concepts or language are mixed or combined into a single study.

In terms of assessment, positivists use statistical criteria and conceptions of reality and validity to evaluate the quality of quantitative findings (Guba & Lincoln, 2005). In contrast, interpretivists assess in terms of trustworthiness criteria including credibility, transferability, dependability, confirmability and authenticity criteria including fairness and ontological, catalytic and tactical authenticity (Guba & Lincoln, 2005). The richness and depth of explorations and descriptions it yields through its qualitative approach to research makes interpretivism great in terms of strengths, a quality preferred by the researcher. It is, however, criticised for its subjectivity and that it fails to generalise its findings beyond the situation studied (Maree, 2007). Cohen et al. (2011) concede that qualitative research methodologies are criticised for being based on reactions or opinions rather than on specific facts or details, biased, insignificant, ungeneralizable and idiosyncratic, subjective and short-sighted.

Interpretivist research is also criticised for promoting a relativist perspective. This is the view that everyone makes their own meaning and all views are equal and as such, fails to provide a basis for decision-making (Rensburg, 2001). Further, Rensburg (2001) argues that interpretivist methodology complements quantitative data and broad sweeping overviews with its emphasis on rich contextual detail and close attention to individual life experiences and meaning-making. This study did not

use the interpretive paradigm as a stand-alone paradigm because of the above cited limitations.

3.2.3 Post-positivism

According to Tashakkori and Teddlie (2009), post-positivism is the intellectual heir to positivism which came about as a reaction to the widely discredited axioms of positivism. Similarly, Trochim (2006) describes post-positivism as a wholesale rejection of the central tenets of positivism. This view is also shared by Creswell (2003) who calls it the afterthought of positivism. Ryan (2006) argues that post-positivism, as a knowledge claim, challenges the absolute truth, recognising that there cannot be positive knowledge claims when studying the behaviours and actions of humans as everyone is biased, and this affects one's observations. O'Leary (2010) acknowledges the views of Ryan (2006) and describes post-positivism as a research approach that sees the world as ambiguous, variable and multiple in its realities. It is further argued by O'Leary (2010) that what might be the truth for one person or cultural group may not be for another.

In post-positivism, Eriksson and Kovalainen (2008) argue that the knower and the known cannot be separated as is the case in positivism. Eriksson and Kovalainen (2008) further argue that although human beings cannot perfectly understand reality, researchers can approach it with rigorous data collection and analysis. In this light, post-positivistic approach to research opens the door to multiple methods and different worldviews as well as to different forms of data collection and analysis in an endeavour to provide and justify that rigour in the process of carrying out the research.

According to Trochim (2006), the post-positivism paradigm emphasises the importance of multiple measures and observations each of which may possess different types of error, rendering the need to use triangulation across these multiple errorful sources to try to get a better lead on what is happening in reality. The use of both qualitative and quantitative means of data collection is, thus, encouraged in the study. According to Nieuwenhuis (2007), post-positivism is a useful paradigm for researchers who maintain an interest in some aspects of positivism such as quantification and yet wish to incorporate interpretivist concerns around subjectivity

and meaning, and who are interested in the pragmatic combination of qualitative and quantitative methods.

Post-positivism is usually criticised by positivists (Maree, 2007). The criticism is usually directed towards the interactive and participatory nature of qualitative and quantitative methods used in this approach (Maree, 2007). The bias is, however, compensated for in the use of multiple methods in the data collection process.

According to Cook and Campbell (1979) cited in Mackenzie and Knipe (2006: 223), post-positivist works from the assumption that any piece of research is influenced by a number of well-developed theories apart from and as well as the one which is being tested. Healy and Perry (2000) note that similar to post-positivism are the views contained within realism and pragmatism knowledge claims. Nieuwenhuis (2007) commends that researchers working within a post-positivist paradigm follow critical realist ontology. While realism concerns multiple perceptions about a single, mind-independent reality, pragmatism is concerned with what works best for understanding a particular research problem (Creswell, 2003). Krauss (2005) notes that rather than being supposedly value-free, as in positive research or value-laden as in interpretive research, realism is, instead, value-cognisant and conscious of the values of human systems and researchers. Similarly, Creswell (2003) argues that instead of methods being important as in the positivism knowledge claims, pragmatism views the problem as the most important part, and as such, researchers should use all approaches to understand the problem.

Patton (2002) cited in Mwanza (2008: 112) posits that a pragmatic position implies the choice of a method that considers what works best in a given situation in order to meet practical issues faced in an inquiry and thereby answer the research question. It is the researcher's understanding of the statement that the research question dictates the methods and not the paradigm or method. As such, data collection methods and analysis methods are chosen because they are most likely to provide insights into the problem with no philosophical loyalty to any alternative paradigm (Mackenzie & Knipe, 2006). Flick, Von Kardoff and Steinke (2004) acknowledge the view of Mackenzie and Knipe (2006) on pragmatism, that like realism and post-positivism, it opens the door to multiple different worldviews and different assumptions as well as to different forms of data collection and analysis methods.

Guba and Lincoln (2005) point out that this may be reason why some authors write that realism can also be called post-positivism. According to Maree (2007), others claim that realism is a branch of post-positivism. For these reasons, the weaknesses associated with post-positivism may also apply to realism and pragmatism. In a way, it may appear difficult to separate the philosophies embedded in post-positivism, realism and pragmatism as evidenced in this discussion.

For Bisman (2002), realism recognises that perceptions have certain plasticity and that there are differences between reality and people's perceptions of reality. It is Dobson's (2002) contention that the critical realist agrees that our knowledge of reality is as a result of social conditioning and thus cannot be understood independently of the social actors involved in the knowledge derivation process. Hence, within the framework of critical realism, both qualitative and quantitative methodologies are seen as appropriate for researching the underlying mechanisms that drive actions and events (Healy & Perry, 2000).

It can be noted, therefore, that each of the schools of thought or knowledge claims (paradigms) discussed above has its own strengths and weaknesses but when these are mixed or combined in terms of strategies, approaches and methods; they complement each other. As such, these combinations of approaches neutralise most of the weaknesses and biases of the respective quantitative and qualitative methods and can result in valid data that bring confidence to the researcher's findings. For practical research purposes, there is not an automatic preference for one technique above another. Rather, the purpose of the study and the research question would determine which technique is most appropriate. Hence, the researcher premised this study on this paradigm. The following section gives much clearer details for the choice of paradigm.

3.2.4 Paradigm that guided the present study

The nature of the problem being studied guided the choice of paradigm. The main objective of the study was to examine the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in regular schools in the North Metro District of Cape Town. To get a more holistic picture of the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in regular schools, there was

need for the researcher to be objective to minimise biases, at the same time being subjective enough to have a deeper insight the issues surrounding the inclusion of learners with special educational needs in the North Metro District of Cape Town. Thus, a paradigm that would adequately support positivist and interpretivist ideas at the same time was considered appropriate to guide the present study. Hence, because of its flexibility in the use of quantitative and qualitative approaches in research, the post-positivism paradigm was the philosophical foundation found to support the design of the research in the study.

The researcher in the study wished to maintain an interest in some aspects of quantification (positivism) yet, at the same time, incorporate interpretivist concerns around subjectivity and meaning, hence, the post-positivism was preferred. In addition, the researcher was interested in the use of the pragmatic combination of quantitative and qualitative methods to understand the phenomenon of interest better a thought adopted from Maree (2007). As noted earlier, the post-positivistic paradigm opens doors to multiple methods and different worldviews as well as to different forms of data collection and analysis rendering it fit perfectly for this study as these dimensions are key to this study.

Trochim (2006) concedes that the post-positivist paradigm emphasises the importance of multiple measures and observations, each of which may possess different types of error. As this study focused on examining the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in regular schools, it became the researcher's interest to use different approaches in order to understand the issues involved in greater depth. In addition, the use of triangulation across multiple sources, thus, became a need to get the actual meaning of what is happening in reality. It is for this reason that post-positivists acknowledge that because people are all biased and all of their observations are affected (theory-laden), their best hope for achieving objectivity would be to triangulate across multiple fallible perspectives (Trochim, 2006).

3.3 Research approach

Creswell (2003) describes a research approach as the knowledge claims, the strategies and methods of any research. In a similar vein, Trochim (2006) defines research approach as the structure of research. Trochim (2006) further points out that one can look at research approach as the glue that holds all the elements in a research project together. A research approach can be qualitative, quantitative or a mixed method, depending on answers sought by the researcher (Creswell, 2003). Below is a discussion of each of the three approaches to a study.

3.3.1 Quantitative approach

According to Creswell (2003), quantitative research approach uses positivist claims for developing knowledge. Thus, as an approach in social research, it seeks to apply the natural science model of research to investigations of social phenomena and explanation of the social world. Maree (2007) describes quantitative research as grounded in the positivist research paradigm, systematic and objective in its ways of using numerical data from only a selected subgroup of a universe to generalise the findings to the universe that is being studied. From the definitions, three most important elements of quantitative research can be deduced, and these are objectivity, numerical data and generalisability.

Proponents of the quantitative research approach claim that it is a scientific method with characteristics of control, operational definition, replication, hypothesis testing, objectivity, standard procedures, reliability, validity, empiricism and reproducibility in social science (Ivankova, Creswell & Clark, 2007). Babbie and Morton (2010) say that empiricism is said to be a central epistemology in the natural and social sciences and that it is essentially the same as observation. Further, the empiricists argue that the primary source of all knowledge is to be found in experience and observation as the belief is that unless data are verified by the senses, it cannot be accepted as scientific (Babbie & Morton, 2010). Maree (2007) notes that researchers tend to remain objectively separated from the subject matter within a quantitative research approach. In addition, Maree (2007) argues that as quantitative research

approach is objective, it only seeks precise measurements and analyses target concepts to answer inquiry.

Ryan (2006) sees the quantitative research approach as an approach that tries to link variables (features which vary from person to person), tries to test theories or hypotheses, tries to predict, and tries to isolate and define categories before research starts, then determines the relationships between them. Data collection through this approach has the tendency to reveal generalisable information to a large group of people. In contrast to the qualitative research approach, the quantitative research approach is criticised for its inability to look at individual cases in detail (Maree, 2007). Besides, it is of a highly structured nature; the quantitative research approach prevents the researcher from following up on unexpected outcomes or information (Ryan, 2006). Ryan (2006) further adds that quantitative data are criticised as they often fail to provide specific answers, reasons, explanations or examples. The limitations cited above made it rather difficult for the researcher to use this approach as a stand-alone, prompting a look into what other approaches would say before coming up with an approach that guided the study.

3.3.2 Qualitative approach

In contrast to the quantitative research approach which was found to have flaws as human feelings and emotions were impossible to quantify, the qualitative research approach evolved (Walliman, 2005). Creswell (2007) describes the qualitative research approach as an inquiry process premised on understanding and an approach where the researcher develops a complex and holistic picture, analyses words, and reports detailed views of informants while conducting the study in a natural setting. In other words, the researcher has the chance to visit respondents and gather information on their experiences in their natural surroundings.

Denzin and Lincoln (2005) acknowledge the views of Creswell (2003) that in a qualitative research approach, often, the researcher approaches reality in a constructivist position. Creswell (2003) writes that in a qualitative research approach, knowledge claims are based on constructivist perspective which allows for multiple meanings of individual experiences. Krauss (2005) contends that people impose order on the world as they perceive it in an effort to construct meaning. Further,

qualitative research approach is primarily subjective as it seeks to understand human behaviour (Krauss, 2005). Within the qualitative research approach are strategies of enquiry such as narratives, phenomenology, ethnographies, grounded theory studies or case studies and the researcher collects open-ended emerging data with the primary intent of developing themes from the data.

Qualitative research approaches have been criticised. Mays and Pope (2005:1) have given the following criticisms against the qualitative approaches to research:

Firstly, it is merely an assembly anecdote and personal impressions, strongly subject to research bias. Secondly, the argument is that qualitative research approaches are so personal to the researcher that there is no guarantee that a different researcher would not come to radically different conclusions. Finally, it is criticised for lacking generalisability.

The researcher saw the above cited limitations as having implications for a study such as this one. It is for this reason that the researcher sought to minimise these limitations by mixing the qualitative and quantitative research approaches.

3.3.3 Mixed Methods approach

According to Creswell, Klassen, Clark and Smith (2011), mixed methods approach involves the intentional collection of both quantitative and qualitative data as well as combining the strengths of either to answer the research question. Creswell et al., (2011) further assert that qualitative methods (mainly inductive) are concerned with and allow for the identification of previously unknown processes, explanations of why and how phenomena occur and the range of their effects. In addition, Creswell et al., (2011) point out that quantitative methods (mainly deductive) begin by assuming that investigators gather their evidence based on the nature of the research question and theoretical framework. This view is shared by Johnson (2003) who concedes that mixed methods research approach builds on both quantitative and qualitative approaches and uses them both in a single study and strategies of enquiry employed involve gathering both numerical information as well as text information (Creswell, 2003).

The mixed method approach is premised on post-positivism as well as on the pragmatic and realism ideals as they advocate the use of multiple measures and observations, each of which may possess different types of error and therefore require triangulation to get reality (Trochim, 2006). According to Maree (2007), data collection in a mixed method approach can either be sequential or concurrent. While sequential implies collection of data in phases, concurrent means that qualitative and quantitative data are collected at the same time (Maree, 2007). Creswell (2003) cautions researchers interested in the use of mixed methods approach to be mindful as the approach calls for extensive data collection. Furthermore, it has been deemed time-intensive as it requires the researcher to be familiar with both text and numerical data as well as requiring the researcher to be familiar with both qualitative and quantitative forms of research (Creswell, 2003).

3.3.4 Approach that guided the present study

This study employed the mixed method research approach. Mixed method is defined as the class of research where the researcher mixes or combines qualitative and quantitative research techniques, methods, approaches, concepts or language in a single study (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2009). A mixed method research approach involving concurrently generating and integrating both qualitative and quantitative data was employed. This mixed method approach fitted well with this study as the main objective of the study was to get a deeper understanding of the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in the regular school.

The mixing of both qualitative and quantitative methods was necessary in this study to uncover information and perspectives, increase corroboration of the data and render less biased and more accurate conclusions (Cohen et al., 2011) about issues of inclusion for learners with special educational needs in the regular school. Further, mixed methods provided a more complete picture of the phenomenon under study than would be yielded by a single approach (qualitative/ quantitative), thereby overcoming the weaknesses and biases of single approaches.

The researcher, furthermore, found relevance in using this approach as it addressed both the 'what' (numerical and quantitative data) and 'how' (qualitative) types of

research questions (see sub-research questions) thus integration of the two approaches; quantitative and qualitative. Integration of the two types of data occurred at data collection (combining open ended questions in a survey with closed ended questions) and the data analysis and interpretation (transforming qualitative themes or codes into quantitative numbers and comparing that information with qualitative results) stages.

3.4 The research design

This study used the parallel mixed design also termed “Concurrent design” with results triangulated. According to Bergman (2009), concurrent mixed design is when two or more methods are used at the same time to collect data. Triangulation ensured that biases that might be inherent in any single method should neutralise or cancel the biases of other methods (Maree, 2007; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2009; Bergman, 2009). In addition to reducing bias, Bergman (2009) concedes that concurrent mixed designs reduce costs as data is collected at the same time (qualitative and quantitative) without having to set up another day to visit either schools and collect data; a factor favourable to the researcher at this time of economic hardship and the weakening of the value of the currency (rand) but not compromising research though. Concurrent means that the researcher collected both qualitative and quantitative data at the same time. In this design, both qualitative and quantitative methods of data collection ran simultaneously but independently in addressing research questions (Cohen et al., 2011).

Bergman (2009) concedes that triangulation is a term that has taken several meanings. The honour lies with the researcher with regard to what the researcher wants to adopt. The researcher examines two of the several meanings as might be of relevant to the study. According to Bergman (2009), initially triangulation referred to checking the validity of one interpretation over another. This definition clearly shows triangulation not as involving combining qualitative and quantitative approaches. As is shown during data analysis, the viewpoints of different teachers on including learners with special educational needs are considered in order to come up with a sound conclusion or new knowledge may be uncovered in the process.

Bergman (2009) also explains triangulation as involving the combining of data from different methods such as qualitative and quantitative or qualitative versus qualitative. An example of this is when questionnaire data (quantitative) may be used to check conclusions reached from interviews (qualitative) or observation (qualitative) against interviews (qualitative) and so on. In conducting interviews, making field observations and analysing documents in this study, the researcher was looking for common themes that appeared from data collected in the different qualitative techniques of data collection.

Where triangulation is used to check validity, the argument is that chances of potential threats are most likely reduced. This, in turn, reduces chances of reaching false conclusions. For example, people have a tendency to give researchers responses they (researchers) desire than the honest responses especially in face to face interviews than in questionnaires. The questionnaire responses can be used to check the validity of conclusions drawn from interviews. If the latter instrument confirms the conclusions of the former, then the conclusions of interviews can be held credible. Where there are discrepancies, this may be interpreted in terms of the threats to validity resulting in the need for further investigation. Other than issues of credibility of results obtained from the use of different instruments, the researcher chose to triangulate results to reduce chances of reaching false conclusions.

The parallel mixed triangulation design was seen as appropriate as quantitative methods of data collection enabled the researcher to generate a large amount of data within a short time and guaranteed less time for data analysis as they often employ the use of statistics in this case frequency tables and percentages. According to Bergman (2009), in a parallel triangulation design, qualitative and quantitative data are collected and analysed in parallel, then the conclusions are merged together to develop a more complete understanding. Qualitative methods of data collection were ideal in answering the 'how' questions and results analysed using themes. These kinds of questions have the capability to get deeper understanding of phenomenon under study, that is, the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in regular schools. The use of multiple sources of information enabled the researcher to solicit enough views from different data sources that gave insights into the issues of inclusion for learners with special educational needs in the regular school.

3.5 Population

O'Dwyer and Bernauer (2014), describe population as all individuals or groups that possess the characteristics the researcher aims to investigate. This view is shared by Brynard, Hanekom and Brynard (2014) who concede that population is a large group possessing specific characteristics the researcher wishes to research in order to establish new knowledge. O'Dwyer and Bernauer (2014) have identified two forms of population, and these are "target population" and "accessible population". The ideal population the researcher wishes to generalise is called the target population (O'Dwyer & Bernauer, 2014). However, it is possible not to easily get the ideal population by the researcher. In such a case, the researcher works with the population available or the researcher has access to and this is referred to as the accessible population (O'Dwyer & Bernauer, 2014). The study was conducted in the North Metro District of Cape Town, a population accessible to the researcher.

The population of the study was all teachers (n=402) and principals (n=24). The criterion for choosing this population was that they were from public primary schools in the North Metro District and it was convenient for the researcher to get to each of the schools.

3.6 Sample and sampling techniques

According to Brynard, Hanekom and Brynard (2014), often in research, the population to be studied is of a high magnitude such that it may take the researcher a long time to complete the research. It therefore becomes a necessity to select a smaller group for study purposes and this small group must still be representative of the larger group. The small group selected from the population is referred to as the sample (Brynard et al., 2014). O'Dwyer and Bernauer (2014) also see a sample as being the subset of units that is the result of the sampling process. Mertler and Charles (2010) cited in O'Dwyer and Bernauer (2014) recommended a sample size of between 10% and 20% of the population if it is descriptive research (which the present study was). It is further argued by Brynard et al. (2014) that there are no fixed rules pertaining to sample size but that for a population of about 400

participants, 20% would be the suggested sample. In addition, with such a sample a researcher can confidently regard the sample as representative and results achieved a true reflection of the characteristics of the population.

Brynard et al. (2014) point out that, the technique by which the smaller group is selected is called sampling. This view is shared by O'Dwyer and Bernauer (2014) who concede that sampling is the process of selecting a sample from a population that will be used in the research process. In addition, O'Dwyer and Bernauer (2014) point out that two classes of sampling procedure are generally used in research and these are probability sampling and non-probability sampling procedures. According to O'Dwyer and Bernauer (2014), probability sampling is based on the prevalence in the population of participants during selection. This is to say, every participant has every chance for being selected. If executed carefully, the result is an unbiased sample. Thus, the sample is not very different in terms of characteristics such as gender, age, years of schooling; from the population. Cohen et al. (2011) contend that probability-based sampling procedures (e.g. simple random sampling, systematic sampling, random stratified sampling, cluster sampling, stage sampling and multi-phase sampling) have a more likelihood of having stronger external validity. Where non-probability sampling (e.g. convenience sampling, quota sampling, purposive sampling, dimensional sampling, snowball sampling, volunteer sampling and theoretical sampling) has been used, prevalence is not an issue. As such, the probability of an individual being sampled cannot be established. Non-probability sampling can result in a sample that is not representative of the population (O'Dwyer & Bernauer, 2014).

The researcher purposively chose North Metro District because of the diversity of its schools which may be a true reflection of what transpires in all schools in the province. In purposive sampling, the researcher handpicks the cases to be included on the basis of his/her judgement of their typicality (Cohen et al., 2011). Tashakkori and Teddlie (2009) acknowledge the importance of purposive sampling in research when they proclaim that a researcher purposely selects certain groups of people or individuals for their relevance to the issue being studied.

The sample of the study was sixty teachers (N= 60) randomly selected from the four schools (fifteen from each) who responded to a questionnaire (this agrees with

quantitative research); sixteen teachers purposively selected (this agrees with qualitative research) from the four schools (four from each school) were interviewed and the four principals of the four schools responded to a questionnaire. The use of qualitative and quantitative sampling techniques agrees with the mixed method approach adopted in the study. The 402 teachers were all numbered and placed corresponding numbers on slips of paper to choose the needed respondents. These pieces of paper were then put in a hat. It was from this hat then that the sixty teachers for the questionnaire were randomly selected. To justify the sampling, Kumar (2005:17) observes, "At times, it is advisable to subdivide the population into smaller homogenous groups to get more accurate presentation." The researcher selected the teachers as it would have been difficult to study all the teachers in the district within the time-frame of the study. Further, these sixty teachers were considered representative because according to Van Dalen (2009), O'Dwyer and Bernauer (2014) and Brynard et al. (2014), if you are dealing with descriptive research (which this study is) anything from 10% to 20% of your population is representative. Sixty teachers out of 402 teachers is 14.9%, hence, the sample for the questionnaire is representative.

The criterion for choosing the teachers to be interviewed in the study was that they were teachers who had the most number of learners with special educational needs in their classes. Four principals out of the twenty-four schools were purposively selected to take part in the present study as they were the principals of the four schools chosen for the present study making 16.6%, thus representative. The criterion for choosing these schools was that they were more accessible to the researcher. The four principals answered a questionnaire slightly different from that of teachers. To a great extent, teachers are more of implementers of any programme while principals monitor the implementation. Secondly, while teachers identify by observation learners requiring special educational needs to progress, it is the principal and the District-Based Support Team who take part in administering diagnostic tests and eventually make recommendations for support provisioning.

Unequal sample sizes for the quantitative and qualitative responses were chosen as it would have been difficult and time-consuming to interview sixty teachers in the period with which the research had to be conducted. The individuals who

participated in the interviews were chosen from those who participated in the survey. In other words, the same individuals participated in both qualitative and quantitative responses. A sub-sample for qualitative responses was chosen from the larger quantitative sample. In choosing this sample size (16 teachers for the interviews and 60 teachers for questionnaires), the researcher believed that it was going to allow for both detailed descriptions and statistical analysis, as well as providing a full picture of the situation under study.

According to Bergman (2009) in a concurrent design (chosen research design for the study) it was ideal to use the same individuals participate in both qualitative and quantitative samples to make data and results more comparable, a view favourable to the researcher and nature of research.

3.7 Instrumentation

In the study, the researcher solicited data through the use of questionnaires, interviews, observation and documents. Adoption of the post-positivist paradigm/mixed methods research approach entails selecting data collection techniques that are suitable to the philosophy of both the research methodology and design. Also taken into consideration were the nature of the research problem under examination, size and geographical location of the study elements, the availability of finances, human resources and time. The frequently and commonly used techniques of data collection within a mixed method research are documents (review/scrutiny of relevant documents), interviews, questionnaires and observations (Brynard et al., 2014). Below is a description of each of the instruments used in the study.

3.7.1 Questionnaire

Questionnaires are one of the most widely used methods of data collection. Gray (2004) describes a questionnaire as a research tool with standardised questions orderly and already decided. According to Maree (2007), a questionnaire can be used as both a qualitative and quantitative data collection instrument. This view is

shared by Gray (2004) who concedes that within the body of a questionnaire are either closed or open-ended questions.

Semi-structured questionnaires were used in this study. The semi-structured questionnaire was selected as one of the instruments for the study because it had the advantages of obtaining views on the inclusion of learners with special educational needs in regular schools from many respondents in a short space of time. In as much as this was done within stipulated time, respondents had time to think about answers to questions in the questionnaire. This gave wider and more representative views on the challenges teachers and schools encountered as well as suggestions for improving, thus shedding more light on the nature and extent of inclusion for learners with special educational needs in regular schools. In addition, it allowed for anonymity and privacy which in turn increases the rate of straightforward and truthful responses on sensitive issues (Cohen et al., 2011). The use of the semi-structured questionnaire aligned with the nature of the research (mixed methods) as data could be collected qualitatively and quantitatively (Morse & Niehaus, 2009).

However, the instrument was not without its drawbacks. First, the researcher was not able to clarify uncertainties resulting in bias and distorted answers by respondents. Gray (2004) pointed out that the questionnaire does not give the researcher an opportunity to probe. Thus, the responses had to be accepted as final. In the present study, this was, however, taken care of through the use of the interviews. Second, Grey (2004) puts forward that some respondents do not give much importance to some questions, and this is shown in their decision to withdraw some information of essence. The researcher took care of this in the letter explaining the purpose of the research.

The researcher hand-delivered the questionnaires to the principals of the schools under study. The school principals distributed the questionnaires to teachers. A letter to explain the purpose of the study, assuring anonymity, respect for privacy as well as thanking respondents accompanied the questionnaires to each of the schools. Maree (2007) points out that the questionnaire method of collecting data has a problem where the researcher might not get a high number of questionnaires returned. Where the respondents did not all return the questionnaires on time, the

researcher sent a reminder through the principal and made follow-up visits to overcome this problem.

3.7.2 Interviews

An interview is a face to face confrontation between the interviewer and the participant or a group of respondents (Leedy, 1980). The researcher used interviews because they afforded her a chance to pursue the responses of respondents to clarify some obscure points. The researcher was able to ask for elaboration or redefinition if a response on the inclusion of learners with special educational needs in regular schools appeared to be incomplete or ambiguous. More information was solicited through the personal contact between the researcher and the respondents as that minimized the vulnerability of questionnaires that arises from its impersonal nature.

Maree (2007) describes an interview as a two-way conversation in which the interviewer asks the respondents questions as a way of collecting data as well as learning about ideas, beliefs views, opinions and behaviours of respondents. Remler and Van Ryzin (2011) describe an interview as a tool in qualitative research involving open-ended questions that allow people to respond in their own words. In this regard, it can be said that interviews encourage detailed and in-depth answers. In the study, the researcher asked questions to have a deeper understanding of the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs were included in regular school. Thus, the basic aim of an interview can then be said to be that of collecting rich and descriptive data which will help the researcher to understand the respondents' construction of knowledge about inclusion for learners with special educational needs in regular school. While Remler and Van Ryzin (2011) concede that interviews can be described as either unstructured or semi-structured, Maree (2007) identifies three categories of interviews, namely: open-ended interviews, semi-structured interviews and structured interviews.

Although interviews were used in the study, there are advantages and disadvantages to their usage. According to Brynard et al. (2014), one of the advantages interviews is that, they allow the interviewer to explain his/ her questions where the respondent is not clear. In the case of semi-structured interviews, the

researcher can probe more deeply after the respondents' answer. In addition, Brynard et al. (2014) posit that it is also possible to observe the behaviour of the respondents. The disadvantage of using interviews, according to Brynard et al. (2014), is that people have a tendency to fear committing themselves to telling the truth. Bergman (2014) asserts that people have a tendency to give researchers socially desirable rather than honest responses and this is greater in face-to-face interviews than in questionnaires. To subvert the weaknesses of the interviews, the researcher used the questionnaire as a way of checking the validity of the conclusions drawn from the interview. Further, in terms of qualitative work, interviews provide preparation for quantitative work. In this light, qualitative findings provide explanations for quantitative findings and qualitative findings provide meaning with quantitative findings providing breadth (Bergman, 2014).

Open-ended interviews (unstructured) are described by Maree (2007) as focusing on the respondent's perception of an event or phenomenon being studied. As there is a likelihood of bias in the data collected, Maree (2007) advises the researcher to conduct the interview with more than just one respondent. Remler and Van Ryzin (2011) describe an unstructured interview as the kind of interview where there are no predetermined set of questions. In other words, the interviewer's questions are not prescribed but arise spontaneously in response to what the interviewee says. Where the researcher is embedded (being with the group to be studied, enabling participants to get to know the researcher well and build trust) in a setting for an extended time, it helps in the establishment of trust needed to conduct in-depth unstructured interviews with informants.

Because the researcher knows what he/she wants, it can be said that structure of some sort exists and this could be described as semi-structured interviews. In structured interviews, questions are detailed and developed in advance just like in survey research (Maree, 2007). Since the questions are overly structured, according to Maree (2007), there is not much probing in structured interviews. Further, Maree (2007) concedes that structured interviews are frequently used with large sample groups and in case studies to ensure consistency.

Maree (2007) says that in semi-structured interviews, the respondent is required to answer a set of pre-determined questions defining the line of inquiry. With semi-

structured interviews, Remler and Van Ryzin (2011) assert that the set of open-ended questions is sometimes accompanied by probes and these help guide or structure the discussion. For Maree (2007), probing and clarification of answers are allowed. While ensuring the interview covers substantially the same topics, the guide makes the interview a flexible tool (Remler and Van Ryzin, 2011). Maree (2007) however cautions researchers to be very attentive to respondents' responses so as to identify any new emerging lines of inquiry directly related to the phenomenon being studied. According to Remler and Van Ryzin (2011), there is no order in terms of the way topics come up during the course of the interview and the interviewee can give as much information as he/she can. Because questions are usually followed by a probe, Remler and Van Ryzin (2011) point out that questions are quite few because they are open-ended.

Semi-structured interviews were also used in this study. Information was solicited from sixteen regular education teachers in four regular primary schools in Cape Town on attitudes, experiences, views and perceptions on the implementation of inclusive education in regular primary schools. The views of respondents were tape-recorded and the researcher also used note taking as backup.

The researcher chose this technique as a way of getting in-depth answers to the research questions. In order to understand fully well the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in the regular school, there was need for participants to express how they regarded a situation such as the above from their own point of view which is one of the capabilities of a semi-structured interview, hence, the choice to use the instrument in the study. Besides, it is a flexible and adaptable tool for data collection as the participants are required to answer a set of predetermined questions that define the line of inquiry; enabling multi-sensory channels to be used such as verbal, non-verbal, spoken and heard (Bell, 2005; Cohen et al., 2011).

The researcher also used semi-structured interviews to solicit data from the respondents as they allowed respondents to express themselves at some length, but offered enough shape to prevent aimless movement (Yin, 2003). Cohen et al., (2011: 268) concede that semi-structured interviews provide access to what is inside a person's head, [it] makes it possible to measure what a person knows (knowledge or

information), what a person likes or dislikes (values and, perceptions), and what a person thinks (attitudes and beliefs). In semi-structured interviews, the participant is required to answer a set of predetermined questions that define the line of inquiry. Probing and clarification of answers are allowed. In this type of interview, the researcher needs to be very attentive to the responses given by the interviewee so as to identify new emerging lines of inquiry that are directly related to the phenomenon being studied. In structured interviews, the questions are detailed and developed in advance just like in survey research (Maree, 2007).

The views, perceptions and attitudes of respondents were important to the researcher as he gained insight on issues which affected the implementation of technical vocational education. Views of participants on availability of both financial and material resources were sought from all the respondents. Teachers also had to shed light on how Continuous Professional Development programmes were being conducted in their schools to improve their capacity.

However, although the interview afforded the researcher personal contact, the technique had small coverage because of financial and time limitations, especially in a district like Khami where schools are sparsely located. This aspect is also pointed out by Neuman (2000) and Nachmias and Nachmias (2009) when they concede that, the training, travel, supervision, and personnel costs for interviews can be high. Interviewer bias is also greatest in face to face interviews (Nachmias & Nachmias, 2009; Neuman, 2009). To reduce bias on the part of the interviewer, the researcher adhered to research ethics and data were also collected among many informants. Despite these flaws, the researcher opted for the use of interviews; since an interview, “is a two person verbal conversation initiated by the interviewer for the specific purpose of obtaining research relevant data focused on content specified by the research objectives” (Nkapa, 2007; Robson, 2002).

3.7.3 Observation

Remler and Van Ryzin (2011) point out that sometimes researchers need to make a direct observation of behaviour and that the level of participation usually depends on the setting, research aims and the relationship the researcher has with the setting. During direct observation, the researcher takes notes or records the observations

through still or video photography (Remler & Van Ryzin, 2011). This allows for later reviews and interpretations. Brynard et al. (2014) argue that this technique is most useful when the researcher wishes to determine how individuals or groups react under specific circumstances which can be natural or artificial.

In a similar vein, Remler and Van Ryzin (2011) assert that sometimes to understand a situation better there is need to join in and become a participant observer. Participant observation can take categorisations such as complete participant where the researcher takes on a central role in the setting, participant as observer described as when the researcher spends significant time in the setting, observer as participant in which the researcher finds himself or herself visiting the setting on one of a few occasions and complete observer where the researcher attempts to remain unattracting of attention or does not engage with people in the setting (Remler & Van Ryzin, 2011).

According to Remler and Van Ryzin (2011), with participation in the research comes the advantage of obtaining first-hand perspective many times but this may influence the behaviours one intends to observe. According to Brynard et al. (2014), recording should be done at the precise moment to as this has the advantage of guarding against bias or giving a distorted picture and besides, real life behaviour can be observed with any misunderstandings that may arise clarified. The disadvantage, however, of using observations according to Brynard et al. (2014) is that the presence of an outsider may render results untrue that is respondents may not feel comfortable.

In this study, the researcher adopted non-participant observation with the researcher observing the school climate, environment and school infrastructure. This instrument was preferred for it allowed the researcher to observe learners' participation in and out of class, teacher-to-pupil interaction as well as the use of equipment by learners. Using this instrument, the researcher was also able to observe the students' seating arrangement in their classrooms as well as class management by general education teachers and their teaching strategies. Teachers were observed by the researcher as they conducted their lessons. Further, the researcher was able to observe the state of facilities used by learners as a well as safety measures in place. In addition,

the instrument was favoured as it yielded attractive data affording the researcher an opportunity to gather 'live' data from 'live' situations.

The researcher had a chance to see even participation of these learners in sport in line with the policy on inclusion. This gave the researcher a chance to examine the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in regular schools and in particular in sport for the total development of the child. It is also of great importance to note that it gave the researcher a chance to have an informal interview with both students and teachers as she moved around within the school premises. By so doing, she gained a deeper understanding of the implementation of inclusive education in regular primary schools in Cape Town. The researcher was able to visit some sites such as school gardens, fowl runs, computer laboratories, libraries and specialist rooms.

Nieuwenhuis (2007) asserts that observation is the systematic process of recording the behavioural patterns of participants, objects and occurrences without necessarily questioning or communicating with them. As a qualitative data gathering technique, observation enabled the researcher to gain a deeper insight and understanding of implementation of inclusive education in regular primary schools in Cape Town. It is the view of Nieuwenhuis (2007), that in participant observation, the researcher gets into the situation, but focuses mainly on his/her role as observer in the situation.

This study used observation and in particular participant observation because observational data are attractive as they afford the researcher an opportunity to gather 'live' data from 'live' situations. The researcher was given the opportunity to look at what was taking place in regular primary schools rather than having second hand information. This enabled the researcher to understand the context in which inclusive education is being implemented in schools, to be open-ended and inductive, to see things that might otherwise be unconsciously missed, to discover things that participants may not freely talk about in interview situations, to move beyond perception-based data (e.g. opinions in interviews) and to access personal knowledge (Cohen et al., 2011).

Yin (2003) posits that assuming that the phenomena of interest have been purely historical, some relevant behaviours or environmental conditions will be available for observation. Yin (2003) further points out that such observations serve as yet

another source of evidence in the case study. Observational information is often useful in providing additional information about the area of study. Yin (2003) argues that observation may be so valuable that one may even consider taking photographs at the case study site. At a minimum, these photographs will help to convey important case characteristics to outside observers.

The advantage of observation is that the behaviour is recorded as it occurs and that the observer being an outsider can see phenomena about the situation in which those people involved, may take for granted (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005; Tuckman, 2008). The other advantage of the observer as participant as given by Nieuwenhuis (2007) is that the researcher is uninvolved and does not influence the dynamic of the setting.

Finally, the researcher used observation in this study because it gave her an insight into what was transpiring in schools in the way learners with special educational needs are being included in regular schools. It also gave the researcher a chance to be a participant observer, which gave her a chance to record the views of people as they occurred as well as some salient features and some facial expressions. The facilities and equipment were also observed as well as the infra-structure within the schools. This instrument further gave the researcher a chance to solicit data without being involved and did not influence the dynamics of the setting.

However, the observation technique, like any other techniques, has its own limitations. A central problem of observation is that individuals who are conscious of being under scrutiny are likely to behave differently, usually in the direction of what they perceive to be more socially approved or in accordance with the observer's expectations. Another limitation is that the researcher will miss out on observation because he/she is writing about the last thing he/she noticed. Furthermore, the researcher may find his/her attention focusing on a particular event or feature because it appears particularly interesting or relevant and miss things which are equally or more important, but their importance is not recognised or acknowledged at the time (Hancock, 2008). The researcher used observation schedules to minimize these limitations. These assisted the researcher to concentrate on the core business as stipulated in the study.

3.7.4 Documentary Study/Analysis

According to Leedy and Ormrod (2005), document analysis is a systematically detailed examination of contents of documents for purposes of identifying patterns, themes or biases. Maree (2007), commented that document analysis means focusing on all types of written material that could shed light on the studied phenomenon while Borg, Gall, and Gall (2003) posit that qualitative researchers often study written communication found in natural settings as data sources. Cohen et al. (2011) describe documents in four categories; as public records, personal documents, physical materials and research-generated documents. Research needs to consider either primary or secondary sources or both should there be a need. The sources of document analysis can be primary or secondary. Primary sources are those collected when particular events happen like minute books, clocking registers and students' exercise books. It is an original source. Secondary sources refer to any materials (books, articles) or second hand information (Cohen et al., 2011; Creswell et al., 2007; Merrian, 2008).

The researcher solicited information from documents such as the national document out-lining the policy on inclusion, the school's policy on inclusion, learners' daily attendance register, teachers' plan of work books, school log book, nature and regularity of staff development meetings. Teachers' plan of work books were analysed to determine how they spend their time in the classroom with regards to delivering the curriculum and also their attitudes towards including learners with special educational needs are reflected in their content adaptation to cater for the diverse learner needs in the classrooms. The other documents which were analysed were learners' exercise books to solicit information on quality of work (content), frequency of written work and the amount of work allocated to learners with special educational needs by teachers as well as regularity. In the learners' books, data were also sought on consistent marking of the work by teachers. School log books were also analysed to check on school inspections made by the District-Based Support Team to the schools and their recommendations. Regularity of staff meetings by the schools as well as the nature of the staff development workshops conducted were checked in school log books. Teachers' qualifications as well as staff returns were analysed from school log books. Staff meeting minutes books

were analysed to find information concerning implementation of inclusive education and SGB minutes as well as records to check on issues concerning resources and funding on inclusive education.

In the study, document analysis was also used to determine how different schools interpret and understand inclusion for learners with special educational needs. In addition, the researcher chose the instrument to find out how different instructional techniques affect the kind of education learners with special educational needs receive in regular schools. During the analysis of documents, the researcher tabulated the frequency of each characteristic found in the materials being studied, thus using a quantitative analysis technique on qualitative data.

Analysis of documents in this study complemented interviews and questionnaires in the data collection process. Besides addressing questions which interviews and questionnaires could not answer and enlightening the researcher on some areas which needed clarification, analysing documents was also seen as useful for theory building. The researcher also found the analysis of documents a necessity in the study as collecting data this way did not disturb the daily activities of the participants. Of a disadvantage though was that it was time consuming as numerous documents in the way of the school's policy on inclusion, learners' daily attendance register, learners' exercise books, teachers' plan of work books, school log book, staff minute book (for nature and regularity of staff development meetings), had to be analysed. Another disadvantage is as cited by Brynard et al. (2014) that written materials are not as first hand as interviews or personal observation.

Maree (2007, point to the usefulness of documents for theory building. Documents of this nature can assist to uncover meaning, develop understanding and discover insights. However, the researcher was observant as some of these documents could be counterfeit, as they may not be original documents but only be produced for that moment to serve a certain purpose. Nevertheless, documents reveal what people do or did and what they value. In addition, the behaviour occurred in a natural setting, so the data is of strong validity. Congruence between documents and the research problem depends on the researcher's flexibility in constructing the problem and the related questions (Merriam, 2008).

Document analysis has been criticised by researchers such as Creswell (2002) who conceded that, given its social context and identity, the researcher gives a selective and biased understanding of a document and may even deliberately choose and select particular documents. In using documents therefore, there is need to be careful in how one uses them and they as a data collection instrument should not be accepted solely as literal recordings of events that have taken place. Yin (2003) advises that one needs to remember that every document was written for some specific purpose and some specific audience other than those of the case study being done. In this sense the case study researcher is a vicarious observer and the documentary evidence reflects a communication by other parties attempting to achieve some other objectives.

There is, therefore, a need to be careful as a researcher when using document analysis. Thus, the researcher should approach a document with a critical mind in terms of both the meanings that the author intended to produce and the received meaning as constructed by the audience in differing social situations.

3.7.5 Validity and Reliability

3.7.5.1 Validity

When a design or instrument has the potential to achieve or measure what it was intended for, that is, validity (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005; Brynard et al., 2014). The concept of validity and reliability are multi-faceted; there are many different types of validity and different types of reliability. Validity is an important component of research which tenders the result to be valid or invalid and as such, if the results are invalid, the purpose of research becomes useless. Cohen et al. (2011:105) concede that “validity is thus a requirement for both quantitative and qualitative/naturalistic research.” Whilst earlier versions of validity were based on the view that it was essentially a demonstration that a particular instrument measured what it intended to measure, more recently validity has taken many forms. Cohen et al. (2011) postulate that, in qualitative data, validity might be addressed through the honesty, depth, richness and scope of the data achieved, the participants approached, the extent of triangulation and the disinterestedness or objectivity of the researcher. Validity in

quantitative data is a critical issue and might be improved through careful sampling, appropriate instrumentation and appropriate statistical treatment of the data.

The researcher considered the length of questionnaires, language use and the level of respondents where the instruments would be administered. The respondents were advised not to write their names on the questionnaires to give them confidence and security to respond honestly.

Questionnaires and interviews were administered to the population frame excluding the sample. The teachers and school principals who were not sampled were given questionnaires as well as interviewed. This was to ensure that the language used was understandable and that the categories used were not confusing. The feedback from the respondents in the pilot study led to some adjustments to the questionnaires and interview schedules. The validity of the questionnaire was also established through the Inter-rater method.

3.7.5.2 Reliability

Cohen et al. (2011:117) posit that reliability is “essentially a synonym for consistency and replicability over time, over instruments and over groups of respondents. It is concerned with precision and accuracy.” Reliability can therefore, be viewed as a measure of consistency over time and over similar samples. A reliable instrument for a piece of research will yield similar data from similar respondents over time if the same methods and instruments were to be used.

For the instruments to be reliable, they were edited by the supervisor and a team, which included PhD students. Their main aim was to edit or eliminate irrelevant items and ensure that there was adequate coverage of the topic. This team reviewed the items with respect to readability, clarity, format, ease and adequacy of items and responses. The number of questions were also considered, too many questions could have demotivated respondents. The teacher workloads and responsibilities were considered for both questionnaires and interviews.

The researcher also judged the reliability of instruments by the way participants responded, had to adjust question item where she felt the respondents had

misunderstood it. The responses were also ready for the respondents to ascertain whether correct responses were recorded.

In qualitative research, reliability can be regarded as a fit between what researchers record and what actually occurs in the natural setting that is being researched, that is, a degree of accuracy and comprehensiveness of coverage (Cohen et al., 2011). The researcher, for purposes of reliability, recorded the responses as they occurred using a tape recorder and made back up by note taking.

3.7.5.3 Inter-rater method

The inter-rater method is a type of reliability measure which is used to assess the degree to which different raters/ observers give consistent estimates of the same phenomenon. It has the ability to reduce observer bias which can easily creep in when only one or two people were used to assess the same phenomenon.

In this study, the questionnaire was given to six raters to check if it is suitable for collecting data on teacher perceptions on the inclusion of learners with special educational needs in regular classes and the support and monitoring mechanisms in place to enable regular schools to include learners with special educational needs. The raters agreed that the questionnaire was suitable, hence its validity. The raters were also asked to rate the questionnaire (out of 20) as a measure of homogeneity or consensus. The ratings were correlated, and they yielded a coefficient of 0.6- indicating that to a large extent, the raters agreed that the questionnaire was reliable. Later, the questionnaire was test-run with a group of 10 teachers to see if it worked as intended. After minor modifications, the instrument was adopted for use with the main sample.

3.7.6 Credibility and Trustworthiness

Issues of trustworthiness were addressed through the use of multiple perspectives in data collection. Triangulation of different forms of data that were collected ensured trustworthiness and credibility of the data.

3.7.6.1 Triangulation

Triangulation can be defined as the mixing of data or methods with an aim to cast light upon a topic from diverse viewpoints or standpoints. The study used triangulation at data collection and analysis. This added to the reliability and validity of the research process and the findings as the researcher used more than three sources of data collection methods and large samples of respondents.

3.7.6.2 Member Checking

Member checking is the process of going back to the participants to find out if the analysis or interpretation makes sense to the respondents and reflect on their experiences (Creswell, 2003). According to Lincoln and Guba (1994), member checking also helps in establishing confidence in the findings. The other way of doing it was to allow the research respondents to review the findings from data in order to confirm or challenge the accuracy of the work (Creswell, 2003). However, a few typing errors were detected and corrected by some of the participants.

To establish the credibility of interviews and observations, the researcher did member checking. Thus, the researcher returned to some respondents who participated in the study to comment on whether or not they felt that the data were interpreted in a manner congruent with their own experiences. A few typing errors were detected and corrected by some of the participants in the presence of the researcher.

3.7.6.3 Pilot Study

Pilot testing is necessary to determine if the ways in which respondents understand questions are relatively similar across the group and whether the information is easily accessible to respondents. It is necessary to ensure that the items are such that responses correlate to what the study intends to measure. De Vaus (2001) points out that once a questionnaire has been developed, each question and the questionnaire in its entirety must be evaluated rigorously before final administration. This process is called pilot testing or pre-testing. A pilot study was conducted to check the validity of the questionnaires. Some three neighbouring primary schools which were not in the sample were chosen to conduct the study.

The data from pilot study were analysed and some modifications made especially on some areas where the respondents had suggested that it lacked clarity. On the aspect of interviews the researcher observed that sometimes the time taken was too long. This gave the researcher a chance to adjust with the sampled respondents. The researcher also realised the need to keep the volume of the tape recorder low during interviews. After the pilot study, some amendments were made to the questionnaires and interview guides.

3.8 Data collection

The researcher obtained ethical clearance from the University of Fort Hare then request for permission to collect data in schools from the provincial education, the District Education Office and schools. Questionnaires were distributed to the entire teaching staff at the four schools personally so as to avoid postal delays to and from respondents. Teachers and principals were encouraged to support their quantitative responses by writing comments in the comment box following each of the questions.

During the school visits, the researcher explained the purpose of the research to the entire school staff (teachers and principals) and made an appeal for questionnaires to be completed in the spirit envisaged. A letter explaining the purpose of the study and aspects of confidentiality and anonymity of respondents was given to individual teachers and principals. Respondents read and signed the letter before participating in either the questionnaire or the interviews. The researcher made arrangements for interviews with sixteen teachers and four principals at a time convenient to either parties (interviewer & interviewee). These interviews were tape recorded, transcribed and coded by emergent themes.

As the nature of the research design is concurrent, Bergman (2009) argues that in using concurrent data collection procedures, there is a risk of introducing bias. However, if same participants have been used, the results from one form of data will be proved wrong. In the study, the researcher addressed issues of bias by alternating the order with which participants complete the quantitative and qualitative data collection. This is to say, although data was collected at the same time; the

researcher would collect the qualitative data immediately after the quantitative data collection thus employing a concurrent design at data collection.

3.9 Data Analysis

With the purpose of determining what the available, collected data say and in an endeavour to select the data which can be saved or discarded, analysis of data is undertaken (Brynard et al., 2014). Data analysis occurred during and after the process of data collection was completed. According to Brynard et al. (2014), techniques such as data filtering, mind-mapping and integration of views from different authors may be used in the process. Brynard et al. (2014) note that not all data collected are usually used, thus the researcher selects data which are relevant to the study and that which answers the guiding research questions.

Brynard et al. (2014) refer to this as data filtering. Not only is data filtering a process of discarding unwanted information, it is the first phase in the analysis of data (Brynard et al., 2014). Data filtering was used in the research at findings to enable conclusions. Brynard et al. (2014) argue that data filtering has a tendency of expediting the search for and eventually the analysis of essential data, a quality found to be necessary in this study by the researcher. In conjunction with data filtering, mind-mapping was used. The nature of the study is a mixed method, and the use of multiple techniques in analysing data was seen as necessary in order to reach sound conclusions to the research problem.

According to Brynard et al. (2014), mind-mapping is a technique that enables the researcher to identify critical points and/or topics to the investigation under study. The researcher considered the use of mind mapping in the process of data analysis for its ability to make the search for and the collection of topic-related data simple. In other words, mind-mapping enables in-depth analysis. Besides, with mind-mapping, the researcher was able to filter out irrelevant data until only relevant data remains.

Brynard et al. (2014) further extend data analysis to interpreting and integrating the views of other researchers and authors, thus, making analysed data credible. As different as authors are, so are their view points on the same phenomenon. To an extent, this can be a source of internal conflict for researchers as they battle to find

or ascertain the correct view point. In the study, teachers may have different ways of interpreting the policy of inclusion and thus, their view points on what including learners with special educational needs entails becomes different. It is for this reason that integration of viewpoints from different teachers is considered in order to ascertain the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in regular schools. Besides, it may create new knowledge for other researchers and for further research. In addition, the research is assisted in not accepting anything at face-value but rather questions (probes further), tests and rephrases the viewpoints which might lead to the generation of new knowledge.

As the nature of the study is mixed methods, the results of the qualitative analysis and of the quantitative analysis were then combined at the interpretation level of the research with the data sets buttressing each other.

3.10 Ethical considerations

Ethical issues were important since the study involved human subjects. Leedy and Ormrod (2005) argue that while the use of human subjects is common in research in the discipline of education, the importance of ethical implications cannot be overlooked. Leedy and Ormrod (2005) point out that ethical issues in research fall into one of the following: protection from harm, informed consent, right to privacy and honesty with professional colleagues. Obtaining informed consent, respecting the right to privacy and participation, anonymity, confidentiality, avoiding harm to participants was adhered to during the process of data collection, data analysis and data interpretation. Below is a description of each of the ethical issues.

3.10.1 Informed consent

Before the participants took part in the study, the researcher explained to them what they were getting themselves into. This was to ensure that the participants participated in the study willingly. A brief meeting with the principal and teachers at each of the participating schools was held. The purpose of the meeting was to brief the participants on the purpose of the study, reasons for and benefits of their participation as well as the participants' right to participate or not. The participants

then chose to take part in the study and this they showed through signing the consent form. It was explained to the participants that they had every right to withdraw or pull off at any time during the study should they feel uncomfortable with the proceedings. This rendered participation strictly voluntary. Caution was taken by the researcher not give the full detail of the assumptions guiding the study. Leedy and Ormrod (2005) posit that people may not participate and give information satisfactorily if they have a full detail of the assumptions guiding the study. Rather, the researcher gave to the participants a general idea of what the study was about.

In line with respecting the right to participate willingly, is accessing entry into schools under study. The researcher sought permission through the offices of the District Director, Metro North district to visit the schools and principals of the schools. Creswell (2003) highlights that researchers need to respect research sites in order that after the research, the peace, harmony and stability of sites remains as was before the study without causing any disturbance after the research.

3.10.2 The right to privacy, anonymity and confidentiality in participation

To the researcher, privacy, anonymity and confidentiality are somewhat related. Putting the participants at ease to give information which might otherwise be regarded as sensitive comes with anonymity and the promise to confidentiality. Cohen et al. (2011) describe confidentiality as the act of protecting the rights to privacy of participants by keeping the data sources as confidential as possible while anonymity deals with disguising the identity of participants. Participants' right to privacy and participation was respected in the study. According to Leedy and Ormrod (2005), right to privacy can be achieved through giving code numbers or letters or pseudonyms.

The researcher ensured anonymity (by using pseudonyms during interviews and numbers and letters of the alphabet for names of the schools) and confidentiality (by keeping the data sources as confidential as possible) of all participants was maintained at all times. Thus, no names of respondents were taken or recorded. This was based on the fact that whilst researchers have the right to collect data through, for instance, interviewing people, the researcher in this present study realised that

this was not be done at the expense of the interviewee's right to confidentiality and anonymity (Nachmias & Nachmias, 1990).The researcher, in presenting the results, did not make it obvious to readers who the source of information was. The participants' participation was kept in strict confidence.

3.10.3 Avoiding harm to participants

Leedy and Ormrod (2005) point out that before any research can be conducted, it is essential for the researcher to ensure the participants are protected than exposed to any harm whether physical or psychological. Further, Leedy and Ormrod (2005) note that where participants get exposed to any risk, it should not be any greater than one would have encountered on a day to day basis. In the event that risk to participants is anticipated, the participants should be made aware of such ahead of time. The researcher debriefed the participants of risks that maybe anticipated as was seen fit.

3.10.4 Honesty with professional colleagues

According to Leedy and Ormrod (2005), this involves reporting research findings to colleagues in a complete and honest way. The researcher did not misrepresent what was done and did not intentionally mislead others about the nature of the findings. Further, the data were not fabricated so that they were biased towards a particular conclusion. Where someone's ideas and work were used, the researcher made acknowledgements.

3.11 Summary

In this chapter, the research methodology which included the research paradigm, approach, design, population of the study and the sample and sampling procedures, research instruments, data collection and analysis were discussed. In addition, issues of validity, reliability, trustworthiness and ethical considerations were also discussed. The following chapter presents and analyses/discusses the collected data.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS/ DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents and analyses/ discusses the findings of the study generated from the data gathered through questionnaires, interviews, observations and documents. The researcher decided to present the data and to immediately discuss/analyse them in order to avoid the unnecessary repetition that often characterises work where data presentation and analysis/ discussion are separated into two chapters. The data are presented and analysed/ discussed in line with the questionnaire. Data from the interviews, observations and documents were used to buttress findings/ observations from questionnaires. The questionnaire addresses the objectives of the study which were to:

- examine the nature and extent to which learners with disabilities are included in regular schools.
- assess the nature and extent to which educators who have learners with special educational needs in their classrooms possess requisite skills and training to address those needs.
- find out what monitoring and support programmes are put in place to ensure learners with special educational needs are included in regular schools.
- examine the challenges that are faced in the inclusion of learners with special educational needs in regular schools and.
- explore effective ways of including learners with special educational needs in regular schools in Cape Town, South Africa.

These objectives reflected the main research question and sub- research questions below. In the process of presenting and analysing/ discussing these, data triangulation of different forms of data that were collected took place to ensure trustworthiness and credibility of data and thus reduced chances of reaching false

conclusions. The major research question was: *What is the nature and extent of inclusion of learners with special educational needs in regular schools?* The sub-research questions were:

- How do the schools include the learners with special educational needs?
- To what extent do educators who have learners with special educational needs in their classrooms possess requisite skills and training to address those needs?
- How is the inclusion of learners with special educational needs supported and monitored in the four schools?
- What challenges are faced with regard to the inclusion of learners with special educational needs in the regular schools?
- What could be done to enhance Inclusive Education in schools?

The respondents in the category of principals are identified as follows:

P₁- Principal in school A

P₂- Principal in school B

P₃- Principal in school C

P₄- Principal in school D

Teacher respondents are identified as follows:

T₁₋₄:- Interviewed teachers in school A

T₅₋₈:- Interviewed teachers in school B

T₉₋₁₂:- Interviewed teachers in school C

T₁₃₋₁₆:- Interviewed teachers in school D

With the objectives and the research questions in mind, the questionnaire provided quantitative and qualitative data about the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in regular schools in three parts. Part 1 presented and analysed/ discussed general information pertaining to the questionnaires completed and returned, nature of schools and demographic data about participants, such as, gender, age, qualification and experience. Part 2 comprised 28 statements designed to establish how the inclusive education concept

and practice are embraced in regular schools, assess the nature and extent to which teachers possess requisite skills, find out what monitoring and support programmes are in place, examine the challenges that are faced in the inclusion of learners with special educational needs and explore effective ways of including learners with special educational needs. Part 1 was considered necessary as some trends in behaviour of certain variables in the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs can better be explained through reference to the demographic and general information of the respondents. Part 3 looks at whether or not the research questions and objectives have been addressed.

PART 1

4.2 General Information

This part of the chapter sought to establish the number of respondents who responded to the questionnaire as well as the nature of school from which the respondents operate. Table 4-1 shows the results of the data collected.

Table 4-1: Number of questionnaires returned and nature of the school

Pseudo name of school	Nature of school	Number of questionnaires returned	
		Principals	Teachers
School A	Township primary	1	15
School B	Township primary	1	15
School C	Former Model C primary	1	15
School D	Former Model C primary	1	15
4		4	60

Table 4-1 shows that of the four schools, two schools are in the township while the other two are former Model C schools located in town. In South Africa, education is

provided through two ministries. There is the Ministry of Basic Education and Training (from Grade R-12) and the Ministry of Higher Education and Training (which covers Technical and Vocational Education up to doctorate level). All schools are under the same National Department of Basic Education. The results in Table 4-1 also show that four principals (100%) and sixty teachers (100%) completed and returned the questionnaires.

It was important for the researcher to establish the location of the schools as structural issues such as classrooms and availability of resources are in some cases determined by the nature and location of the school. Wang (2009) found that provision of special educational needs was affected by the location and nature of the school. Contexts such as urban, semi-urban and rural areas were places of location in the study. The study by Wang (2009) found that schools in the urban areas were better resourced than semi-urban and rural schools. Thus, environment played a greater part in the implementation of inclusive education for learners with special educational needs.

It is the State that sees to the construction and maintenance of schools. The State also ensures that schools have furniture and books. Parents contribute to the education of their children through payment of school levies (in some schools), purchase of other stationery, excluding textbooks (in some other schools), uniforms and the general wellbeing of their children. It should be noted that the ministry under which the schools under study fall has both fee and no-fee paying schools. This is the Ministry of Basic Education and Training, and it uses quantiles to categorise schools as paying or not paying. The inclusion of learners with special educational needs can be affected by these schools' different environmental settings, hence the need to want to investigate the nature of schools under study.

4.3 Demographic data

The demographic data related to variables pertaining to the respondents such as gender, age range and qualifications of respondents. The years of experience as a principal and/or teacher were also among the demographic variables examined. Below are the data of each of the variables.

The researcher established the gender of school principals and teachers in the present study to ensure that different opinions across gender are represented. In addition, the researcher wanted to find out if gender had any influence in the nature and extent of inclusion for learners with special educational needs. Table 4-2 below shows the gender of respondents, data which were collected through the Principals' questionnaire and the Teachers' questionnaire.

Table 4-2: Gender of principals and teachers

Pseudo name of school	Category	Gender		
		Male	Female	Total
School A	Principal	1	-	1
	Teachers	4	11	15
School B	Principal	-	1	1
	Teachers	5	10	15
School C	Principal	1	-	1
	Teachers	6	9	15
School D	Principal	1	-	1
	Teachers	4	11	15

Results in Table 4-2 show that three schools (75%) are headed by male principals while only one school (25%) is headed by a female principal. Results also show that in all, there were 19 male teachers and 41 female teachers. These results tend to show gender imbalance among school principals which favours males. However, the gender imbalance among teachers tend to favour females (n=41) over males (n=19).

Item 3 in the teacher interview schedule required respondents to say if gender had any influence in the acceptance of learners with special educational needs in classrooms. The overwhelming response was that gender had a significant influence on the acceptance of learners with special educational needs in the classrooms. Research (e.g. Mushoriwa, 2001; Avramidis & Norwich, 2002; Turner, 2006; Sayed, 2003) has established that gender has an influence on teachers' attitude towards learners with special educational needs. In these studies, female teachers showed a positive attitude towards having learners with special educational needs in the classroom than their male counterparts (Mushoriwa, 2001; Avramidis & Norwich, 2002).

According to Turner (2006), people's attitudes, opinions and values are also influenced by their gender. Similarly, Sayed (2003) argues that gender has a bearing on how events are interpreted. Interview data further established that male teachers were more comfortable teaching in the senior classes whether or not there were learners with special educational needs. In the present study, the respondents' view was that gender had an influence particularly on the grade level one taught. In particular, male teachers indicated that in junior classes, female teachers were better at accepting learners with special educational needs in their classrooms than male teachers.

T₃ commented:

Naturally, women are more caring than men. The nature of women is that they are a loving, patient and empathetic species. Not that we men are not, but they (women) demonstrate these skills better than we do.

T₈ added:

No man can beat the skill of motherhood. Our female colleagues are good at demonstrating motherhood. 'Mem', these children at primary school are still young and the best hands they could be are their mothers' (female teachers).

T₁₄ said:

Children at primary school are young and would need a smooth transition into the youth stage. Who better to do it than the women? I teach a grade 7 class

and find that I would not be a better teacher if at all I were to teach in the lower grades.

The researcher also established through school documents that 75% - 80% of the staff population in schools under the present study were female teachers. In School B, out of a teacher component of 34, there were 5 male teachers and 29 female teachers. Classroom observations also showed that there were mostly female teachers in the lower grades. These results reveal that there are more female teachers in the primary schools than male teachers while the opposite can be said of principals. This could be aligned to other research findings that show that generally women are more favoured to teach in lower ages because of their nurturing and caring attitude in dealing with young children (Brodin, 2007; Ghani, Kerr & O'Connell, 2012; Kilanowski-Press, Foote & Rinaldo, 2010). On evaluating variables related to the implementation of inclusion programs across the State of New York, Kilanowski et al. (2010) found that female teachers out-numbered male teachers at a ratio of 8:1 in elementary schools.

The presence of more female teachers in the present study was not uncommon as The European Commission (2013) has also found that more female teachers was a common scenario in most primary schools in different countries. The European Commission (2013), however, reported that the younger the children, the greater the number of female teachers was, a result confirmed by this study.

The Democratic Government of South Africa has enacted the Employment Equity Act of 1998 which aims to promote equality, elimination of unfair discrimination and achieve employment equity. The signing of this Act in South Africa came about as a result of gender disparities in employment. Assessing gender was equally important to establish if the Employment Equity Act of 1998 was being adhered to in appointment of school principals. Women were found not to be given senior posts of responsibility (Mail & Guardian, 2014).

The finding of this study is that there is gender imbalance in the employment of women in senior positions. It can be inferred that women are still not regarded as equally capable of holding senior positions of responsibility. Olgiati and Shapiro (2002) assert that female supervisors have been found to be generally soft-spoken and are, therefore, not seriously taken by those they are supervising. Reporting for

Dominica, Kelleher (2011) states that in primary schools, there were more female principals than male principals. In this regard, the issue of gender imbalance in primary schools is not confined to South Africa. Although the findings of this study report a contrary case to the findings in Dominica for principals, they are similar to what was established in India by Ghani et al. (2012) who have pointed out that gender disparities have remained deep and persistent in India.

The researcher, in item 2 in the teachers' questionnaire, required the respondents to indicate their ages. Respondents were given age ranges from which to select. The age of respondents was sought to find if any trends can be established as a result. Alhassan (2012) cited in Muguwe (2015) commented that the passage of time was considered an important factor in learning from experience. Table 4-3 illustrates the age ranges of both teacher and principal respondents to the questionnaire.

Table 4-3: Age range of principals (n=4) and teachers (n=60)

Category	Age range				
	20-29 years	30-39 years	40-49 years	50-59 years	60 years & above
Principals			1	2	1
Teachers	6	21	28	4	1

As can be seen from table 4-3, the present study's participants have ages ranging from 20 years to beyond 60 years. The distribution of the respondents by age range revealed that 6 respondents were in the 20-29 years bracket, 21 respondents were in the 30-39 years bracket, 29 respondents were in the 40-49 years bracket, 6 respondents were in the 50-59 years bracket and, 2 respondents were in the 60 years and above bracket respectively. Similarly, interviews were held with teachers across all age groups. Only 6 of the 64 respondents were in the 20-29 years group, which could be described by Carey's (2006) model as being in the practising stage. It can be inferred that the principal and teacher respondents were mature enough for the teaching profession and indeed mature enough to comprehend and appreciate

the issues around the inclusion of learners with special educational needs in regular schools.

Teaching, as a profession, requires mature minds as it is assumed they have the ability to comprehend and discern what is involved in the teaching process, including issues of learner diversity (Chetty, 2004). In a study on continuous professional development of teachers, Muguwe (2015) found that age and experience are related. Thus, the researcher sought to establish if age was one of the indicators of readiness for the teaching profession, especially for teaching for inclusivity.

The minimum entry age for primary school in South Africa is 6 years. Following is 7 years of primary schooling with 5 years of high (secondary) schooling. For one to enrol at any teacher training institution, they should be at a minimum age of 18 years. The teacher training programme lasts over three years. It can be established that the minimum age at which a person would qualify as a teacher in South Africa is 21 years.

It has been established through studies (e.g. Chetty, 2004; Brodin, 2007; Kilowanski-Press et al., 2010; Chhabra, Srivastava & Srivastava, 2011) that most primary schools have mature adults. According to Brodin (2007), a person is said to be mature because he/ she has a lot of experience and knowledge from which to draw. Chetty (2004) stated that the majority of the teaching body in South Africa consists of mature educators. The current study found that 58 of the 64 respondents were 30 years old and above an age that could be considered mature. Brodin (2007) further reports that mature educators show more empathy with learners that experience barriers to learning. A mature female educator represents a motherly figure and is more acceptable to younger children such as those in the primary schools as is the focus of the present study (Kelleher, 2011).

Brodin (2007) further points out that with experience and knowledge, a mature person is thus well equipped to have new experiences from which to learn. The description and qualities of a mature person, as given by Brodin (2007) indicate that in the schools in the present study, the majority of participants were well equipped and with knowledge from which to develop new experiences from.

In order to find out if teachers and principals possessed requisite skills and training to enable them to meet the needs of learners with special educational needs,

participants were asked to indicate their qualifications (item 3 in the questionnaires) as well as their specialisation. This was in line with sub-research question 2. Qualifications, both academic and professional as well as specialisation, were seen to be paramount in understanding participants' skill level in the teaching and learning of learners with special educational needs in regular schools. Table 4-4 below shows the highest professional qualifications of teachers and principals while table 4-5 shows principals' and teachers' specialisations.

Table 4-4: Professional qualifications of principals (n=4) and teachers (n=60)

Question	Category	Response			Total
		B. Ed and above	Diploma and below	Other	
What is your highest professional qualification?	Principals (n= 4)	4 (100%)	-	-	4 (100%)
	Teachers (n=60)	17 (28.3%)	38 (63.3%)	5 (8.8%)	60 (100%)

Table 4-4 shows that all the school principals hold a Bachelor of Education degree and above. All the principals held high academic qualification, which was a contributing factor to their being appointed to that position. Results also reveal that of the 60 teachers who had completed the questionnaires correctly and returned them, 55 (72.1%) had attained a professional qualification while 5 (8.8%) have other non-teaching qualifications. Seventeen (28.3%) had a Bachelor of Education degree and 38 (63.3%) were holding Diplomas in Education.

Table 4-5: Specialisation- Principals and Teachers

Name of school	Location	Category	Special Needs Education		
			Trained	On Training	Not Trained
A	Township	Principal (n=1)	-	-	1
		Teachers (n=13)	-	-	13
B	Township	Principal (n=1)	-	-	1
		Teachers (n=15)	1	-	14
C	Former Model C	Principal (n=1)	1	-	-
		Teachers (n=14)	4	-	10
D	Former Model C	Principal (n=1)	-	1	-
		Teachers (n=15)	2	-	13

Table 4-5 reveals that only 1 (25%) principal was trained in special needs education and 1 (25%) is currently on training towards this specialisation. Two (50%) principals indicated that they have not been trained in special needs education but held other qualifications such as Child Psychology, Counselling and HIV/AIDS. Thus, although it had been noted that principals were professionally qualified, re-training in special needs education was found to be necessary, so as to enable them to handle all learners in their schools effectively. Principals are the leaders and managers of the schools; consequently, their acquaintance with issues related to learners with special educational needs is paramount. This enables them to give their teachers and learners with special educational needs the necessary support and provisioning.

Of the 60 questionnaires given out to teachers, in only 57 did teachers indicate their specialisation. Data in table 4-5 indicate that the majority of teachers (50 = 87.7%) teaching learners with special educational needs have not specialised in special needs education. Table 4-5 also reveals that only 7 teachers (12.3%) have a

qualification in special needs education. Furthermore, table 4-5 reveals that of the 7 teachers with a special education qualification, 6 of these are in School C and School D, schools which happen to be former Model C schools while 1 is from School B in the township. It was further observed from schools' records that all the 7 teachers with a special needs qualification were teaching in the Intermediate Phase (Grades 4-6). Having 7 (12.3%) teachers with a specialisation in special needs education and 50 (87.7%) having no specialisation can only suggest that the inclusion of learners with special educational needs was be-devilled by an inadequate deployment of specialised teachers.

According to the South African Council for Educators (SACE) as well as the Norms and Standards for Educators (DoE, 2000), to be considered professionally-qualified, a teacher must be a holder of an Advance Certificate in Education (ACE). The ACE certificate would enable one to teach from grade R to 12. ACE is offered as a pre-service programme for people aspiring to become teachers or as an in-service programme for teachers who are already practising but are either unqualified or are under-qualified. By offering the ACE programme at in-service level, it is the hope by government to bring a balance between professional insight, skills and subject knowledge (Engelbrecht & Green, 2007). Engelbrecht and Green (2007) further point out that the teacher training programme in South Africa is based on the democratic and learner centred pedagogy that promotes active learning through understanding. As of January 2011, the current South African policy on teacher education demands that the minimum entry professional qualification for teachers should be a Bachelor of Education degree (Department of Higher Education and Training [DHET], 2011).

According to DHET (2011), quality education is determined by the teacher. In this light, Asikhia (2010) concedes that paying particular attention in the design of training programmes is thus critical to the level of a teacher's knowledge of relevant subject areas and teaching experience. Thus, implementation of any programme might get hampered if and when courses fail to take the teacher's level of knowledge into account (Verspoor, 2005). From the information above, one could deduce that the classroom teacher is one of the key variables in the implementation of inclusive education. Teachers then, as curriculum implementers, must be knowledgeable on issues such as content adaptation when faced with learners such as those with learning difficulties. From the information in table 4-4, it can be inferred that there are

professionally-qualified teachers in the schools under study yet under-qualified to teach learners with special educational needs (Table 4-5).

According to Rogan and Grayson (2003), the teacher's own background, training and level of confidence and his or her commitment can have an effect on the implementation of a programme such as the inclusion of learners with special educational needs in the regular class or school. Research by Hansen (2006) cited by Pretorius (2008) confirms that the failure of a programme such as including learners with special educational needs in the ordinary schools is often seen to lie in the quality of teaching provided. Where schools have a good number of professionally qualified teachers, the provision of quality education can be guaranteed.

It is worth noting that the Bachelor of Education degree is awarded after successful completion of three years of training while a Diploma in Education is awarded after successful completion of 2 years of training. At each level, the prospective teacher undertakes a variety of courses and sits for an examination administered by the institution at which training is being undertaken. All this however is under the supervision of the Department of Higher Education and Training. The current position of the Department of Basic Education and Training is that teachers holding a Diploma of Education and below be encouraged to upgrade so that they obtain the minimum professional teaching qualification, which is a B. Ed (DHET, 2011).

Asikhia (2010) has a contrasting view on the effect of teacher qualification when it concerns implementing a programme such as including learners with special educational needs in regular schools. A study in Nigeria, conducted by Asikhia (2010), revealed that for teachers, learners' performance has nothing to do with teacher qualification. Walton (2006) hypothesised that in instances where teachers perceive their training and/or knowledge to be inadequate, they tend to see themselves in a position where they are unable to manage an inclusive classroom. In a similar vein, Romi and Leyser (2006) point out that teachers' level of training and years of teaching experience impact on their self-efficacy beliefs. This study can confirm through interviews that teachers have mixed feelings about the link between training and experience.

The ensuing discussion is a record of teachers' mixed feelings on issues relating to qualification and specialisation in relation to the teaching and learning of learners with special educational needs.

T₃ said:

I do not have a qualification in special education. I hold a general teacher's diploma. Be that as it may, I have not found any difficult having learners with special educational needs in my classroom. For goodness sake, they are just like any other child. I normally give my fast learners some challenging work that will keep them busy while I assist those who need help the most. Besides, parenthood has taught me that there is a great danger in the family when your own children suspect that you love one over the other. That is the same principle I apply with my learners in class. Each and every one of them, I give them according to their capabilities.

T₁₂ added:

While nothing beats a proper qualification and passion when it comes to teaching learners with special educational needs, I feel it is just a fuss over nothing. From long back, in classes there have been learners requiring extra help as they cannot cope on their own. It is unfortunate our country does not have a parallel education system where those who are not academically gifted can take vocational education as early as soon after grade 7. Truly, for some no matter how hard we try; they never catch up but maybe the vocational side will be ideal for them. Unfortunately, vocational colleges only take students who have completed grade 9.

T₁₅ pointed out:

Every child has a right to education. If we say we do not want these learners in our classes, where do we want them to be? It is not like they have a disability that disqualifies them from normal school. They just need the teacher to give a little more of his or her time than would with other learners.

The situation was however different with other teachers though. T₆ said:

I did not have any formal training in special education when I was in college. Twenty years in the field, this is the first time I have learners with disability in my class learning together with others who do not have special educational needs. I feel I do not possess the practical skills to manage special educational needs in class.

T₇ concurred:

I feel teachers need to be retrained. I have 4 learners in my class and they are not coping. My frustration is that by the end of the day, I am exhausted as if I have been teaching a large group. When and if ever the department decides to conduct workshops, it is only for a few hours. I personally strongly condone these theory laden workshops. We should be taken to schools and we see these learners taught practically. Maybe when you see how others adapt the curriculum, you can come back to your school and try to practice what you saw. The problem we find in these workshops if ever they are conducted, you are encouraged to be innovative in ways of helping learners in class. Some of the methods they show do not apply for the cases we have in our classes. At the end, the workshop does not save its purpose.

P₃ gave a substantial response on the effects of qualifications and specialisation in the inclusion of learners with special educational needs at school C. His response was:

At my school, there is team-teaching. Fortnightly, teachers meet to discuss learner progress in their respective classes. It is during these meetings that intervention strategies are planned together and reviewed before the matter is referred to the SBST.

These findings clearly show that teachers have different views in matters of teaching learners' with special educational needs. In addition, specialisation does not seem to be an issue as far as interviewed teacher respondents are concerned.

This study examines the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in regular schools. Smith and Smith (2000) maintain that experiences and beliefs harboured by mainstream teachers are central to the successful inclusion of learners with special educational needs in regular schools.

Item 7 in the teacher questionnaire required that respondents give their personal opinion on whether or not specialisation had an impact in their teaching learners with special educational needs. In table 4-6, respondents had to say whether they strongly agreed, agreed, were unsure, disagreed or strongly disagreed. In the presentation and analysis/discussion, agree and strongly agree and disagree and strongly disagree responses were combined as either agree or disagree respectively. Table 4-6 presents the findings.

Table 4-6: Teacher opinion of the impact of specialisation

Opinion	Response					Total
	SA	A	UN	D	SD	
Trained or untrained teachers can effectively teach all learners in an inclusive school	21	18	-	7	14	60
Training of teachers in Special Needs Education equips them with skills and knowledge that enables them to teach learners with special educational needs effectively	41	15	4	-	-	60
Teachers trained in Special Needs Education have more confidence in handling learners with special educational needs in regular classrooms than those who have not trained in Special Needs Education	34	21	-	-	5	60

Table 4-6 shows that the majority (39=65%) agreed that all teachers whether trained in Special Needs Education (SNE) or not, can effectively teach all learners in an inclusive setting. Of the sixty teachers who responded to the questionnaire, twenty-one (35%) disagreed. It is the finding of this present study that most of those who disagreed were those teachers who had an added training in SNE. However, there were some teachers with a SNE qualification who agreed that all teachers could

teach all learners effectively. All the teachers who did not hold a qualification in SNE supported the view.

From this information, it can be inferred that although a qualification in SNE played a major role in inclusion, within an inclusive setting, all teachers should be ready to teach all children including those with special educational needs. The fact that most of the teachers with a training in SNE disagree, could mean that they feel their training had assisted them gain this knowledge which has enabled them to acquire skills and are now in a position to handle better learners with special educational needs.

Table 4-6 further reveals that 56 (93.3%) were in agreement that training in SNE equipped them with skills and knowledge that enabled them to teach learners with special educational needs effectively. This view is in line with Dandas (2007) who suggested that it was imperative that teachers develop their knowledge and skills as this will enable them to cope with the increasing amount of diversity and complexity in the classrooms, as well as making inclusion a success. It is not certain whether this has applied to all teachers or a certain group (in terms of experience). Therefore, the researcher carried out this research with all teachers, whatever their years of teaching experience. It is widely thought that teachers with more years of experience are better equipped to manage diversity in the classrooms (Brodin, 2007). Ainscow and Sandill (2010) found that experience had no effect on how learners with special educational needs are accepted in regular schools. In other words, teachers need only to have a qualification to be able to manage diversity.

Gestalt psychology states that those interactions that take place between the experience of reality through our senses and one's previous knowledge and experience form our perceptions (Sternberg, 2003). For example, colleagues pass views which can either be negative or positive about learners with special educational needs in regular schools. This pre-conceived knowledge most likely becomes an unavoidable bias influencing the other teacher to accept learners with special educational needs in regular school.

Walton (2006) further acknowledges that knowledge cannot be ignored in inclusive education as teachers' perceptions are formed when previous knowledge and experience interact. The presumption here is that in order for successful inclusion to

occur in the classrooms, the teachers must first believe that they have knowledge and skill (Hay, 2006). Without this belief, teachers have little self-efficacy and may not be able to manage diverse classrooms regardless of available resources and the qualification they possess (Brownlee & Carrington, 2000).

According to Asikhia (2010), teacher characteristics such as qualification, teacher training and experience alone without motivation can hamper the produce of desired results. The researcher's view to the statement by Asikhia (2010) is that teacher concerns such as expertise to handle learners with special educational needs have an effect on the quality of service teachers render and should be considered for the successful and effective inclusion of learners with special educational needs in regular schools.

In a study on Technical Vocational Education in Zimbabwe, Mupinga, Burnett and Redmann (2005) found that students were taught by teachers who had not specialised in the subject matter, a result confirmed by this study. The present study found that the majority of teachers in the schools were general education teachers with no specialisation in special needs education. It, therefore, becomes difficult for such teachers to impart relevant knowledge and skills to learners with special educational needs. The problem about the shortage of expertise in the teacher workforce is not unique to South Africa. Hwang and Evans (2011) pointed out that specialisation was not mandatory across the United Kingdom (UK). Hwang and Evans (2011) commented that across the UK, there were no nationally-mandated qualifications for teachers of pupils requiring additional support needs. A special qualification would only be a mandate for those teachers teaching learners who are either blind or deaf (Hwang & Evans, 2011).

In an interview, T₈ said:

It is unrealistic for our government and policy-makers to expect teachers and other members in the teaching workforce to be able to meet the individual needs of learners with special educational needs, if they have not received the appropriate training.

The study also established that in School A and School B, there was an inadequate number of teachers. The schools are short-staffed. In addition, the majority is under-qualified in the sense that they do not have a qualification in special education. In

School A, not even one teacher has a special education qualification while in School B there is only one.

Ozigi (2003:18) argued that:

No matter how efficient and well intentioned a programme can be, you can hardly achieve success without the support and co-operation of well qualified, dedicated and adequate staff. It is through them that the actual education process takes place. Indeed, high quality teachers are your very best resource asset.

The present study found that the teachers in the Cape Town schools under study lack these qualities cited by Ozigi (2003) which are; a qualification (Special Education), dedication and an adequate number of teachers in a school. This has the potential of affecting these classroom teachers' produce (learners with special educational needs). Makoelle (2012) confirms that poorly trained teachers could be barriers to learning themselves. These teachers cannot articulate the learning content in a way that adequately responds to the needs of learners (Makoelle, 2012). Therefore, where schools have a desire for learners with special educational needs to be fully included in regular schools, UNESCO (2009) stresses the importance of training for teachers as this enables them to be effective in teaching learners with special educational needs. It, therefore, becomes imperative to have teachers who have a specialisation in special education in the regular schools. In the event that there are not such teachers in adequacy, the Department of Basic Education and Training in partnership with the Department of Higher Education and Training should put in place services such as Continuing Professional Development in Special Education.

Makoelle (2012) points out that teachers who received their training during the apartheid period find themselves in a challenging position where they have to teach learners with special educational needs in the regular classrooms. Makoelle (2012) further contends that teacher training courses then did not include courses on inclusive education. A teacher had to get a further training separate from pre-service on inclusive education. This becomes a challenge to both the learners and the teacher and may act as a barrier to learning for learners with special educational needs.

Training of teachers in special education is paramount, as noted by UNESCO (2004d) in that training not only ensures that the methods used as well as the intervention strategies are not only valid but also relevant and are applied correctly. With training and experience, teachers gain knowledge and acquire the experience of using teaching methods and better approaches to the benefit of all learners including those with special educational needs. Ladd (2009) posits that one conducts one's duties on the knowledge one possesses in the particular field. It can be said thus, experts find it easier to lead and manage or teach (as in the present study) in an area where he/ she is knowledgeable and skilled than where he/ she lacks knowledge and skills. Ladd (2009) further points out that where a teacher lacks skills, he/ she may lack confidence in the area. This is in agreement with responses from teacher participants that because of their being less skilled in some cases, they lacked confidence in executing their duties.

According to Hanushek, Kain and Rivkin (2005), when teachers do not have adequate training and experience with learners of diverse needs, these learners with special educational needs pay the price. International and European studies have also alluded to adequate teacher training as an important consideration in matters pertaining to including learners with special educational needs in regular schools (OECD, 2008).

Teachers were questioned about their teaching experience in general education classes in item 4 in the questionnaire. The teaching experience of teachers was sought on the assumption that it has a direct bearing on the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in the regular schools. Under normal circumstances, the expectation is that the more the years of teaching experience, the more informed the teacher is about learner behaviour and needs. Teachers with a vast experience in the teaching field understand problems faced by students in their different learning areas. Besides, such teachers know where to put more emphasis during teaching and learning, they are familiar with learner behaviour and classroom management. Reference is made to table 4-7

Table 4-7: Experience as a principal or teacher

Category	0-5 years	6-10 years	11-15 years	16 years+
Principals (n= 4)			3 (75%)	1 (25%)
Teachers (n= 60)	5 (8.3%)	10 (16.7%)	25 (41.7%)	20 (33.3)

It was observed that the majority of teachers had vast teaching experience. There were 45 (75%) teacher respondents with a teaching experience of more than 10 years while 15 (25%) had a teaching experience of 10 years and less. Data in table 4-7 also show that all the principals (100%) have 11 years and above in their experiences as principals. Before one can become a principal, one is a teacher first; that is, in terms of teaching experience, these principals can also be placed in the group of teachers with more than 16 years of teaching experience.

Interview data revealed that 10 out of the 16 interviewed teachers felt that all teachers could effectively teach in inclusive settings, experience or no experience. The minority (6 out of 16) were in disagreement with the view that experience had no effect on teaching learners with special educational needs. These teacher participants confirmed the finding by Avramidis and Norwich (2002) that years of experience as a teacher had a great impact on the way in which one included learners with special educational needs in the regular classrooms. T₆, being one of the 6 teachers who disagreed with the majority group commented:

Experience makes one to have the necessary skills and competence, which is the essence in the inclusion of learners with special educational needs in the regular schools and subsequently regular classrooms. This was an indication that regular school teachers' confidence in teaching learners with special educational needs could be boosted through experience.

This was also echoed by T₁₃ who emphasised:

On several occasions, I have had these young teachers coming to ask me about how to attend to a particular child in class. On one occasion, I was given a scenario of a child who was always coming to school late. This

particular boy was also giving the teacher a hard time when it came to writing as he will just be gazing all over the class. What I found was that, when orally asking this boy questions related to his school work, he was way above average. His performance I could describe as excellent. And when I suggested that he be given more time to finish his tasks, the learner's grades improved. What I can say from this is that learners do not develop at the same rate and as teachers this we should know, but I want to think my years of experience have contributed immensely to understanding learner behaviour. This boy's gazing all over the class was a sign which the teacher could not decipher. And because the teacher could not decipher the learner's problem, she was frustrated and was on occasion ignoring this boy and concentrated on the fast-paced learners.

This is of major concern because the inclusion of learners with special educational needs in regular classes depends heavily on the teachers' ability to read beyond learners' behaviour and learning patterns (Makoelle, 2012). A different picture was, however, painted by those teacher participants who indicated that experience was not a determining factor when including learners with special educational needs in regular classes. T₄ had this to say:

There has never been sameness in the human race. So, as we enter into these classes, we know that we are going to be faced with a diverse group of learners. Where does innovativeness come in among teachers then? Not everything will be given on a silver plate, some things we have to figure them out ourselves. In training we are encouraged to try out as many methods as we can to assist this learner in class. I believe it is those teachers who are stuck on one teaching method who would talk about experience mattering in teaching. I personally believe that even the teacher coming straight from college can teach learners with special educational needs effectively only if they truly commit themselves. For instance, learners with learning difficulties have always been in class even as we were in school and teachers would give them remedial activities and exercises after school. Are teachers now being confused by the term- special educational needs? Yes, if a child cannot grasp concepts at the same pace and level as the majority, that child needs special attention and is thus described as having special educational needs.

T₁₁ concurred:

Children do not grasp concepts at the same and as teachers we are obliged to cater for the individual differences in the strategies we use to teach. I think as teachers we are confusing physical, neurological and mental disability with educational disability. When a child is admitted in our schools, it would have been seen that this particular child can learn in our various schools, thus it is incumbent upon us as teachers to make sure this is realised for all the learners with support from the school, of course.

T₁₆ added:

Teaching is not just any profession, it is noble. It is those teachers who are willing to go the extra mile who will survive. In the journey, one has to teach beyond the curriculum.

In an interview, a Grade six teacher with 14 years' experience in School B said:

As different as these children are, one cannot rule out the fact that they are capable of learning differently. It could be academic or otherwise. As teachers, we need to be individually equipped and prepared for such challenges, thinking of different ways to make learning a success for these children if they are going to be included.

Data collected from questionnaires also revealed that there were more teachers that had between 11 and 15 years of teaching experience than the 0-5 years, 6-10 years and 16 years and above groups. The second largest group was that of teachers who had 16 and more years of teaching experience. There were few teachers who had a teaching experience of 5 years and less. Table 4.8 also shows that the number of older teachers is more than that of younger teachers when the number of years teaching can be used as a measure. According to Carey's (2006) model, these teachers with a teaching experience of five years and less were described as being in the practising stage. Carey (2006) postulates that at the stage of practising, a teacher has to be assisted if he/she has to be effective, aware and conversant with the developments in the field. This is confirmed during interviews with one teacher respondent who said:

I am recently qualified. During my teaching-practice (attachment), I did not teach in a class where there were learners who required extensive support in order for them to grasp concepts.

Findings from the questionnaires show that the greater number of young teacher is in the field is in the former Model C schools than in township schools.

One of the assumptions of this study was that perceptions of teachers influence their behaviour towards and acceptance of learners with special educational needs in regular classes. The observation in this study was that the majority of teachers (n=45=75%) had more than ten years of teaching experience. Teachers at this stage have had experience to cope with classroom problems, including behavioural and collaborative management strategies.

The teacher serves in various capacities. First, the teacher can be said to serve as a resource and an agent. Second, the teacher can serve in curriculum development committees. Third, the teacher serves in implementing curriculum in the classroom and last, the teacher evaluates the curriculum as in a teaching team. To effectively execute all and any one of these, the teacher needs experience (Gaad & Khan, 2007). Ornstein and Hunkins (2004) and Rogan and Grayson (2003) contend that it is the experienced teacher who has the ability to use the relevant teaching methods in a class of diverse learners. Further, the experienced teacher understands learner interests and individual needs, the content including its adaptation and the relevant materials which have the capacity to tap into learner needs (Ornstein & Hunkins, 2004; Rogan & Grayson, 2003). It can be said, therefore, that it takes the experience of a teacher to be able to translate curriculum from theory to practice. With a lack of teaching experience, such as the teachers with five years and less, this may be difficult.

The study further established that all principals had more than eleven years' experience in their position. According to Rogan and Grayson (2003), curriculum implementation, the implementation of a programme such as the inclusion of learners with special educational needs in the regular schools is anchored on a strong and effective school management. It can be inferred that if management is inexperienced, that can result in a school which is not functioning well and this has an effect on things such as the inclusion of learners with special educational needs

in regular schools. Carey's (2006) model describes any teacher with more than eight years' experience as experienced. From Carey's (2006) model, it can be inferred that all (100%) the principals are experienced and possess adequate administrative and supervisory skills.

Including learners with special educational needs requires skilled personnel at implementation level (teachers) and at monitoring and support level (principals) (Florian & Kershner, 2007). Skilled personnel are competent and have a know-how of the subject matter at hand (Mpofu, 2010). Evans (2003) has found that professionals cannot perform their roles well without specialist knowledge. Teachers with less experience teaching in the schools under the present study is cause for concern as it may have a negative effect on the inclusion of learners with special educational needs in the regular schools.

Having established the teachers' experience, item 9 of the questionnaire sought to find out how teachers rated themselves with regard to teaching learners with special educational needs. Teacher skill included matters of curriculum delivery, that is, strategies teachers use during teaching and learning. Table 4-8 shows information on how teachers rated themselves.

Table 4-8: Teachers' skill in teaching learners with special needs education (n=60)

Not Skilled	Just Skilled	Not sure	Skilled	Highly Skilled
0	16 (26.7%)	37 (61.7%)	7 (11.7%)	0

It emerged from Table 4-8 that the majority of teachers (37=61.7%) were not sure of how skilled they were in matters pertaining to learners with special educational needs and 16 (26.7%) indicated that they were just skilled. Only 7 (11.7%) were confident of their skill level. None of the teachers professed not being skilled or being highly skilled. It was also revealed that 23 (38.3%) teacher participants were, thus, sure of their skill level. From this information, it can be inferred that the majority of learners, some of which have special educational needs, are taught by teachers who lack confidence in themselves. This inference comes at the wake of 37 (61.6%)

teachers indicating that they were not skilled enough. This finding was confirmed during interviews. In an interview with the researcher, T₁₂ commented:

To be frank with you, I am not even sure anymore I joined the right profession. There is a mismatch between what we were taught at University and what I find myself faced with.

Similarly, T₅ lamented:

We have been completing IQMS forms and I personally have been indicating that I need re-skilling but I am not even sure when our forms get to the District Office, the responsible office even takes time to read what teachers say.

The researcher further probed by asking if this was not a matter of the school to first identify the developmental needs of their teachers and then design a School Improvement Plan.

T₅ commented:

I have been a teacher at this school for the past 15 years and never have I heard of a School Improvement Plan. Maybe I never asked on the matter and as such, I cannot attest to its existence. What I know for sure is that we have never had a staff development workshop in line with inclusive education, at both school and District Office levels.

The inadequate District conducted workshops on inclusive education was echoed by all interviewed teacher respondents. This was also confirmed in the questionnaires with school principals. The principals and the interviewed teachers agreed to have had workshops for other learning areas, especially Mathematics, English First Additional Language and Life Orientation. In Malawi, the National Strategy for Teacher Education and Development (2007) pointed out that there is a need for teachers to continue to learn in the subject matter for which they are teaching for effective delivery of any curricula (Selemani-Meke, 2011). It can be inferred from the data collected that the government is not fully committed practically to the welfare of learners with special educational needs.

Item 10 in the questionnaire required respondents to indicate the methods they used in teaching a diverse group of learners. Teachers were asked to rank in order of

importance, indicators of effective teaching and learning for learners with special educational needs. As teacher capacity positively impacts on the way teachers deliver their lessons to ensure learners with special educational needs benefit from the education, it was important to examine curriculum delivery as one of the determinants of the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in the regular classroom. Table 4-9 presents the findings from data collected.

Table 4-9: Teaching strategies used by teachers (n=60)

Motivation	Involve parents	Cooperative learning	Learners' learning style	Consideration of cognitive levels + Assessment
11 (18.3%)	5 (8.3%)	29 (48.3%)	7 (11.6%)	8 (13.3%)

Information on table 4-9 indicates that 29 (48.3%) of the teachers use the co-operative learning strategy. The least used strategy is parental involvement. Only 5 (8.3%) teacher respondents confirmed that they work with parents of learners in the education of their children. Motivation, as a teaching strategy, was used by 11 (18.3%) of the teachers while consideration of cognitive levels in assessment was used by 8 (13.3%) teacher respondents. Of the 60 teacher respondents who completed the questionnaire, only 7 (11.6%) indicated that they used the learners' learning styles in conducting their lessons. This low percentage of teachers who took into account the learners' learning style is somehow disturbing given that research (e.g. Mushoriwa, 2006) has consistently shown that when learners are taught in ways that respond to their unique learning styles, they achieve significantly higher scores. It was also established that the majority of teacher respondents who had said they use co-operative learning were from the former Model C schools.

One of the elements of the foundations of the present study was that learners with special educational needs are not fully included in regular schools. An interesting point emerged from the data where through observation, and the researcher did not notice any differentiation in lesson delivery and in particular, the adaptation of content in all four schools. In all the four schools, the researcher did not see any

Individual Education Plan (IEP) for each of the learners with special educational needs in the various classes. This confirms the sentiments aired by one of the interviewed Township primary schools teacher about learners with learning difficulties when she said that they have large numbers of learners in their classes to do individualised planning. T₇ gave an example to put across her point when she commented:

Imagine you were a public transport operator/ driver and carrying 16 passengers in your car. From nowhere, there is a person on the road. Would you rather save the one person and kill the 16 as the vehicle might veer off the road in an endeavour to avoid hitting this one person?' She went on to say, 'I would rather save the 16 for this one.

The scenario, however, seems to be different in the former Model C schools where there are fewer learners in a class. Learners who have learning difficulties for instance, are given extra lessons after school through a programme referred to as 'Aftercare'. Otherwise, just as in the Township schools, teachers in former Model C schools do not have an Individual Education Plan. Although the principals have indicated that they include learners with special educational needs in their schools, classroom observation suggests otherwise. The researcher observed that in two (50%) of the schools, teachers used the traditional type of teaching where learners are passive participants. In one school (25%), although learners sat in groups, there was no opportunity for the learners lagging behind to participate fully in the group. Much of the work was done by one or two pupils who appeared to grasp the subject matter better than the others. The same learners (those who grasped the subject matter better than the others) get to report back to class if and when the discussion gets that far. In the other school, although there is no IEP, the teacher was seen to move about in the class. In this way, some learners got to have individual attention from the teacher.

It can be observed from the data collected that like in independent schools, co-operative learning was a teaching strategy used by teachers. In studies conducted in independent schools, Walton, Nel, Hugo and Muller (2009) found that in independent schools, teaching strategies often included co-operative learning, peer tutoring,

modified assessment tasks that suit the needs of learners, marking and providing extra-time for learners with barriers.

Information in Table 4-9 indicates that 53 (88.3%) teachers do not involve parents in the teaching and learning of their children. Parents are important stakeholders in the education of their children, more especially those with special educational needs. However, teachers simply overlook the importance of parents in education. Some shortcomings in the inclusion of learners with special educational needs could be attributed to the poor teacher-parent relations.

It emerged from the data in table 4-9 that assessment and the consideration of cognitive levels was another area teachers did not emphasise as only 8 (13.3%) of the teachers who had completed the questionnaire indicated that they used assessment as a teaching strategy. Sentiments on assessment not being particularly appreciated by teachers were shared by some of the interviewed teachers; although their views were split in two. There were those for assessment and others against assessment. T₆ spoke against assessment and said:

Classroom assessment was time consuming. As teachers we have a lot of paper work to have to spend another time invigilating tests/examinations, marking and recording them. I feel the job description of a teacher school be revised. We are expected to teach and these tests take a lot of time which we could have used in the teaching process.

Contrary, T₁₂ commented regarding assessment:

Assessment was important to improve learner performance.

Continuous assessment is important for learners with special educational needs as with all other learners (Mutisya, 2010). Continuous assessment enables teachers to keep a close monitor of children's progress in school work. With continuous assessment, Mutisya (2010) adds that, teachers can see where children may need help, especially those with learning difficulties. The Rogan and Grayson (2003) curriculum implementation theory seriously considers assessment as an important factor in the delivery of any curriculum. This lack of emphasis on assessment by the majority of teachers especially where learners with special educational needs are concerned, was not in line with the Screening, Identification, Assessment and

Support (SIAS) policy of 2014 which states as one of the principles of assessment that assessment should not be for scholastic achievement but to determine barriers to learning, level of functioning and participation to determine support needs.

In light of the above, SIAS (2014) gives guidelines to all those working with learners with special educational needs for the purpose of providing these learners with appropriate support ideal for each and every child as diverse as they are. The inability by teachers to give assessment the priority it deserves shows the gap between policy expectation and the actual implementation. This finding can best be described as when the implemented curriculum becomes different from the intended curriculum. The finding of this study find support in what Rogan (2007) also found. Rogan (2007) found that too often policy-makers focus more on the '*what*' of the desired change in the neglect of the '*how*.'

However, the use of tests exclusively can be faulty as a teaching strategy. At most, teachers set their own tests or examinations, some of which do not serve the purpose for which they are intended. It would be ideal if tests or examinations were done to determine support needs for learners. This can assist students to plan for their future. As Ornstein and Hunkins (2004) argued, students need to see the relevance of any curricula activity for their life such as tests or examinations or else they are not going to be motivated to learn or participate in the learning programme.

In the school, the originator of assessment is the teacher. To a large extent, the assessment of the learners is a crucial teaching skill with a contribution to quality learning for learners such as learners with special educational needs. Inclusion of learners with special educational needs in regular schools and in particular their involvement in assessment in the schools under study confirm Rogan and Grayson (2003) curriculum implementation theory that the kind of strengths and constraints students might bring to the school are crucial. An inexperienced teacher who is also not trained in special needs education will not be able to effectively carryout assessment for learners such as those with learning difficulties. In the case of Cape Town schools under study, where most of the teachers could be described as inadequately qualified to handle learners with special educational needs, learners could have been partially included. This could attribute to the poor performance

exhibited by learners with special educational needs a result revealed from data collected through analysing teacher documents.

It, therefore, becomes imperative for the DBE to re-train teachers in the regular schools in the area of inclusive education. Under-skilled teachers could distort an otherwise naturally-directed curriculum because they lack the knowledge, skills and initiative to adapt and adopt the curriculum plan as already discussed before. Rogan and Grayson's (2003) curriculum implementation theory is further confirmed in this study that teachers play a pivotal role in reform processes and factors such as training and experience influence their capacity to implement a programme such as inclusive education.

While policy is clear on the fact that learners be taught in accordance with their needs, teachers professed confusion where adapting the curriculum to meet the needs of learners with special educational needs in a regular classroom was concerned. According to Landsberg et al. (2011), teachers' beliefs and practices have not changed significantly -a result confirmed by the current study. Although there has been an effort to equip pre-service teacher trainees with knowledge on inclusive education, the study found otherwise. Through field observation, the researcher noted that problems still exist where teachers have to change their belief systems from the old and traditional method of lesson delivery to the current participative and constructivist way of learning. Traditionally, learners are empty vessels that await to be filled while current educationists have established that learners learn and understand better if they are in the driving seat of their learning.

Mutisya (2010) is of the view that it is only when the teacher uses a variety of teaching approaches that he/she is able to effectively assist the learner with special educational needs. Further, these teaching approaches should be tailored and appropriate to the learner's ability and learning process. The use of different teaching methods is also made reference to by Moodley (2002) who argues that training and experience have often helped teachers in regular schools to gain new knowledge and acquire the experience of using different teaching methods.

Most of the interviewed teachers indicated that they did not differentiate their teaching strategies. All learners were taught using the same strategies regardless of

diversity among learners. T₅ brought up the issue of class size as another factor that made lesson delivery a challenge. The respondent reported:

In the township schools, there is over-enrolment of students because of shortage of places in the former Model C schools. They do not want to enrol learners from the township pre-schools, as such, our classes are overcrowded. Imagine, I teach a Grade 5 class and there are 51 learners in the class. How do I get to attend to individual learners or deliver a lesson in more than three strategies let us say, in order to cater for learner differences?

The success of including learners with special educational needs in regular classes/schools is clearly related to teachers, learners and the curriculum (Makoelle, 2012). Makoelle (2012) posits that if there is no inter-dependence of the three variables, these variables can create a barrier to the learning process. The curriculum has to be responsive to the needs of all learners and not for learners to be blamed for not accessing the curriculum in the event that it is not designed to provide the support learners need (Vayrynen, 2003). The teacher has a duty to ensure the curriculum is accessible through his/ her teaching methods or strategies. The teacher also ensures he/ she adapts the content to the level where the curriculum is accessible to all learners without compromising the curriculum goals. In all this, the calibre of students cannot be ignored.

The present study examined the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in the regular schools. It is assumed the teaching strategies employed by teachers determine the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs access curriculum. In addition, there are methods of teaching that have to be considered, and these are determined by individual learner needs. Research (e.g. Makoelle, 2012) has found that the ideal teaching methods for teaching inclusive classes consider the active participation of learners. However, this does not rule out other methods as the teacher sees fit.

Before 1994, teaching and learning in South Africa was dominated by the behaviourist teaching mode which gave the teacher more power to determine the subject content and how it should be taught (Makoelle, 2012). With this approach to teaching and learning, there seemed to be high chances of learner exclusion during teaching and learning as they had little say in what and how they learn. Post-1994

saw the government adopting a humanist approach to teaching and learning (Vayrynen, 2003). This approach is based on the philosophy of constructivism. The ultimate goal in constructivism is the production of learners who are not only creative but are high thinkers (Makoelle, 2012).

Thus, within the learning process, learners are active participants while the teacher's role is to give support. One can say that in this approach, learners are in partnership with the teacher in the process of determining what to learn and how to learn. The study sought to find out what teaching strategies teachers use in teaching and learning as these would determine the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs were included in regular schools. According to Vayrynen (2003), by developing inclusive cultures where there is collaboration and co-operation among teachers and where learning environments which foster collaboration and learner interdependence are created, inclusion can be realised.

PART 2

4.4 Triangulation of responses emerging from the questionnaires, interviews, observations and documents

The study in item 3 of the principals' questionnaire sought to find out if they could describe their schools as inclusive while item 4 required that the respondents identify the categories of special educational needs in their schools by choosing from a tabulated list. Item 5 sought to find out what methods they used to identify them (learners). By establishing if principals identified their schools as inclusive and the categories of disability as well as the methods for selecting learners with special educational needs, the researcher hoped this would shed some light on the nature and extent to which these learners are included in regular schools. In all these items, the researcher was responding to sub-question one of the present research study. Reference is made to table 4-10.

Table 4-10: Principals views on Inclusivity of schools

Question	Responses				Total	
	Yes		No			
	(f)	(%)	(f)	(%)	(f)	(%)
Is your school inclusive or not?	4	100	-	-	4	100
Are there learners with special educational needs in your school?	4	100	-	-	4	100
How would you rate the enrolment of the children with special educational needs in your school in relation to those who have been identified within the wider community?	High		2	50	4	100
	Average		-	-		
	Low		2	50		

From table 4-10, all 4 (100%) principals indicated that their schools are inclusive. These responses from the respondents indicated that the schools have an open-door policy when it comes to learner admission. Any child could be enrolled in any of the four schools in the present study. The results suggest that the schools work within policy guidelines. The United Nations Standard Rules on the Equalisation of Opportunities for Persons with Disability (1993) proposes that countries recognise the principle of equal primary education opportunities in integrated settings. According to Ainscow and Sandill (2010), it is important that inclusive practices should not be understood as leading to development of new technologies, but rather as involving social learning processes within a school that influence teachers' actions and the thinking that informs these actions.

Table 4-10 also shows that in each of the four schools, learners with special educational needs can be found. When principals were asked to rate educational access for learners with special educational needs in their schools, two (50%) indicated that the rate of enrolment could be described as high while the other two (50%) commented that although they included learners with special educational needs in their schools, the rate was low. This could be attributed to inadequate

human and material resources as observed by the researcher. Two of the schools are poorly resourced.

Despite the differing rates of enrolment of learners with special educational needs in regular schools, it is in line with global advocacy such as the Salamanca Statement (1994) when it states that all schools should accommodate all children regardless of their physical, social, intellectual and/or other conditions. In support, Tomko (2006) states that children should learn and grow in environments resembling those that they will eventually work or live in. Kluth, Villa and Thousand (2001) further pointed out that within inclusion was a commitment to educate each child to the maximum extent possible in the school he or she would otherwise attend in the neighbourhood if it were not of the special educational needs. It can be commented that all schools under the present study adhered to that as they enrolled learners with special educational needs in their schools.

In line with the first sub-research question, item 5 in the questionnaire required teachers to show by ticking(in the given table) the categories of special educational needs that are in their classrooms while for principals, this was item 3. Teachers and principals were given a choice of 13 categories as recommended by the National Council for Special Education (NCSE) (2014) from which they would choose. Table 4-11 presents the summary of findings in all four schools while table 4-12 shows the same results by school.

Table 4-11: Categories of special educational needs in schools

Category	Number of principal respondents (n=4)	Number of teacher respondents (n=60)
1. Autism	0	0
2. Blindness	0	0
3. Deafness	0	0
4. Emotional Disturbance	4	47
5. Hearing Impairment	1	3
6. Intellectual Disability	2	11
7. Multiple Disabilities	0	0
8. Orthopaedic Impairment	2	2
9. Other Health Impaired	4	28
10. Specific Learning Disability	4	57
11. Speech or Language Disability	0	0
12. Traumatic Brain Injury	0	0
13. Visual Impairment	4	15

Source: *Children with special educational needs: Information Booklet for parents*, (NCSE) 2014.

Results pertaining to categories of special educational needs as given by principals and teachers in Table 4-11 indicated that there were learners with disabilities in

schools. There were 57 teachers and 4 principals who indicated that there were learners with specific learning disabilities in the schools. While all the 4 principals indicated that there were learners who show Emotional Disturbances, only 47 teachers also confirmed the availability of learners who are emotionally disturbed in the schools. Three teachers indicated that there were learners who are hearing impaired while 15 teachers indicated that there were learners who are visually impaired in their schools. Four principals and 28 teachers indicated that in their schools, there were learners who because of health issues required special educational needs. Information from table 4-11 further shows that there are two principals and two teachers who confirmed the availability of learners with orthopaedic impairments in their schools, and these impairments had an effect on the children's learning, and as such, they required special educational needs. The results suggest that emotional disturbance, specific learning disability and health related factors account for the majority of special educational needs learners in the schools under the present study. This could mean that in the regular schools under the present study, there is no need to make serious structural adjustments such as building of ramps, revamping walls to accommodate the deaf learners.

Table 4-12: Categories of special educational needs by school

Category	School	Number of principals	Number of children
Emotional Disturbance	A, B, C, D	4	47 (A=21; B=15; C=7; D=4)
Hearing Impairment	D	1	3
Intellectual Disability	A, B	2	11 (A=8; B=3)
Orthopaedic Impairment	B, D	2	2 (B=1; D=1)
Health-related Impairment	A, B, C, D	4	28 (A=11; B=5; C=4; D=8)
Specific Learning Disability	A, B, C, D	4	57 (A=23; B=15; C=8; D=11)
Visual Impairment	A, B, C, D	4	15 (A=2; B=2; C=6; D=5)

From Table 4-12, four schools had learners who are emotionally disturbed. The total number of learners was 47 (School A=21; School B=15; School C= 7; School D=4). Table 4-12 also shows that in the four schools, there are learners who have health related impairments. The total number of learners was 28 (School A=11; School B=5; School C=4; School D=8). The table further shows that while there were learners with specific disabilities in the four schools, there were also learners with visual impairment. The total number of learners with specific learning disabilities was 57 (School A=23; School B=15; School C=8; School D=11) while there were 15 (School A=2; School B=2; School C=6; School D=5) learners with visual impairment. School D had 3 learners who are hearing impaired, while schools B and D had learners with Orthopaedic Impairments (B=1; D=1) and schools A and B had learners demonstrating Intellectual Disabilities (A=8; B=3). These results show that indeed, schools are inclusive.

Teachers were also asked, in interviews, to give the types of disabilities in their schools. All teachers interviewed (n=16) indicated that there are learners with learning difficulties in their schools.

T₂ said:

We do not have any handicapped learners enrolled in our school. The students I see in classes are those who experience difficulties in learning. For another child, one can see from their behaviour that this child is emotionally disturbed.

Asking teachers to give categories of learning difficulties was not easy. Information from interviewed teachers revealed that teachers were not quite clear on differences between intellectual disabilities and specific learning disabilities.

T₆ said:

Learning disability has to do with one's inability to process information in his/her intellect, if this becomes confined to a specific area, then it is no longer an intellectual disability but is described as a specific learning difficulty.

This could account for the results collected through the questionnaire for principals. Results of the questionnaire show many principals indicating that in schools, there were many disabilities. According to Jennings (2007), literature suggests that

children with learning disabilities were found to be three times more likely to have emotional disturbances and behaviour problems. This observation is also seen in Table 4-11 and Table 4-12 where all the four principals indicated that there were learners with emotional disabilities in their schools. The Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) (2007) defines emotional disturbance as a condition that adversely affects a child's educational performance characterised by an inability to learn that cannot be explained otherwise; intellectual, sensory or health. When a child is emotionally disturbed, he/she exhibits inappropriate types of behaviour or feelings under normal circumstances. Given the behavioural issues related to emotional disturbance, educating such a student often presents a bigger challenge to inclusion than the actual learning (Jennings, 2007). Looking at the characteristics of emotional disturbance, it is no wonder there is a large number of respondents who have indicated that in schools, there are such learners, and they identify them as having special educational needs.

In all, Table 4-11 and Table 4-12 show that many schools are now moving towards inclusivity. The tables also show a relative prevalence of learners with disability in our schools; hence the need to drive towards inclusive education in regular schools.

In item 5 of the questionnaire for principals and item 6 for teachers, the researcher explored the methods with which schools' identified learners as having special educational needs before admitting them. This was important not only for finding out if policy strategies are adhered to in regular schools, but also for establishing the nature of inclusion in schools. Table 4-13 shows the methods used by the school principals to identify learners as having special educational needs.

Table 4-13: Methods used in schools for identifying learners as having special educational needs

Criteria	Category	Frequency	Percentage
1. Professional assessment (medical model)	Principals	1	25%
	Teachers	15	25%
2. Observations (Formal & Informal)	Principals	4	100%
	Teachers	60	100%
3. Parent Interviews	Principals	4	100%
	Teachers	60	100%
4. Other (diagnostic tests-school referrals)	Principals	4	100%
	Teachers	60	100%

Table 4-13 shows that in one school (25%), the principal sought the services of professionals in the assessment for special educational needs before a student can be enrolled in the regular classroom. Fifteen teachers (25%) confirmed this. It is also clear from table 4-13 that the majority (75%) did not use the services of professionals when conducting assessment for classifying learners. In all the four schools, observation, parent interviews and school referrals were conducted when students were already in school.

Responding to an interview item on what method teachers used to identify learners as having special educational needs, all principals indicated that learners must show academic difficulties before learners can be identified as having special educational needs. The teachers were unanimous in the four schools under the present study.

T₁ said:

To me, a child has academic problems when his/ her academic achievement is low. After this, I make a background check by talking to teachers of the

previous grade. I also invite the parents/guardian or caregiver of the particular child and talk to them. When I have all the information I need, I inform the principal.

The same was said by the other three interviewed teacher respondents in School A. From School B, T₆ agreed:

We regard students as having special educational needs if they have a significantly greater difficulty in learning than the majority of students of the same age and/ or the child has a disability which prevents/hinders him/her from making use of facilities of a kind generally provided for others of the same age in the school.

T₉ from School C said:

At our school we have a checklist that we follow. This checklist outlines the procedures teachers must follow, documents to refer to, a record of interventions and their effects. In following the checklist, as teachers we work with parents or guardians and other colleagues to implement interventions. Intervention usually lasts 4 to 6 weeks then the teacher can document the effects of the particular intervention.

T₁₀ from School C added:

Where the student has not shown improvement, additional intervention is implemented. If no progress is noted in a period of say three months, that particular student is then referred to the School-Based Support Team (SBST). The SBST co-ordinator usually schedules a meeting with the principal, parents and a professional specialist who in most cases has been the Educational Psychologist based at the district office. Student cases are treated as differently as they are.

At School D, they seemed to follow a similar process for identifying learners as having special educational needs as in School C. Like School C, the teacher is at the beginning of the identification process. Unlike in School C, in School D the class teacher refers the identified student to the SBST. The SBST at the school meets weekly and sometimes as often as needed to address the performance of the students referred to them. Interventions for the student are tried and sometimes they

are not effective. In such cases, the SBST completes a checklist which is meant to help the classroom teachers distinguish between the various learning difficulties. The classroom educator may take 2 weeks to 10 weeks to complete this checklist. The researcher established from interviewed teacher respondents in School D that classroom interventions usually include modifications in areas of curriculum, teaching methods or classroom management.

NCSE (2013) proposes that assessment before students are enrolled in school is particularly important as it helps ameliorate the difficulties the child experiences before these difficulties become more deeply entrenched which might lead to resistant to intervention. Not assessing students before enrolling them can be an indication that some important information on barriers to learning is not captured. Where an early intervention could have helped curb resistance by any barriers to learning, it is left until too late and it becomes difficult to help this learner with special educational needs (Scruggs, Mastropieri, Berkeley & Graetz, 2010). It is clear from table 4-13 that all the schools (100%) referred learners for assessment by a professional where a student was not benefiting from the education programme in the school.

Interview data revealed that while all four (100%) schools conducted diagnostic tests in their schools, there was no standard test for all four schools. Interviews with the school principals revealed that in Township primary schools, they worked closely with the District Based Support Team (DBST) while it was a different case in the former Model C schools.

Principals were also asked on how their schools included learners with special educational needs. Principals were given options such as full time enrolment in resource centre, placement in special classes or placement in regular class on a full time basis. Information solicited from principals through questionnaires revealed that in former Model C schools, learners with special educational needs were partially included as they attend numeracy and literacy classes separate from other members of their class. In township primary schools, all children attended the same class. There was not withdrawal at any given time. Township primary schools could probably not withdraw learners at given times because they did not have the resources and facilities to do so. It is the researcher's opinion that in such cases, as

in former Model C schools, learners with special educational needs are integrated and not included.

The use of tests by schools in identifying students could disadvantage some students who become victims of educational exclusion because of home environments such as abusive families, child headed families and other children who might be categorised as 'at risk'. Such an act (using standardised tests) clearly indicates that ingrained attitudes by the school administration do not easily fade away. It confirms the Overcoming Resistance to Change model which assumes that the success or failure of a new programme rests on the ability of implementers to change (Ornstein & Hunkins, 2004). The study found that school administrators (principals) are grossly anchored on one of the forms of assessment at the expense of the others such as involvement of parents (for learner history), class observation (for outstanding behaviour) etc. School principals greatly dependent on this criterion were probably still following what was happening during their own schooling times where test results were used to categorise learners for academic advancement (Moyana, 2009). However, the use of tests is still practised even with the new curriculum, CAPS (DoE, 2012).

As South Africa comprises learners of different races, ethnic groups, 11 official languages, religions, and/or different socio-economic backgrounds, factors of which may cause barriers to learning, there is need for schools and teachers to enable learners to be included in the classroom (Makoelle, 2012). Learners need to begin to know and learn to respect and tolerate one another's differences. Guidance and counselling is an important factor for effective and efficient inclusion of these learners in the regular schools as some learners often feel out of place in regular schools as a result of their being different from the majority. When schools do not provide for such a service, this could affect the manner in which learners with special educational needs settle in regular schools. Learners who feel different from the others often have a negative attitude towards school and as such, lose interest of it out rightly. Hilgard and Godwin's theory of learning states that where learners are helped to settle into a learning environment or the learning process, such learners engage in activities most willingly (Doll, 2008).

Musaazi (2002) advises that schools should give learners pre-inclusion sessions so as to assist them to settle into the new environment and also help the receiving school peers to accept the incoming friends embracing difference. Information from data collected through interviews revealed that in three of the four schools (75%), learners were denied the services of orientation. Rather, it is the parents of these learners who were addressed. The study further revealed that in one of the four schools (25%), although parents and their children were taken through orientation, it was not clear if the receiving parties had such a service provided for them. Neglecting guidance and counselling could have a negative impact in preparing learners for the present community and the world of work, as proposed by the human capital theory (Musaazi, 2002).

Writing about the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989), Werthelmer (2007) states that the constitution requires that learners with special educational needs be educated in regular schools and the schools in question make the necessary changes/ adjustments to make educational access for learners with special educational needs receive education to their maximum extent possible. Writing for Kenya, Mutisya (2010) says that before learners can be identified as having special educational needs, formal and informal observations, and in some cases, tests, have to be conducted. Similarly, in South Africa, Landsberg et al. (2011) found out that there are many ways to gather information on a learning need such as assessment results, observations and interviews. The National Council for Special Education (2013) argues that it is not important how schools get to classify learners as having special educational needs, of importance is that identifying a child as having special educational needs must have a great benefit of informing the development of teaching and learning for the student.

The inclusion of learners with special educational needs in the regular school is an important factor in the realisation of an Education for All by combating discriminatory attitudes, creating welcoming communities and building an inclusive society (UNESCO, 1994). If this is not considered, learners with special educational needs would not have an equal access to education. In South Africa and according to the National Strategy on Screening, Identification, Assessment and Support (SIAS) (2014), in place is a process whereby students are identified, assessed and

programmes are put in place for such learners requiring additional support that in turn enhances their participation in inclusion.

According to SIAS (2014), students can be identified as having special educational needs before a child enrolls in school or when the child is already in school. Before a student can be enrolled in school, medical records from health professionals can inform the school on any medical issues the student has. The argument is that these records may impact on education access by the student. Identification when the child is already in school can look at factors of the curriculum, teaching methods, classroom management and emotional disturbance. These factors have a tendency to prevent or hinder a child from benefiting from the education programme in the school despite measures having been put in place to meet his/her educational needs (SIAS, 2014).

Item 7 on the questionnaire required teachers to indicate if learners with special educational needs should be educated after all. As a follow-up, item 8 then sought to find the teachers' views on the placement option for learners with special educational needs. Teachers were required to choose from the following options: option A: Special Schools, option B: Regular Schools, option C: Home Schooling and Option D: Not Sure. Table 4-14 details teacher preferences.

Table 4-14: Teachers' perceptions on the placement for learners

Question	Response				Total
	Yes		No		
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	
Should learners with special educational needs be educated after all?	60	100	-	-	60 (100%)
	Special schools	Home schooling	Regular schools	Not sure	Total
What placement option would you suggest for learners with special educational needs?	(f) (%)	(f) (%)	(f) (%)	(f) (%)	
	40 66,6	-	16 26.6	4 6.6	60 (100%)

Table 4-14 reveals that all the 60 (100%) teachers are of the view that learners with special educational needs be educated. From the results, 40 (66.6%) teachers strongly supported the education of learners with special educational needs in special schools while 16 (26.6%) are for the education of these learners in regular inclusive schools. Only 4 (6.6%) respondents have mixed feelings where it concerns the education of learners with special educational needs. Results in table 4-14 reveal that 4 respondents are not sure of the placement option for learners with special educational needs in as much as they agree that they should be schooled.

Having 16 (26.6%) of the respondents in support of a regular inclusive schools was found to be of great concern when it comes to the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in regular schools. When teachers have a negative attitude towards having learners with special educational needs in the regular school, as shown by the results, it raises a lot of questions about the extent to which such learners are accepted and accommodated in regular schools and classes.

Mushoriwa (2001) advises that, before the implementation of such a programme as inclusive education in regular schools, it is important to first determine the perceptions of teachers and administrators towards learners with special educational needs. This helps to determine the extent of their acceptability. Although 4 (6.6%) were undecided, and 40 (66.6%) were of the view that these learners be educated in special schools (probably with more encouragement and sensitisation), such teachers could change their attitudes. Ogot (2005b) points out that sensitisation eliminates negative perceptions. Varynen (2002) argues that when the aim is that of achieving Education for All (EFA), attitude change should be the starting point. As has already been noted, having teachers sensitised could effectively play a major role in changing the negative perceptions to positive ones. Mushoriwa (2001) further argues that some negative perceptions arise as a result of ignorance or fear of the unknown.

Scruggs and Mastropieri (2005) conducted a study whose findings concur with these views. Scruggs and Mastropieri (2005) found that about two thirds of the teachers involved in their study were reluctant to have learners with special educational needs in their classes. Scruggs and Mastropieri (2005) attribute this behaviour to a lack of

real experience with these learners. The findings of this study by Scruggs and Mastroperi (2005) could suggest that teachers are resistant to change. Probably, if these educators could have more time with learners with special educational needs, they could see that they have the potential to learn given the proper attention they need.

An overwhelming majority of 40 (66.6%) agreed that not having learners with special educational needs was of benefit to learners who do not have special educational needs. To substantiate on the inclusion of learners with special educational needs in classes, teacher respondents were interviewed on this aspect. Generally, all teachers pointed out that it depends on the angle from which one looks at the presence of such learners in classes. The interviewed teachers who were of the view that learners with special educational needs would benefit in other settings outside of regular schools cited factors ranging from school culture, availability of learning resources, teacher knowledge of inclusive education and support from the school. For example T₁ said:

Learners who do not have special educational needs get bored having to wait for the teacher to attend to them as the teacher is giving one-on-one attention to those with special educational needs.

T₂ said:

I do not have any problem having learners with special educational needs in my class. My displeasure is rooted within the employer. They expect us to have these learners in our classes but do not equip us with the knowledge and skills to manage a composite class. Such learners as those with learning difficulties require a lot of teacher time and the use of concrete materials to learn, things which such as this school does not afford.

T₅ said:

At this school we only have textbooks and not enough room to sit all learners. You cannot expect a teacher to be effective with such a big group of learners. It is not fair to have learners with special educational needs in such a class. They do not benefit as much as they should. The class size is so big I am not able to give the individual attention such a child would need in the time I have

for a lesson. This eventually affects even those learners who do not have special educational needs.

T₈ said:

It is good to have learners with special educational needs in class. Learners socialise and learn about value of difference. The problem arises when the learner has health issues which impact on his/her learning and that of others. I have a learner in my class who is asthmatic. Any indication of dust in class affects him. The school does not provide cleaning services to enable a clean and accommodative environment for this boy. When cold, windows and doors have to be opened to allow for free flow of fresh air. Other children complain of cold and whisper hurtful sentiments about the child in question. There is no way this child can be asked to stay out of school due to his health but as you can see, his condition is now not only impending on his education but that of others.

Some teachers from well-resourced schools sympathised with colleagues and learners from schools which were not well resourced. However, they did not agree on teacher knowledge as they said curriculum modification was a question of teacher attitude. They stated that a teacher who had the children at heart would make an effort to accommodate them whatever the cost. T₁₃ commented:

Teachers needed to sometimes go out of their way to provide for these learning materials the school cannot provide. There are shops where one can go and ask for learning materials and they are given at no costs.

T₁₆ said:

We now live in a technological world, there are many sites from which one can post his/her help needs. There are generous people out there who are willing to lend a helping hand. Our problem is that we are so used to being given everything such that we do not know that we can go out there into the world and look for what we need in a dignified manner.

T₁₀ commenting on teacher knowledge of special educational needs and the implementation of inclusive education said:

One can up-skill themselves and not wait for the department to organise workshops for us. We have universities in our town, one can register for a course on a part time basis. This does not require permission from the employer but when we look at it, in the end it is for your benefit as an individual.

T₃ added:

I recently qualified with a Bachelor of Education with a specialisation in Special Education. It was not easy as I attended in the evenings at one of the local universities, but here I am now. I do not have to wait for that time when the employer will organise a workshop for us. And if one takes a close look at our department, in as much as they want inclusive education to be practised in schools to me they do not care that much about learners with special educational needs. Our government does not fully commit itself to the education of these learners in our schools. Maybe the situation is different in special schools.

School principals confirmed what some teachers had said on the benefits of teaching learners with and without special educational needs in one class. One of the principals indicated that these children come from the same neighbourhood and play together, so why would it be any different when they come to school? Another principal pointed out that although he noted a change in environment (home and school) and the environmental demands, he did not see why some home environment strategies cannot be fine-tuned and be used for the educational benefit of learners with and without special educational needs. Examples of responses by school principals in open-ended questionnaire items are:

P₂ said:

In my schools I encourage teachers to use indigenous games during teaching and learning. Most of these are conducted outside and therefore the issue of space in class is out of question.

P₃ echoed the same sentiments by saying:

I throw the ball to the teaching staff to come up with teaching methods that ensure every learner equally participates in the teaching learning process.

Games has come up tops of their list. Some games teach the same concept but at various levels of difficulty, thus each child gets to be accommodated.

P₄ said:

It is time we embraced change in our schools. And we are the change agents. Let us as clusters organise own cluster workshops where our teachers can meet regularly and share on the various teaching strategies. We cannot leave everything to the district office; these are learners in our community who need our help.

These responses show that principals are aware their teachers need to go the extra mile, teaching beyond the curriculum. The statements by the school principals revealed willingness to have learners with special educational needs in classes. UNESCO (2012) noted the weakness with the initial teacher training for teachers that it does not equip them with the knowledge and skills to support learners with special educational needs in classes. As a result, teachers and school principals needed to meet and share good practices on the inclusion of learners with special educational needs so that children with and without special educational needs could benefit equally from the education system.

According to Hunter (2004), learners with special educational needs would benefit the most in an inclusive setting. Hunter (2004) posits that some learners with special educational needs possess the same skills as those who do not have special educational needs by including them in regular schools teachers in a way give them the opportunity to compete at the same level in society without being discriminated against. Werthelmer (2007) and Vaughn (2002) expressed similar views when they pointed out that inclusive settings give learners with special educational needs a sense of belonging and as they grow up, they feel a part of the community. In addition, in an inclusive setting, learners with special educational needs and, in particular, those who benefit from speech therapy, get to interact with peers thereby increasing their chances of improving in their speech.

Support and monitoring are an important aspect to consider in ensuring that there is success in a programme such as inclusive education and ensuring learners with special educational needs have access to education. In order to find out if teachers were at all offered support in their schools, participants were asked to respond to a

yes/no question. Reference is made to item 19 in the teacher questionnaire. This was in line with objective no. 3 or sub-research question no. 3.

Results pertaining to questionnaire item 19 showed that all teachers were provided with some support. This was a clear indication that the welfare of learners with special educational needs was at the heart of school principals. All the teachers (100%) indicated that learners with special educational needs were provided with support in all the schools in the present study. Although the nature of support varied with schools, all teachers agreed that the mere fact that there was a teacher responsible for all the learners in a class was the first and foremost support any learner could get. On several media briefings, the Minister of Basic Education has reiterated that it was the aim of the department to have a teacher in front of the learners, a statement confirmed in the present study. In South Africa, the DoE's policy on inclusive education identifies two approaches to addressing barriers to learning and these are prevention and support. Support focuses on the provision of education services to schools, staff, parents/ guardians and learners while prevention ensures education institutions and curricula facilitate access to an education that is appropriate for all learners (Donald et al., 2010). To consolidate the yes/no response (reference is given to item 19 in the questionnaire), teachers were asked through an open-ended questionnaire item 20, to explain what support they got from the SBST, the school principals and the DBST in their effort to include learners with special educational needs in the classrooms.

It emerged from the study, through item 20 (a) in the teacher questionnaire, that in all schools, teachers referred cases to the SBST whom they hoped to be working with the school management (one of whom is the principal). It was further revealed at school C that the principal, on behalf of the SBST, reported back on the steps taken with teachers' referrals. This indicated that the SBST was functional in schools. In all the four schools, this study established that social workers and the police show up when invited to assist with the identified learners. This could be attributed to the good working relations between the schools and other stakeholders. Although materials were provided for in all schools, they were not enough except for textbooks. The Ministry of Basic Education and Training can be commended for ensuring there is a textbook for each individual child. In a question that required

teachers to rate the support they got in their effort to include learners with special educational needs in schools, they all stated that it was not adequate.

According to the Walsall Council (2006), there are benefits to monitoring such as the tracking of any progress made in a project as well as making necessary adjustments if need be. Hence, this study sought to find out how the inclusion of learners with special educational needs was supported and monitored in the regular schools with the ultimate goal of answering the main question of the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in the regular schools. In particular, this would answer sub-research question 3.

Item 20(c) of the teachers' questionnaire required teachers to describe the support they receive from the DBST. This study established that members of the DBST came to the schools though not often enough but did not come to see what happens in the classes. All the teachers concurred that when the DBST come, they are only seen entering and exiting the principal's office. Findings from the school log-books analysed showed that there were sporadic visits from the DBST, and there were no records of meetings between the DBST and teachers. Teachers pointed out that there were no moderation sessions in inclusive education as with other learning areas. From this, it was clear that learners with special educational needs are not adequately supported in ways that would be of benefit to their accessing education like any other child who does not have special educational needs. The external support for implementing a programme such as including learners with special educational needs in schools is critical.

Inclusion of learners with special educational needs is a collaborative effort which can be related to Bronfenbrenner's ecosystemic theory. The major characteristic of the ecosystemic theory is to show how the different context levels are interconnected in the inclusion of a learner with special educational needs in the regular school. Recognising the functions and relationships of these levels is what makes the theory relevant to the present study. Inclusion of learners with special educational needs in the regular schools requires the involvement of different professionals at different levels of the education system who assist in areas such as identification, referral, diagnosis, treatment and the provision of services deemed appropriate, educational needs and otherwise.

Randiki (2002) commented that inclusion of learners with special educational needs in regular schools requires a multi-sectoral approach if these learners are to be fully included. For instance, peer support is needed where peer tutoring is found to be a necessity while therapists such as speech, physio- and occupational render services according to need. In addition, in place would be guidance and counselling. Sometimes learners need to appreciate one another despite their differences. The school as a community has a mandate to instil oneness among learners as well as adapting the environment to ensure it is user friendly to all within. The DoE on the other hand is responsible for providing financial support and transport learners to and from school. Randiki (2002) found that bringing all these persons together in an effort to support the inclusion of learners with special educational needs in regular classes was a huge task.

Item 20 (b) required teachers to describe the support they receive from their school principals. All teachers (100%) stated that principals ensure that material resources are provided for all the classes. Teachers also pointed out that they are allowed to attend workshops. However, sometimes they do not get all the support they require from the principals such as adequate collaboration with other specialist teachers. In an interview, T₅ said:

There are a lot of things I do not know how I can deal with them. They concern two of my learners with learning difficulties. I wish the school could do something about this. I ask my colleagues but do not get a satisfactory answer as these learners do not show significant improvement in all the efforts.

T₉ also said:

I just wish the meetings these district officials had with principals were for us. It is us who are directly involved with these learners. Now we do not know what is being discussed behind closed doors as our principals do not give us any tangible feedback to their meetings which is of benefit and assists us during teaching and learning.

Article 71 of the Salamanca Statement (1994) asserts that resources must also be allocated to support services for training of mainstream teachers for the provision of resource centres and for special education teachers or resource teachers (UNESCO,

1994). Teachers, through the school principals, appreciated the services offered by the South African Police Services (SAPS). They all (100%) confirmed that SAPS was quick and always available to respond to any distress calls they made to this department in cases where learners had acted outside the confines of the law such as using drugs on the school premises or being found in possession of dangerous weapons such as a knife.

In addition, all principals (100%) agreed that the services of speech, physio- and occupational therapists were not common in all their respective schools. As a result, there were some services which they also, as principals, could not help teachers with. P₂ said:

The district office has told me that these personnel (speech, occupational and physio-therapists) are in short supply. There is not even one stationed at the district office. Where schools needed the services of such personnel, the district office for the DBST would refer schools to private practitioners. These private practitioners get paid by the department.

In a discussion with P₁, the researcher responded that the district office had one educational psychologist for all the schools in the district. As a result, some cases would take long to be attended to. The collaboration with the Department of Social Development was also commended by all principals. The observation in this study was that Social Workers, like the SAPS, were readily available to work with the schools for the welfare of the learners in the school. Randiki (2002) argues that this was not a problem of regular schools only (inadequate services of therapists) as special schools encountered the mammoth task of having services such as physiotherapists who should come and attend assessment sessions. It, therefore, suggests in such instances, that learners with special educational needs do not receive the support they need and eventually, this impacts negatively on education access for these learners.

As support includes the provision of human and material resources, Moodley (2002) argues that learners can only be active participants in the learning process when schools ensure the available material resources are tailor-made to the learners' individual needs. Similarly, UNESCO (2004c) points out that schools should provide learners with materials in formats that meet their needs. Information obtained

through interviews and classroom observations revealed that in two of the schools, School A and School B, material resources were not available to cater for the individual learner needs. It can, therefore, be inferred that learners with special educational needs are not adequately supported; monitoring can be said to be ineffective where the education of learners with special educational needs are concerned.

In an inclusive setting, sometimes learners with special educational needs would require services which are beyond the teacher and school. In such a case, Ogot (2004a) advised the establishment of a resource centre. At a resource centre, all schools can have access to educational services which schools cannot provide due to financial or infrastructural reasons. The present study confirmed with teachers that there was no such service to their knowledge. The researcher found that Schools C and School D were reasonably resourced. It was also the finding of this study that schools do not work collaboratively, and that there is no connection in the systems which are meant to serve learners with special educational needs. T₇ said:

I am not aware of such a service as a resource centre anywhere around. If there are things we do not understand on the education of learners with special needs we invite the district office but in most cases they do not help in ways which I understand. I end up trying out everything and anything within my capability just to ensure the child learns something at the end of the day. This is frustrating to me; that I cannot assist this child who has been entrusted into my care.

The researcher further asked if schools were not in a position to work with special schools close by. T₇ went further to say:

Here in the Western Cape we value tuition time. All our workshops are conducted after the normal teaching time. Also, you cannot leave learners during teaching time to go and consult at which time I think it is best as I find the other school in session and I get to see how they practically conduct their lessons. My dear, there is a huge difference and sometimes mismatches arise between theory and practice. It is one thing to be told and another to see it done practically. Where learners have special needs, believe me, you just need to see a practical example. Of course you cannot get all the answers

you are looking for but as you leave that school, you have one or two things which you have learned.

Mpofu (2010) says that principals have a powerful influence in a school in facilitating teacher use of a programme such as including learners with special educational needs in regular classes. Principals continuously monitor teacher attitudes and feelings and create mechanisms to handle logistical and time scheduling (Taylor, 2007). In addition, they provide encouragement, confidence and cohesion. Hence, this study also sought to establish the nature and extent of support and monitoring principals provide to their teachers to enable them to include learners with special educational needs in the regular classrooms.

Evidence from interviewed teachers revealed that there were frequent class visits from the HoDs. In South African schools, 80% of supervision is conducted by HoDs at phase level (Foundation, Intermediate and Senior) who, in turn, report to the deputy principal and subsequently to the principal (Initiative for Curriculum Excellence, 2013). This is Ministry rule and regulation on monitoring, as required in Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (Section 4, (2012). Principals, as school managers, hold the organisational authority while the HoDs are assumed to be experts of subject specific matters. This study established that all principals were professionally qualified and as such, could lend adequate professional support to teachers. Support such as emotional, professional and social needs to be given to teachers due to the nature and roles they assume as a result of the inclusion of learners with special educational needs in the classes. According to Hargreaves (2008), support systems for teachers include supportive material, out of school learning communities, learning area networks and professional organisations.

It emerged from this study that teachers had professional development through class visits, teachers' and learners' book inspection followed by feedback. This happened on a fortnight basis. If teachers are not afforded the opportunity for a discussion after a class visit or book inspection, they may find it difficult to implement the desired programme such as including learners with special educational needs in classes (Rogan & Grayson, 2003). This is in accordance with the view given by Bush, Joubert, Kiggundu and Rooyen (2009) that monitoring involves visiting classes, observing learners at work and providing feedback. In addition, Bush et al. (2009)

contend that monitoring is a widely distributed role which sees the working together of head teachers, deputy principals and principals.

Although principals assume many roles, Shinkfield (2014) concedes that evaluation of teacher performance is one of the most important responsibilities. Evaluation of teacher performance is particularly important in establishing the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in regular classrooms. This is with reference to issues pertaining to curriculum matters such as adaptation of content, assessment and the general attitude teachers may have towards learners with special educational needs. According to Shinkfield (2014), evaluating teacher performance was particularly important in an effort to improve the instructional programme, ensuring teachers improve their teaching practices, ensuring content is adapted and tailored to individual learner needs and the improvement of staff development and opportunities for teachers.

The feedback teachers get as a result of the book inspections conducted are of benefit to them in their execution of duty. Bush et al. (2009) found that a strong link exists between monitoring and teaching. Under-qualified and teachers with less experience could probably benefit from such visits, for in the process of being given feedback, their shortcomings are corrected. This confirms Carey's (2006) model that teachers at the practising stage be assisted if they are to be effective, aware and conversant with the developments in the field. It can be inferred therefore that under-qualified and less experienced teachers need more class visits and feedback as this helps them improve their teaching methods and class management skills.

The present study established that in Cape Town's North Metro District, there was a shortage of inclusive education experts. Although there are curriculum specialists in the district, they were not enough to serve all the schools which fell under their jurisdiction. The implication of inadequate inclusive education specialists meant schools and in particular learners with special educational needs, were deprived of an equal access to education while for teachers, it meant they were deprived of that expert advice which could be valuable for the successful implementation of inclusive education. Perhaps this could be the cause of few, if not any, workshops on inclusive education while in other learning areas such as Mathematics and Science, teachers reported having regular staff development workshops.

Similar findings of the shortage of inclusive education experts were reported by Aboum (2006) in 26 Sub-Saharan African countries. Gill, Fluitman and Dar's (2010) findings in Sub-Saharan countries were that the inclusion of learners with special educational needs in regular schools suffered from lack of monitoring due to a shortage of qualified personnel at supervisory level. It can be observed that the shortage of specialist officers in inclusive education is not unique to the area covered by the present study, but it is also common among Sub-Saharan countries.

The present study further revealed that it has been a long time since the schools were visited for inclusive education. All the principals, however, agreed that some aspects of inclusive education were touched on during those visits targeting Life Skills and Life Orientation teachers. Teachers teaching these learning areas were also drivers of the SBST, as established through the present study. The lack of school visits (for support and monitoring purposes) by specialist officers may confirm teachers' lack of confidence in the teaching and learning of learners with special educational needs. P₂ said:

When education officers (Education Support Specialist Service- ESSS) come into the school to carry out supervisory duties, they come in their personal cars. It seems as if the department itself does not have enough cars to enable these education officers to execute their duties effectively and efficiently.

In as much as schools reported minimal visits from the DBST and that when visits were made, the team came in personal cars, the researcher observed that there were government vehicles parked at the district office. It was however not clear whether or not they were awaiting service. The researcher had visited the district office to seek permission to carry out the present study in the four primary schools and as such wondered after the visits why the district personnel could not make use of these vehicles to visit schools.

In South Africa, the Education White Paper 6 of 2001 (DoE, 2001) states that most barriers to learning as experienced by learners' with learning difficulties arose from the interaction that takes place among variables such as curriculum content, learners' prior knowledge, learners' cognitive ability and task approach strategies. The Education White Paper 6 of 2001 further points to teachers' instructional methods, language of teaching and learning, resource materials used, learners'

confidence and expectation of success and the perceived relevance of learning task as also giving rise to learning problems. Hence, it was important for the researcher to undertake the present study and in particular find out what challenges teachers encountered from and for inclusion.

For this reason, the study through items 25 and 26 in the teachers' questionnaire and items 18 and 19 in the principals' questionnaire required participants to give an insight into the challenges teachers' and principals' face from the inclusion of learners with special educational needs as a way of effectively and efficiently putting into practice the policy on inclusive education. The motivation for this study was in part based on the fact that while the DBE policy states that learners with special educational needs be educated in regular schools, a host of concerns have been raised by teachers, the media and other studies have alluded to these concerns. Other information was solicited through an interview with teachers, classroom observation and documents. Responding to items 25 and 26 of the teachers' questionnaire and items 18 and 19 in the principals' questionnaire would result in answering objective number 4 or sub-research question number 4. The major challenges from inclusion of learners with special educational needs in regular schools were given as: large classes, lack of adequately trained teachers, lack of effective support and monitoring by the DBST and infrastructure.

The DBE has set a standard for the average number of learners in a class in ordinary primary schools as one teacher to thirty learners (Jones, 2012). Jones (2012) presented the provincial averages as contained in the DBE's School Realities 2011. Table 4-15 shows the provincial averages.

Table 4-15: Provincial Teacher-Pupil ratios

PROVINCE	TEACHER: PUPILS RATIO
Eastern Cape	1 : 29.1
Gauteng	1 : 31.4
Free State	1 : 27.1
Kwazulu Natal	1 : 31.2
Limpopo	1 : 30.1
Mpumalanga	1 : 31.1
Northern Cape	1 : 31.8
North West	1 : 30.6
Western Cape	1 : 30.6
National Average	1 : 30.4

Source: *School Realities 2011- Preliminary Report*

Data from Table 4-15 show that the province with the lowest teacher- pupil ratio is the Free State while the Northern Cape has the highest average. The range of the averages is 4, 7%. Data from the table further show that provinces operate at minus 3.3% to plus 1.4% from the national mean. Western Cape, the province from which the study is being undertaken, has an average of 0.2% learners above the national mean. The implication of these figures is that in the Western Cape, there are more learners to a teacher than is expected in the national average. Table 4-16 presents the findings on class average by the researcher in the four primary schools.

Table 4-16: Class averages in the 4 schools

SCHOOL	TEACHER-PUPIL RATIO
A	1 : 50
B	1 : 48
C	1 : 35
D	1 : 36
AVERAGE FOR THE 4 SCHOOLS	1 : 42,3

As stated earlier, the DBE Ministry's class average requirement for ordinary primary schools should be 1:30 (Jones, 2012). The researcher observed that the schools under study had over-enrolled. The school with the highest class average had twenty learners more than the national average to a teacher. Findings further show that the schools with the highest enrolment in classes were those in the township. The former Model C schools had five to six learners in a class more than the national average. School Central Education Management Information System (CEMIS) documents at the disposal of the researcher in School A and School B showed that the schools had an average of about fifty learners per class and an overall enrolment of a thousand learners in total while the School C and School D had five hundred to seven hundred learners enrolled therein respectively.

Over-enrolment was also confirmed by P₁ who stated:

Our school is in an urban informal settlement. We have had learners from provinces such as the Eastern Cape joining the school in great numbers. Besides, we also have a large number of learners who are foreign nationals. As such, our classes are overstretched beyond limit.

P₂ added:

The Admission policy for schools states that, schools should enrol all children. No learner should be turned away when they need a place but instead the receiving school make arrangements to enable the admission of the learner at

the school. This makes it difficult to turn children away. But as you saw in our classes, we cannot go beyond 48 learners. That number 48 is too large a group as there is no longer enough space in the classroom for teachers to move about in class providing individual attention to needy learners.

The following were some of the responses by the teachers on the issue of large classes. T₂ stated:

We have over 50 learners in some of the classes here and they are manned by one teacher. It becomes problematic when it comes to group teaching (co-operative learning).

A large number of learners per class was also confirmed by T₅ who said:

One class has over 50 learners. All these learners are under the supervision of one teacher. You can't talk of an individualised education plan in such a situation.

T₇ said:

Our classes are just too large to effectively include learners with special educational needs.

T₈ commented:

In my class, I have 57 learners. Tell me how one can apply participatory methods of teaching and learning with such a large group and also be able to efficiently and effectively reach all learners. Bear in mind, I am teaching Grade 5.

All principals (100%) agreed with the teachers that large classes were a major challenge to the effective inclusion of learners with special educational needs. P₂ explained:

Large classes are another of the compounding factors to problems teachers already face in implementing inclusive education. We have about 60 learners in some classes, especially at foundation phase. All these learners are under the responsibility of one teacher. It is extremely difficult to manage this group but I encourage my teachers to try and think about the vulnerable souls under their care before they can look at the mammoth task they are faced with.

School Realities Preliminary Report (2012) indicates that the average teacher/pupil ratio in the Western Cape in 2011 was 1:30, 6 to a national average of 1:30, 4. From this information, it can be established that on average there are more learners in the ordinary primary schools as compared to the national average. With reference to table 4.16, this figure for sure masks the actual size of the class sizes on the ground where one finds 35 to 60 learners in a class that is supervised by one teacher. Jones (2012) writes that classrooms in the Western Cape have the highest teacher/pupil ratios, with four more pupils per class than the national average.

From the sentiments of teachers and principals afore, large classes are negatively affecting the inclusion of learners with special educational needs in regular schools. A study by Gaad and Khan (2007) in Dubai on mainstream teachers' attitudes towards the inclusion of students with special educational needs in the private sector revealed that class size was an issue to be seriously looked into if individualised instruction and inclusion were to be a success. Some of the teachers in the study by Gaad and Khan (2007) indicated that it is difficult to provide special attention to a child with a disability where you have a class of more than thirty students, particularly if this is at primary school level. Large classes will continue to be-devil the inclusion of learners with special educational needs in regular schools unless an adequate number of teachers is engaged. The shortage of teachers with a special needs qualification in schools could mean that universities have proved unable to produce sufficient specialist teachers or that, in general, teachers have negative perceptions about special educational needs learners.

Class size is of paramount importance in the education of learners with special educational needs as they require more of teacher attention (Engelbrecht & Green, 2007). Engelbrecht and Green (2007) went on to say students are given adequate assistance where classes are small and the teacher has an opportunity for one-to-one interaction with students. Besides teacher attention, they also have to receive adequate equipment or tools which may otherwise be impossible if the classes were large (Engelbrecht & Green, 2007). Research (e.g. Naicker, 2000; Chitiyo & Wheeler, 2004; Charema, 2010; Chireshe, 2011) has shown that the number of pupils in a class had an effect on interactions between teacher and pupils, frequency and quality of homework given to learners and the opportunities available to learners for peer tutoring and /or discussions and exchange of ideas.

Sall, Ndiaye, Diarra and Seck (2009) argue that quality education is a function of the number of learners in a class. Where classes are big, it becomes difficult for teachers to effectively use classroom teaching methods that tap into individual learner needs. For instance, in one of the visited classrooms, it was equally difficult for the teacher to move around the tables supervising group and individual learners. The groups were too large for the attention of an individual teacher. The researcher could clearly see what the teacher was going through on a day-to-day basis.

Large classes in inclusive education are difficult to manage as learners with special educational needs need close and personalised supervision (UNESCO, 2009). Sall et al. (2009) also echoed this statement when they pointed out that when there are many learners for the available space, teachers tend to be reluctant to practise active and participatory methods as well as dividing learners into small groups. This study had contrasting findings from the former Model C schools where classes had 30 to 36 learners per teacher. The researcher observed that learners were sitting in groups of 6 and there appeared to be effective peer-learning taking place. Wolter (2008) in his Swaziland studies found that too small classes and too large classes both had a negative effect on learning outcomes. Where classes were small, learners with special educational needs were socially-excluded. Peer education was minimal while in large classes, the teacher was not able to plan for each learner according to his or her (the learner) individual needs. A study by UNESCO (2009) also confirms the effect of large classes when results showed that for those classes which had 25 or more learners to a teacher, they were 1:5 times more likely to demonstrate lower test scores and increased grade repetition.

In school quality debates, class size remains a key topic (Darling-Harmond, 2008). According to Darling-Harmond (2008), there is evidence to suggest that quality education is associated with small class size. These few teachers who teach large classes where there are also learners with special educational needs can be demotivated. UNESCO (2009) found that teachers are motivated by teaching small classes. Information from the interviewed teachers revealed that although there were large classes in School A and B, there were a few learners with sensory and physical disabilities requiring special educational attention. The majority of learners with special educational needs in the schools under the present study were those with mild to moderate intellectual disabilities. In interviews, the majority of teachers

indicated that learners with intellectual disabilities benefited from remedial education which they offered during the lesson. A few of them were given assistance with their homework after school.

Each school had an average of about thirty-five to sixty learners and it became difficult for all learners to get the teacher's attention as required by their individual needs. According to Mtsweni (2008) the density of the individuals in space is an important factor of the physical environment which influences the nature and extent to which a programme is implemented. The findings of the study match with Anderson's (2009) findings of her study which was conducted in United States of America which revealed that overcrowding contributed to the increase in school referrals for special educational needs. In such a situation, learners populate the limited amount of space and this provokes stress-related factors among teacher and inability to manage learner diversity in the classroom.

The findings of this present study also correspond with the results of Chauke's (2009) study in the Northern Cape, South Africa which revealed that overcrowding due to shortage of classrooms made it difficult for schools to implement inclusive education strategies. Summatively, the results of the present study confirm Bandura's (1977) Social Learning Theory which suggests that behaviour determines aspects of the environment to which the individual is exposed, and behaviour is, in turn, modified by the environment (Ahlstrom, 2009; Santrock, 2007). Thus, if learners are exposed to an overcrowded environment where there is limited space for them to be active participants of their learning, in most cases their ability to access the necessary skills and knowledge will be influenced negatively. In this case the environment will have contributed to the barriers to learning for learners especially learners with special educational needs. The concurrence of the findings between the present study and others suggests that schools worldwide are experiencing high enrolments which result in the academic exclusion of learners with special educational needs. Basically, enforcing the principles of inclusive education and inclusion in such situations becomes a nightmare because of large numbers of learners enrolled in schools.

Furthermore, teachers found it difficult to administer assessment frequently as a result of large classes. Assessment is an important factor in education. In as much

as assessment skills were imparted to the teachers in some workshops, actual implementation was a challenge due to learner numbers in class. Government and stakeholders in education have a mandate to direct their efforts in ensuring that the recommended 1:30 is adhered to. This will result in less congested classes and teachers will also be able to attend to individual learner needs.

Chetty (2004) asserts that effective inclusion of learners with special educational needs in regular schools is linked to qualified teachers being in charge of those classes. Under normal circumstances, a qualified teacher should be able to teach a group of diverse learners (Chetty, 2004). Further, a qualified teacher is supposed to have about 30 learners under his / her charge-ship (DBE, 2012). Contrary to this, class registers showed otherwise. Learners in a class ranged from 35 to 60. This over-burdens teachers and hinders effective inclusion of learners with special educational needs in regular classes. The majority of interviewed teachers in Schools A and B complained of planning as well as keeping of assessment records.

T₃ said:

The load is just too big for an individual teacher to teach let alone conduct assessment and keep an up-to-date record for all the learners in one's class.

T₄ added:

There are not enough teachers to match the number of learners at this school. This makes us to be tired all the time. Sometimes you are tired before you even start the day just by thinking about what lies ahead in the day. As a result, helping learners on an individual capacity is a near impossibility. Imagine then what the situation of a child who needs educational help beyond the average learner is like. It's just not possible.

T₁₀ pointed out:

I do not have a special education training and as such, I feel inadequate when it comes to the needs of learners with special educational needs in my class. It is my suggestion that the Department of Education increases the number of workshops for inclusive education as is with learning areas such as mathematics. I love working with children but just ask to be up-skilled after all this child did not ask to be in such a predicament. Today it's this child,

tomorrow it might be own biological child and I would not like it if he or she does not access education at an equal level as all other children in his or her class.

T₁₆ concurred with T₁₀ and said:

In schools, there must be a separate class for learners with learning difficulties. Also these classes must be taught by teachers with a specialised training. In as much as policy demands that they be in our classes, I feel we are not giving them the attention they deserve.

T₂ complained:

Even if we were to be workshopped and acquire the necessary skills to manage an inclusive class, to me this will still not work well due to the large numbers of learners in our classes.

The principals indicated that they sympathised with their teachers but still children had to be taught. Principals believed in the innovativeness of their teachers. In School A, the principal stated that there was not a single teacher with a special education training among the staff. In addition, the district office was short-staffed of inclusive education personnel. The implication of this could be that the government through curriculum planners, review the teacher training programme in institutions of higher learning and have Special Education as a course teachers can take to up-skill themselves after some years of teaching in the mainstream.

The inability by teachers to meet the needs of all learners made them feel under-qualified. According to Guskey (2002), many teachers take pride in enhancing student learning outcomes. This study has established that this expectation was not fully met by many of the teachers who participated in the study. The study further established that there was a mismatch between teacher qualification and the service they had to provide. The end result is that some methods used to teach do not cater for learner diversity.

As teachers continued to respond to item 25 in the questionnaire, other factors identified as hindering the successful inclusion of learners with special educational needs in regular classrooms in the schools under the present study were the learning rooms and furniture. Teachers in School A and School B unanimously

agreed that they worked in over-crowded classrooms. With the large numbers in class, the teachers pointed out that sitting desks and chairs were in short supply. A similar finding is given by Gaan and Eman (2007) that in Dubai, mainstream teachers in private schools complained about an inadequate supply of equipment appropriate for students' level and special needs. In South Africa, the policy on inclusive education states that the learning space is one of the central factors to the success of inclusivity within education (DoE, 2001). The policy states that learners must be taught in least restrictive environments. When learners do not have enough sitting space and furniture this may contribute to their inability access curriculum effectively. Thus, focus in schools should be on overcoming and getting rid of barriers in the system that prevent learners from succeeding (DoE, 2002) if learners can be described as fully included. In a way, this means if the conditions of the classrooms are barriers to effective inclusion in themselves, then focus should be on making necessary renovations to ensure the learning space is conducive to all learners.

The result of large class sizes was a shortage of classroom furniture and classrooms. During the data collection exercise, the researcher observed that there were not enough desks and chairs to sit all learners on. In other cases, there were lots of desks and chairs in an effort to meet the large class sizes to an extent that there was not enough space in the classroom. This was affirmed in and through all methods used to collect data. For instance, during interviews, teachers in Schools A and B indicated that the classrooms were not big enough to accommodate the furniture there in. Overcrowding in School A was in the way as in one class there was a learner with problems of mobility. The child could not easily move his wheelchair about in class. The Education White Paper 6 2001, stipulates that inclusive schools ensure that environments be adapted so that they do not become barriers to learning.

The interviewed teachers at schools A and B further indicated that the classrooms at their respective schools were not enough to accommodate all the learners at the schools.

T₆ said:

Unavailability of adequate classrooms at this school has resulted in congestion in the few classrooms available. This makes it difficult to use group teaching in the teaching and learning situation. As a teacher, I cannot move around to supervise individual learners as they are learning.

Principals agreed with the interviewed teachers on the problem of overcrowding in classes. P₁ pointed out:

I have had to ask from the department for fabricated classrooms as an immediate solution to the classroom problems. It was not instant as I stayed for about four months in waiting. It is better that we got these three classrooms when we had initially asked for five. I am still waiting for the other two, but this is a relief for some classes.

Item 19 in the questionnaire required teachers to state the challenges they faced regarding the inclusion of learners with special educational needs in their classes. Besides the shortage of classrooms, teachers also pointed out that material resources were in short supply. UNESCO (2009) confirms the Rogan and Grayson's (2003) theory when physical capacity is said to be an important factor where programme implementation is concerned in that school infrastructure has an influence on the quality of various elements of the educational process. Studies in Tunisia, Chile and India by UNESCO (2009) revealed that the size and organisation of classrooms greatly influenced the teachers' instructional methods. Where the space was small, the teacher was found to use the lecture method as it appeared the more suitable than group work as students were crowded, thereby creating an atmosphere which was not conducive for learning. As inclusive education is meant to develop learners with special educational needs, achieving such a goal under conditions such as these; Rogan and Grayson's (2003) theory states that this could be difficult.

Information from the present study confirms findings by Gill and Heyneman's (2000) in Egypt where the exclusion of learners with special educational needs was due to lack of adequate or current equipment. Shortage of material resources is also noted in Dubai by Gaan and Eman (2007). Gaan and Eman (2007) reported that instructional material tailored to the learners' level and special needs was needed. It was further revealed in this present study that the successful inclusion of learners

with special educational needs was hampered by shortage of resource rooms in schools. The study also revealed that the shortage of infrastructure made it difficult for teachers to conduct their lessons freely for the benefit of all learners. Not in any one school under the present study was there a resource room.

The findings of the present study showed the differences in learning conditions among former Model C primary schools and Township primary schools. Former Model C primary schools experience some of the best conditions while those in the townships were bad. Poor resources can limit the performance of even the best of teachers as well as undermining learners' efforts to focus on learning (Rogan & Grayson, 2003). If effective inclusion of learners with special educational needs is to take place, a healthy learning environment must be created in the form of basic facilities. It emerged from the findings in this study that in all studied schools, basic facilities were not adequate.

Although schools lacked basic facilities such as classrooms and furniture, they got solace in that the school management had a positive attitude towards the inclusion of learners with special educational needs in the schools. Principals went out of their way to provide teachers and learners with tools and materials needed. Ornstein and Hunkins (2004) concede that change innovations in schools need the support of all stakeholders a result partially revealed in the study.

Items 27 and 28 of the questionnaire, explored the teachers' views on what could be done to ensure learners with special educational needs were effectively included in regular schools in Cape Town. In other words, teachers were asked to suggest improvement strategies based on their experiences with learners with special educational needs. Items 27 and 28 were in line with sub-research question number five. The teachers cited teachers' qualifications and skills (pedagogy and teaching methods) as well as infrastructure and material resources as areas to address for successful and effective inclusion of learners with special educational needs in regular schools.

The opinion of the teachers in the present study through both the questionnaire and interviews showed that teacher empowerment in the area of inclusive education is needed. In particular, teachers wanted training in special education where an emphasise will be placed on learning about learner characteristics in special

educational needs and being taught how to draw up and individualised educational plan. With the variety of special needs in schools, teachers expressed a wish to be trained on strategies for testing and assessing student progress as well as adjusting class requirements and communication. Other teachers were of the opinion that the kind of training they would need is one which focuses on strategies on behavioural management, discipline, and strategies for adapting instruction as well as incorporating various instructional methods into a single lesson under the condition they find themselves of large class sizes. These teacher demands on training could be an indication that there is a change in learner composition from what they are used to and learner populations are becoming more diverse necessitating in-service programmes which will enable them to service the needs of all learners with and without special educational needs.

UNESCO (2014) found that, with the increased demand for schools to include learners with special educational needs, so is the necessity for teacher training to equip them (teachers) with the necessary skills and understanding of how to teach these integrated students. In China for example, it has been recognised that theoretical knowledge is of limited value (UNESCO, 2014). Instead, teachers of learners with special educational needs benefit when they get the opportunity to observe other teachers in the classroom, talking to them, seeing the practical solutions to classroom organisation and management and seeing individual programmes being planned and implemented (UNESCO, 2014).

Some interviewed teachers commented on the specific areas they would like the training to focus on. T₄ said:

I would want to know more on the best approaches one can use to with these learners.

T₇ lamented:

A kind of training where we are taught specific strategies to use in the classroom as well as the type of students who are likely to benefit from the particular strategy.

T₁₁ went on to say:

The greater composition of special needs in our school and am sure in other schools are learners with learning difficulties. As such, I would need a training that addresses students with dyslexia and specific ways for teaching learners who exhibit learning difficulties.

Johnson, Kraff and Papay (2011) stated that teacher contribution in teaching and learning had been found to be especially important for learners with special educational needs. The learners tend not to have adequate learning support outside of school (Johnson et al., 2011). Rockoff (2004) argued that even within the same school, it had been found that teachers holding the same qualification, same number of years teaching, teacher effectiveness had been found to vary. In an interview, respondents gave varied reasons to this effect but what stood out the most was that they were insufficiently trained in matters relating to the education of learners with special educational needs in regular classes. Other reasons given were class size and that learners with special educational needs needed special attention -which called for time they did not have, teaching experience (though by a few), lack of training in special education and facilities such as classrooms, desks and chairs.

It emerged from both the questionnaire and interviews that teachers lack cognitive and emotional skills necessary for them to manage special educational needs learners. The revelation by this study is similar to what was reported by Wearmouth, Edwards and Richmond (2005) in Britain where teachers are generally qualified but not trained in special education. Wearmouth et al. (2005) point out that in Britain, the implementation of inclusive education also failed to start off well due to changed policies. It is the finding of this study that in all schools under the present study, there is a large percentage (88.3%) of teachers who are not trained in special education in as much as they are qualified to teach in general education.

It was suggested by the majority of the interviewed teachers and responses from the questionnaire that they needed re-training. Teachers believed that this would better prepare them for all the odd eventualities associated with the inclusion of learners with special educational needs in the regular classes. T₃ suggested that a qualification in special education be offered to already practising teachers who already have teaching experience in the regular/ general education. In an interview,

T₃ cited the case of Zimbabwe where teachers are trained as specialist teachers after they have been teaching in regular education for a couple of years. T₃ said:

I have heard that in Zimbabwe, a specialist qualification in special education was offered outside of the general teacher qualification. One has to first qualify as a general education teacher and take up specialisation as continuous professional development.

In as much as teachers felt insufficiently qualified, they demonstrated willingness to be re-trained as this would enable them to learn more and improve their skill levels with special educational needs management.

T₁ said:

My expectation is to undergo some training specialising in special education. If I am trained, I believe I will be able to better support children with special educational needs in our classes.

T₆ said:

I personally want to know more about the White Paper 6 because I hear that is where there is information about how to teach learners with special educational needs. And if it means going back for a short course such as ACE, I am sure the Department of Education will give us bursaries to go and study.

The role that teachers play in the implementation of a programme cannot be underestimated. The researcher felt there was a strong need to explore how teachers could effectively improve education access for learners with special educational needs through item 27 in the questionnaire. Teachers indicated that through group planning, grade or learning area meetings and staff development, they could equip each other with the necessary skills to manage diversity in the classrooms.

According to Makoelle (2012), teachers are key role-players in the inclusion of learners with special educational needs in regular schools. Not only do they implement a national curriculum but they also interpret it according to one's level of professional training, personal qualities, intelligence, the school from which they are

serving, the general school environment and the learners' characteristics (Makoelle, 2012). Thus, the teacher's level of competence can influence the implementation of a national policy such as the policy on inclusive education in which the practice of including learners with special educational needs is contained.

However, it has to be noted that the quality of teaching learners with special educational needs hinges on a number of variables. Infrastructure and equipment, content and relevance, teacher qualifications and their relationships with the world of work can positively or negatively impact on how they (teachers) execute their roles. If one of these variables (infrastructure and equipment, content and relevance, teacher qualifications and their relationships with the world of work) malfunctions, the effect is felt on all (Mbele, 2005). This is to say teacher qualification and experience, for example, cannot (on their own) bring about successful inclusion of learners with special educational needs in regular schools as well as developing in teachers the skills of managing special educational needs.

Evidence from this study is that teachers were not skilled enough to have learners with special educational needs in regular classes. The study further found that because of overcrowded classes, teachers could not use participatory methods in teaching effectively. With inclusive education, the trend is for methodology to be learner-centred (Weeks & Erradu, 2013). In an interview, teachers in Schools A and B concurred that they instead used the teacher-centred method the most. In this method, the teacher does much of the work (especially talking while learners are listening), and learners take a nearly passive role in their learning. Teachers in Schools A and B unanimously agreed, through an interview, that with overcrowded classes, it was difficult to have small working groups for all learners. There was not enough room in the classroom to enable formation of groups. Sall et al. (2009) state that the number of pupils in a class will determine the quality of education those pupils receive as well as the methods of teaching teachers employ. It is most likely that the compromise in methods of teaching could lead to poor implementation of the inclusive education policy and in particular, the participation by learners with special educational needs in the regular class.

The teacher has the mandate to choose teaching methods which suit the learners. In this present study, teachers in Schools A and B found it difficult to employ learner-

participatory teaching strategies due to overcrowding and they (teachers) are inadequately qualified. As a result, teachers said the way they might be teaching could be different from how they were expected to. This could be a sign of lack of confidence in themselves and would greatly affect the way they (teachers) accept learners with special education needs in their classes. The role that teachers play in the education of learners with special educational needs thus cannot be underestimated. Mpofu (2010) stresses that it is with teacher engagement with content which makes learning effective, meaningful, integrated and transferable, qualities which have the potential to enable full access to education for learners with special educational needs.

Devising suitable teaching methods which make learners free and autonomous individuals is another role of an effective and efficient teacher. Emphasis here is placed on the involvement of the learners. Ornstein and Hunkins (2004) point out that there is no doubt that better teachers foster better students. With regard to the inclusion of learners with special educational needs in the regular schools and their learning, no matter the philosophical view one has of education, teachers will always have an influence on what pupils learn (Ornstein & Hunkins, 2004).

The study revealed that most of the teachers in the township schools used the lecture method, with a few trying out co-operative learning. In the former Model C schools, teachers used more co-operative learning. Co-operative learning is a teaching strategy in which students take control of their learning. In co-operative learning, students are active, creative and self-regulatory. The role of the teacher in co-operative learning is that of a facilitator.

Direct participation by learners has been found to be advantageous in the learning process since the introduction of active methods based on established psychological and organisational knowledge (Mpofu, 2010). According to Sall et al. (2009), the merits and efficiency of any practised pedagogical approaches and methods depend on the training teachers have received, their scholarly culture and their personality. This could be difficult in the schools under the present study where teachers are insufficiently trained. The problem of using teacher-centred approaches such as the lecture method is not common in the studied Schools A and B, but in Sub-Saharan Africa, as indicated by Sall et al. (2009). Sall et al. (2009) further concede that

teachers are required to be trained for them to improve the quality of education. Trained teachers are capable of using active and stimulating techniques that place learners at the centre of learning (Sall et al., 2009). It has been noted that inclusive education curriculum is skills-based; therefore, teachers need to be properly trained to acquire these skills.

The use of lecture methods as did some teachers did not allow pupils to explore their learning environment, thereby limiting them in terms of acquiring knowledge. Sall et al. (2009) postulate that pedagogical methods and strategies can become feasible and efficient when backed by adequate teaching materials, aids and equipment. Important to note, however, is that the use of strategies does not, in itself, guarantee that learners with special educational needs will acquire the relevant skills and knowledge in inclusive classes.

Further explanations on the challenges teachers face from inclusion were given. Most of the teachers, about 78%, indicated in the teacher questionnaire that class size impacted negatively on the pedagogical methods they practised. Rogan and Grayson's (2003) theory of curriculum implementation also notes that learner characteristics can also be a factor in determining the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in regular schools. Learners' willingness to learn is one of the factors. Thus, the government, through the Ministry of Higher Education and Training and curriculum planners, should look at re-skilling teachers through courses that address characteristics of the different categories in special education.

In items 25 and 26 of the questionnaire, teachers cited infrastructure and material resources as some of the challenges they were faced with in their endeavour to fully include learners with special educational needs in regular classes. In items 27 and 28, respondents were asked how they think this could be rectified from the angle of the school (SBST and the principal) and employer (DBST). The Ministry of Basic Education is the ultimate national authority for education in primary schools. It provides subsidies to all registered schools and is also responsible for the maintenance of quality assurance (DoE, 2002).

According to Ladd (2009), providing teachers with supportive working environments is important as it has the potential of contributing towards improved inclusion of

learners with special educational needs in regular schools. The findings of the present study from teachers and principals are that teachers are working under difficult conditions. There are not enough classrooms in schools, thereby resulting in overcrowded classrooms. This not only affects teachers but learners as well as the benefits of free movement in the classroom are not experienced by learners.

In its pursuit of ensuring that all learners with special educational needs are included in regular schools, government is responsible for the purchase of tuition materials such as books, construction and renovation of schools and supply of furniture (DoE, 2002). However, it is the view of the respondents that the government had not quite lived to its mandate.

T₃ said:

There are more desks and benches than a classroom can contain due to the shortage of classrooms at this school. To add to this is the large number of students enrolled in the school.

T₆ added:

There is a shortage of classrooms and furniture in our school. In our classrooms, three learners share a desk and bench meant to be used by two learners. As it is, our learners are inconvenienced when they have to write in as much as it is good for small group readings.

T₂ pointed out:

We have no problems where learning materials are concerned. Textbooks are supplied by the DBE and they arrive well on time. We are short of classrooms and some furniture needs repairs.

On the contrary, Schools C and D have adequate infrastructure and material resources. One teacher revealed that School C had other textbooks they could donate. T₁₂ stated:

Other than being a teacher, I also serve as a librarian in the school. We have textbooks that we can donate to other schools. They are good as resource books to both teachers and learners.

The majority of teachers from schools A and B were of the view that if the inclusion of learners with special educational needs is to succeed in their schools, the DBE urgently needed to address the issue of furniture and classrooms. Principals 1 and 2 indicated having submitted a requisition to the district office for desks and chairs as well as fabricated classrooms and they were still waiting for the supplies. Although the condition was favourable in schools C and D, respondents indicated that they were aware of the situations in such schools as A and B through the media and felt the DBE needed to step up on quality assurance if anything positive could be expected from schools in the same position as school A and school B.

The goal of any education system is that students receive meaningful education. In this light, item 20 in the questionnaire for the school principals required that participants give their views on how general and special needs teachers can collaborate in the classroom to ensure learners with special educational needs are included in regular schools. All the participants agreed that a high level of collaboration between and among teachers existed, within the same school and with neighbouring special schools. As there are a number of special schools in Cape Town, P₁ and P₂ indicated that meetings were arranged where information was shared regarding teaching styles and classroom expectations, particularly for learners with special educational needs. P₂ said:

Teachers who have trained in special education and work with special needs learners in special schools have other knowledge and skills general education teachers do not have. Similarly, environments are different. So when these two teachers meet, there is a lot to learn from one another. And besides, when a teacher listens and the other see something done practically, the one who has seen understands better and is in a position to implement what they have seen.

P₁ commented:

I personally do not have a qualification in special education but I did Psychology. I feel, when these two teachers meet, they share information that is of help in our schools. In as much as education courses in universities now have a component of inclusive education, teachers who have specialised in

the area are more knowledgeable on issues of content adaptation and planning for learners. This is an area where most of our teachers fail.

Research (e.g. Pillay & Terlizzi, 2009) has shown that teachers generally value support from colleagues and key personnel such as principals (Solis et al., 2012). All principals stated that they encouraged and facilitated grade meetings. It is during grade meetings that teachers in the school share ideas and plan together. The sharing of ideas facilitates best practices of the few expert teachers to reach beyond their individual classrooms. From the information drawn from principals, one could deduce that collegial interactions were practised in schools. Pillay and Terlizzi (2009) pointed out that as teachers meet, they share experiences and perceptions. In so doing, policy is holistically informed and teachers are in a position to provide education that meets the needs of all the learners in their classrooms. It can be noted that as the ecological systems framework suggests, teachers in regular schools work in partnership with other stakeholders in the education system for the effective and efficient inclusion of the learner with special educational needs (Donald et al., 2010).

As a follow-up, item 21 of the principals' questionnaire required them to give a personal account as to what they are doing to address the challenges from the inclusion of learners with special educational needs in their respective schools. The responses of the services principals give in support provision for teachers were as follows:

P₁ said:

I work with the deputy principal who is the head of the Curriculum Committee. Fortnightly, I get reports from classes and once in a while I make random class visits. I also try to make sure teachers have all the teaching and learning materials they may need. When there is a workshop, teachers at this school are allowed to attend and on their return we hold report back meetings.

P₂ had similar views to P₁ but added:

Not all classes in the school have learners with special educational needs. So for the teachers with these learners, usually the class size is smaller so that they have time to offer one-on-one support to these learners but this is not

always easy as teachers have reported. Sometimes, as a principal, I invite the parents of these children to come and meet with the teachers and help with planning. I want parents to be aware of what goes on in school and with the education of their child. If the situation is such that the child needs to be moved on referral to a special school for the benefit of the child, it is a school and parental decision.

P₃ said:

I support teachers in my school by allowing them to attend courses (optional) or workshops (compulsory) related to teaching learners with special educational needs and inclusive education. Sometimes I also communicate with the Education Social Support Services (ESSS) district office unit that deals with issues relating to learners experiencing barriers to learning to support teachers.

P₄ said:

I encourage all teachers in the school to enrol for short courses with the University of Cape Town and these studies are funded by the school governing board (SGB). They do this in turns though and these courses are offered in the evenings from 17:30-20:00 during the week. On completion of the course, I monitor learner performance to see if there are any changes in the way learners with special educational needs progress. We have an adequate supply of material resources in the school, so if a child fails to progress, I then seek the services of a specialist to come and assist the teacher.

These responses show that principals are actively involved in the inclusion of learners with special educational needs. They provide support and monitoring within their means. According to Pottas (2005), research has shown that effective schools are those with strong principal leadership which creates and maintains effective educational environments. Principals in these schools promote collaborative working of parents, teachers and other specialists. This could be an indication that they are supportive of the success of the education and subsequently inclusion of learners with special educational needs in regular schools.

The findings of the study indicated that the DBST and school principals mainly supervised and advised where necessary the implementation of the inclusive education policy. The study found that the DBST advised school administrators on how to handle certain situations in accordance with regulations. It emerged that the school principals' roles were to supervise, organise meetings to discuss how the inclusive education policy was implemented and to strategise on the way forward.

It emerged from the study that as part of supervision, the school principals would make class visits, hold discussions with teachers and the management as well as asking learners about what they liked the most in their classes and the school; this made learners to feel a part of the whole school community and encouraged to give their best in schooling. The findings of this study are in line with the findings of other researchers such as Ishak (2004) who found that in disciplined schools, the school principals are visible in the hallways and classrooms, talking informally with teachers and learners, speaking to them by name and expressing interest in their activities and being supportive. Ishak (2004) further mentions that school principals take the responsibility for handling serious cases of special educational needs which often saw learners being referred to specialist professionals but they hold teachers responsible for handling classroom inclusion and intervention. School principals assist teachers in improving their management and discipline skills by arranging for staff development activities as needed. In accordance with the findings of the present study, Ntuli (2012) stresses that the school principals have to equip teachers so as to increase their knowledge on positive inclusion issues. Ntuli adds that school principals should ensure that sufficient and apt advice is provided to teachers so that the school implements the inclusive education policy effectively. The findings of the present study endorse the microsystem level of Bronfenbrenner's (1979) Ecological Systems Theory where the individual is not viewed as a passive recipient of experiences in these settings, but as someone who helps to construct the settings (Santrock, 2007; Christensen, 2010).

Thus, the interaction of the DBST, school principals, teachers and learners results in active participation of the school community members in the implementation of the inclusive education strategy to maintain positive teacher-attitudes that foster the

inclusion of learners with special educational needs in regular classrooms and schools subsequently.

The findings of the current study confirm the interactions of the learner with the school that take place in Bronfenbrenner's (1979) mesosystem level of Ecological Systems Theory. This implies that the teacher influences the learner and the learner, in turn, influences others whom he/she interacts with in the system. It seems there is consensus from the findings that teachers play a pivotal role in the implementation of the inclusive education policy in line with Bronfenbrenner's Ecological Systems Theory (Ecosystemic Theory) since they interact constantly with the learners.

Nonetheless, it was found from the study that schools have encountered some challenges pertaining to participation of teachers in the implementation of the inclusive education policy strategy to maintain positive teacher-attitudes that foster the inclusion of learners with special educational needs in regular classrooms and schools subsequently. This means that some teachers still believed in using traditional methods of viewing learners with special educational needs. The teachers pointed out that they did not object to learners with special educational needs accessing education but rather, they should attend special schools and not regular schools. Hence, such teachers would be reluctant to participate in using methods of teaching which ensure all learners are catered for. The finding concurs with the results of a study by Nkabinde (2007) which revealed that teachers showed failure to apply related alternatives to inclusive practices because most of them still believed that the place for special education is in special schools. The finding also confirms the results of the study by Mugabe and Maposa (2013) which indicated that teachers who felt disempowered by the policy on inclusive education quietly relinquished their responsibility for management of learners with special educational needs to principals of schools and the SBST. The similarities in findings could suggest that some teachers still believe in maintaining the status quo even if the situation is no longer permitting. Such practices by teachers, as revealed by findings, make it difficult for the regular schools to effectively include learners with special educational needs.

Hay (2010), in his review on school improvement, suggested that the primary agent of change as well as the key figure in promoting or blocking change is the principal.

According to Ainscow and Sandill (2010), one of the core practices of a principal is that of developing teachers by providing intellectual stimulation. Principals gather, generate and interpret information within a school in order to create an inquiring stance (Ainscow & Sandill, 2010). All this underlines and gives evidence of how the culture of a school affects how teachers see their work and indeed how they include learners with special educational needs in their classes. Inclusion of learners with special educational needs in regular schools is a change for the majority of regular education teachers, as such, if principals do not help facilitate the change, this inclusion of learners with special educational needs will fail. On the other hand, if teachers are supported in the change process, there will be success in including these learners.

The first step for initiating inclusion for learners with special educational needs in regular schools is for principals to establish an institutional philosophy based on the principles introduced in the Education White Paper 6 (DoE, 2005). While the White Paper 6 outlines the key philosophy, the school has the responsibility of turning this into the reality and context of the institution (DoE, 2005). In line with the principles of inclusive education in South Africa, the acknowledgement is that all children can learn and should have support provided be it on temporary or permanent basis. Salisbury and McGregor (2002) studied five elementary schools that actively practised inclusion in Panama State. They found a gap that existed between the recommended practices and the reality of inclusion for learners with special educational needs in regular schools. Administrative strategies, core principles and leadership practices which principals used to promote inclusive education were not as policy stipulated (Salisbury & McGregor, 2002). In this study, all the school principals revealed that they encouraged teachers to attend workshops and take up short courses because they believed in the ability of all children to learn if their teachers are knowledgeable and skilled.

As the inclusion of learners with special educational needs in regular schools was a collaborative effort, item 22 in the principals' questionnaire sought to establish what steps the SBST and DBST could take as a measure of support to help teachers of and learners with special educational needs. In schools, and when dealing with inclusive classrooms and learners with special educational needs, the SBST follows the district programme (Masango, 2013)

4.5 Summary

In this chapter, both quantitative and qualitative data that were collected for this study were presented and analysed/discussed. The main objective of the study was to examine the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in regular schools in Cape Town. The objective reflected the main research question and its sub-research questions. In the process, data from the interviews, observations and documents were used to buttress findings from the questionnaire. To ensure trustworthiness and credibility of data, triangulation of these data was employed in an effort to reduce chances of reaching false conclusions.

Generally, the findings of the present study indicated that although schools are doing their best to include learners with special educational needs, they are still beset with a number of challenges that affect the extent to which learners with special educational needs are include. This has confirmed the basic assumptions of the present study that learners with special educational needs are not fully included in regular schools, and the perceptions of teachers influence their behaviour toward and acceptance of learners with special educational needs in regular classes.

The next chapter provides a summary of the study, draws conclusions and makes recommendations that could be adopted by policy-makers and schools in an effort to address the problems faced in the inclusion of leaners with special educational needs in regular primary schools. From making recommendations based on the findings of the study, the chapter will also make recommendations for further (future) research.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENTATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter summarises the whole study (chapters 1-4), draws conclusions and makes recommendations. The chapter has been divided into five sections. The first section highlights the key ideas from each of the four preceding chapters. The second section summarises the major findings of the study, taking into consideration the research objectives, research questions and assumptions of the study. The third section draws conclusions based on the findings of the while the fourth section offers recommendations based on the major findings. The fifth and final section suggests areas for future research.

This study aimed at examining the nature and extent to which public/regular schools included and possibly served the interests of learners with special educational as required by the South African Constitution of 1996, Section 5(1). The assumptions underpinning the study were that learners with special educational needs are not fully included in regular schools and that perceptions of teachers influenced their behaviour towards and acceptance of learners with special educational needs in regular classes. As noted in the first chapter, the study was guided by the following major question: What is the nature and extent of inclusion of learners with special educational needs in regular schools? This major question was further divided into sub-questions as follows:

- How do schools include learners with special educational needs?
- To what extent do educators who have learners with special educational needs possess requisite skills and training to address those needs?
- How is the inclusion of learners with special educational needs supported and monitored in the four schools?

- What challenges are faced with regard to the inclusion of learners with special educational needs?
- What could be done to enhance Inclusive Education in regular schools?

5.2 Summary of key ideas from each chapter

Chapter 1 highlighted the problem and its setting. The chapter began by highlighting the international scene and then moved into Africa and finally into the South African situation as this is where the present study was conducted. The chapter discussed the Conventions/Declarations guiding Inclusive Education. Thereafter, it highlighted the statement of the problem, presented the purpose of the study, the main research question that guided the study and its sub-research questions, the assumptions of the study and research objectives. The chapter further discussed the significance of the study, presented delimitations and defined the key terms as used in the study. Finally, the chapter outlined the organisation of the chapters.

Chapter 2 reviewed related literature. The chapter focused on the concept of Inclusive Education, the theoretical framework as well as models of implementing inclusion for learners with special educational needs in regular schools. The review mainly centred on two different theories of inclusion which have a bearing on this present study. The first is the Medical Model, which originates from medical terms and sees the problem(s) exhibited by the learner as emanating from the child himself/herself. The Medical Model focuses on pathology, sickness, the nature and aetiology of the presenting problem and dealing with the specific pathology in a centred way (Landsberg et al., 2009). In education, when a learner is identified as having special educational needs, it implies he/she has a challenge and processes such as identification and diagnosis need to be carried out before proper intervention can be given. Another theory is the Socio-cultural theory by Vygotsky (1998), and it recognises the need to consider both personal and social factors in trying to understand special educational needs.

On the models for implementing inclusion, the review of literature focused on three models, namely: Overcoming Resistance to Change Model, Concerns-Based

Adoption Model and the Educational Change Model as presented by Ornstein and Hunkins (2004). Further, the chapter discussed the pedagogic methods used by teachers with reference to Bandura's Social Learning Theory as well as challenges of including learners with special educational needs in regular schools. Reference on challenges for including learners with special educational needs in regular schools was made to Bronfenbrenner's Ecosystemic Theory. The chapter then went on to discuss findings from other studies (Empirical studies) on the inclusion of learners with special educational needs in regular schools and identified the gap in the literature in which the topic under the present study fitted itself.

Chapter 3 was a discussion of the methodological aspects that guided the research process. These included the research paradigm, the research approach, the research design, population, sample and sampling techniques, data collection instruments, issues of validity, reliability/ trustworthiness, data collection procedures, data analysis and ethical considerations. The researcher in this study wanted to get a more holistic picture of how special educational needs are included in regular schools in Cape Town. To this end, the researcher was objective in order to minimise any researcher biases, but at the same time being subjective enough to allow for deeper insights into issues surrounding the inclusion of learners with special educational needs in Cape Town. Thus, a paradigm that seemed ideal to capture both positivistic and interpretivist ideas concurrently was considered, hence, the post-positivist paradigm and the mixed method approach guided the present study. The post-positivist paradigm and mixed method approach were considered for their flexibility in the use of both qualitative and quantitative techniques.

Quantitative data were collected through questionnaires that were administered to the teachers and principals while qualitative data were collected through teacher interviews, classroom observations and analysing documents. Frequency counts and percentages were used to sum up indicators in quantitative data. Integration of qualitative data from questionnaires, interviews and documents was used in the process.

Chapter 4 focused on data presentation and analysis/ discussion. The researcher decided to present the data and immediately analyse/discuss them in order to avoid the unnecessary repetition that often characterises work where data presentation

and data analysis/ discussion are separated into two chapters. The data were presented and analysed/ discussed in line with the questionnaire. Data from the interviews, observations and documents were used to buttress findings from questionnaires. The questionnaire addressed the objectives of the study which reflected the main research question and sub-research questions. In the process, triangulation of different forms of data was applied to ensure trustworthiness and credibility of data and eventually reduce chances of having to reach false conclusions.

The chapter was divided into three sections. The first section examined demographic information of respondents. It included variables such as the number of respondents who responded to the questionnaire, the schools from which they came, the gender of the respondents, the age of the respondents, the qualifications of the respondents and their years of teaching experience. The second section presented and analysed/discussed data obtained from 28 items in the questionnaire to establish the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in regular schools in Cape Town. The questionnaire items were designed to answer the main research question which is: "What is the nature and extent of inclusion for learners with special educational needs in regular schools? Examining demographic data was considered necessary as some trends in behaviour of certain variables can better be explained through reference to the demographic data. The third section responded and answered whether or not the research questions and objectives had been addressed and achieved.

5.3 Major/ Main Findings

This section is aligned to section two which summarises the major findings in line with the research questions and objectives of the study. The section gives a summary of the findings on how regular schools include learners with special educational needs in Cape Town, including the extent to which teachers possess the requisite skills and training to address special educational needs. Further, the researcher in this section gives a synopsis of the mechanisms of support and monitoring in schools with the ultimate aim of assisting learners with special

educational needs to be fully catered for by teachers and schools. Lastly, the section highlights challenges faced by teachers by including learners with special educational needs and suggests what could be done to enhance Inclusive Education in regular schools.

The study revealed that there were learners with special educational needs in schools. The enrolment rate could be described as fairly high. In well-resourced schools, the number of learners with special educational needs enrolled therein was high while the number was low in poorly-resourced schools. The categories of special educational needs enrolled in the schools were specific learning disabilities, emotional disturbance, health related issues, visual impairment and intellectual disability. Information gathered through interviews showed that teachers had difficulties differentiating between intellectual and learning disabilities as these two exhibited similar characteristics. Emotional disturbances have an effect on the learning of any child as it interferes with a child's thinking and retention of what has been learned.

Academic difficulties were the main method used by all schools as a yard-stick for identification of special educational needs. The researcher referred to it as the school's diagnostic test. However, there was no standard test for all schools. Each and every school had its own teacher-set test for the greater part of the year and only at the end of each quarter did schools receive a common paper from the Western Cape Education Department. The schools under the present study used professional assessment (medical model), observations, parent interviews and school diagnostic tests (standardised tests). The study revealed that observations, parent interviews and school diagnostic tests were commonly used in all the schools as methods with which they identified learners as having special educational needs. Only one school (School C), in addition to observations, parent interviews and school diagnostic tests were professionals in the form of the school psychologist, occupational therapist, speech therapist and social workers were used in the process of identifying learners. At school level, the principals in former Model C schools worked in collaboration with the SBST.

A revelation of this study was that in regular schools, guidance and counselling was not done to prepare learners with special educational needs for life in the

mainstream schools. There were schools, however, where this service was offered but it was only to parents of learners with special educational needs as a form of making parents aware of the kind of environment their children would be enrolled in. Nonetheless, in former Model C schools, learners with special educational needs would be present in these parent meetings although the proceedings were not directed towards them. Including learners with special educational needs was found to be inundated with lack of counselling of learners without special educational needs in preparing them to receive learners with special educational needs in their classrooms.

Although it was an assumption that teachers have perceptions which may affect their behaviour towards learners with special educational needs in the classes, the findings of this study were that teachers in general do not have a problem when it comes to whether or not learners with special educational needs be educated or not. Conditions under which they found themselves such as a feeling of being under-qualified as a result of their training, class sizes and lack of resources, influenced the placement option for learners with special educational needs but not their acceptance of these learners in classes. As a result, teachers were of the view that learners with special educational needs will be better accommodated in special schools.

The researcher felt that such teacher perceptions could answer, in part, their acceptance of these learners in regular schools and classes although they (teachers) do not vocally say so. Responses from principals revealed that teachers and schools needed to go beyond the curriculum in their quest to include learners with special educational needs in regular schools. Finally, it was suggested that some of the strategies used in the integration of learners with special educational needs in the home environments, be incorporated in the school environment to make inclusion a success.

Training of teachers with a specialisation is an essential factor towards inclusion of learners with special educational needs in regular schools. With specialisation, teachers are equipped with knowledge and skills which enable them to handle learners with special educational needs. The study established that most of the teachers (55=72, 1%) were trained as general education teachers and had no

specialisation. There were only 7 (12, 3%) who had been trained in special education. The study also revealed that only 25% of the principals were trained in special education.

Professional qualifications including specialisation in Special Education and experience were considered requisite skills and training teachers needed to possess in order to be able to address the needs of all learners more especially those with special educational needs in regular schools and classes. There are many teachers and principals who, although qualified, lacked specialisation but were teaching learners including those with special educational needs. This compromises the standard and quality of skills and competencies developed in students as well as the nature in which the programme is implemented. It emerged from the study that only one of the four principals under the present study had specialised in special education. All the four have a general education teaching qualification and are experienced enough to hold such a position as being a principal. The weakness of non-specialisation was compounded by the fact that the majority of teachers in regular schools did not have a special education qualification as well.

The teachers in poorly-resourced schools used demonstrations and other teacher-centred methods in their teaching for much of the time as a result of large class sizes in these schools. Teachers' capacity to handle and manage classes in implementing inclusive education is improved through internal school supervision, induction courses as well as staff meetings (Landsberg et al., 2009). It emerged from the study that principals conducted class visits, but there was an insignificant number of staff workshops, induction courses and staff meetings which might enable teachers to feel comfortable having learners with special educational needs in their classrooms.

The inclusion of learners with special educational needs in regular schools is mainly affected by big classes in township schools where the teacher-pupil ratio is 1:50. It was further established that while there were such big classes in township primary schools, few learners with sensory disabilities enrolled in the schools as they were poorly-resourced. On the other hand, in former Model C schools, the teacher-pupil ratio was 1:30. There is over-utilisation of teachers in township schools while teachers in former Model C schools were working within government teacher-pupil ratio of 1:30.

The success of any programme, including that which is aimed at improving the life of learners with special educational needs hinges on monitoring and support mechanisms in place (Mitchell, 2008). Including learners with special educational needs in regular schools and not following-up on how teachers and schools are managing gives an impression of negligence and a lack of seriousness on the part of the school and DBE. This study established that teachers are faced with challenges which negatively affect the inclusion of learners with special educational needs. Monitoring, when effectively administered, would enable early identification of these challenges and the necessary support given on time to both teachers and learners. The findings of this study on monitoring and support mechanisms put in place to ensure learners with special educational needs are fully included in regular schools suggest that the monitoring and support mechanisms are rather weak. In this study, the teachers indicated that the monitoring and support they received could be rated as inadequate, and there is not much attention received from the DBST.

Successful inclusion is negatively impacted by challenges such as teacher-related challenges, classroom-related challenges and organisation-related challenges. Teacher-related challenges included training, as well as lack of expert support from colleagues in implementing inclusive education and subsequently including learners with special educational needs in regular schools. Organisation-related challenges included inadequate in-service training programmes for teachers and weak monitoring and support mechanisms from experts. Classroom-related challenges included large classes in some schools, insufficient teaching and learning resources such as desks and benches in some schools.

In the preceding paragraphs and pages, organisation-related challenges and some teacher-related challenges have already been addressed. With classroom-related challenges, there is a high teacher-pupil ratio in 50% of the schools to the extent that one teacher was in-charge of a class of 50 learners with diverse needs. Teaching and learning resources such as teaching aides were reported to be insufficient in 50% of the schools. Furthermore, infrastructure such as classrooms/classroom blocks were found to be limited. Teachers inferred that all these were frustrating them in their efforts to include learners with special educational needs.

With all the challenges, the study established that teachers had no problems having learners with special educational needs in their classrooms but felt re-training in the area of special education was a necessity in the area of special education. Teachers suggested that they would want to know more on the characteristics of special educational needs, strategies for planning and assessment including curriculum adaptation. The study also established that there is need to improve on group-planning in particular, the collaborative working of general education teachers and specialist teachers. With group-planning, teacher-responses indicate that meetings be held at either grade-level or learning area. In such small groups, teachers may be able to share ideas and equip each other with the necessary skills to manage diversity in the classrooms.

A large class size has a negative impact on the teaching strategies teachers employed. The study established that the opinion of teachers was that the DBE and in particular, the Supply Chain Department should respond by giving schools fabricated classrooms and furniture timeously. When learners are not seated comfortably, this might affect their learning. The constructivist view to learning is that learners understand better when they are actively involved, something which is nearly impossible when classes are overcrowded.

There are greater chances of successful inclusion where there is constant and effective monitoring coupled with adequate support from all stakeholders in and within education. One of the principles for inclusive education in South Africa is that all children can learn if support is provided, be it temporary or permanent. It is the overall responsibility of the principals to ensure that learners with special educational needs are fully included. In this regard, their administrative strategies and core principal and leadership practices should be in line with policy (Salisbury & McGregor, 2002).

The study established that both the medical model and socio-cultural theory were used in the inclusion of learners with special educational needs. Where appropriate, the medical model was used through school tests and making use of diagnostic tests and evaluations by psychologists. Because the barriers to learning exhibited by the learners were partially attended to in partnership with other stakeholders, the socio-cultural theory and Bronfenbrenner's ecosystemic theory were applied. The first

recognition was that the environment and society have a part to play in the successful inclusion of learners with special educational needs. With this recognition, the child, parents, teachers, the DBST, social workers, the health department and police, to mention a few, came together to find a lasting solution with the ultimate goal of ensuring the child with special educational needs is fully included in the regular school.

The study partly assumed that perceptions of teachers influence their behaviour towards and their acceptance of learners with special educational needs in regular schools. The findings of this study, through the Overcoming Resistance to Change model, were that teachers were ill-informed on matters of special education and the inclusion of learners with special educational needs. The Overcoming Resistance to Change model is premised on the assumption that the success or failure of any programme rests on the implementers' inability to accept change. However, in the present study, although teachers found themselves in a position of being ill-informed, they were still willing to be re-trained in order to become equipped with knowledge and skills to manage diverse classes.

Further, the study established that teachers had concerns for the inclusion of learners with special educational needs. The Concerns-Based Adoption model hinges on teachers' concerns being addressed. In addition, teachers should also be seen to also own the process of addressing their concerns if the programme such as including learners with special educational needs is to succeed. It is the finding of this study that teachers availed themselves for re-training; they also wanted an improvement in teacher-to-teacher collaborative working (grade meetings or learning area meetings regularly) as well as teacher to specialist teacher collaborative working.

The assumption was that all schools are the same in terms of how they implement curriculum for learners with special educational needs. This assumption was based on the fact that in regular schools, teachers possess the same qualification from the same minimum basic pre-service training. Thus, change in education requires that all stakeholders are clear of what they are doing and how they will do it as well as where that will take them to. For learners to be successfully included, stakeholders needed to know what inclusion entails, how they will implement it as well as the goal

of inclusion. When this is not properly communicated, it negatively impacts on the success of the programme. The study established that there was no proper communication from policy planners to the implementers. Regular school teachers were mandated to teach inclusive classes without proper training of inclusion practices.

5.4 Conclusions

The findings of this study suggest that teachers could try including learners with special educational needs in regular schools but believe that special schools still remain the best placement option for such learners. Teachers were critical of a variety of issues pertaining to curriculum and the implementation process if learners with special educational needs were to be successfully included in regular schools. These issues range from a big teaching load, teaching and learning materials which were inadequate, classroom shortages, furniture in short supply and them possessing skills which did not make them comfortable and confident enough to handle diverse learners. There were learners with special educational needs in the category of emotional disturbance, hearing impaired, intellectual disability, health related issues such as HIV/AIDS, specific learning disabilities and visual impairment. This indicates that it is true that there are children with different disabilities in schools, hence, schools should respond accordingly.

Teachers trained in special education are a necessity for the success of inclusive education. When teachers are trained in special education, they acquire skills and knowledge to adapt or prepare teaching and learning materials for all learners. Teachers believed that barriers to learning experienced by learners require a multi-disciplinary team. According to Hawkins (2009), when teachers feel trained and supported enough, they are more willing to try out new strategies and differentiated instruction. The results revealed that only 25% of the principals and 11.6% of the teachers had trained in special education. This calls for re-training for both principals and teachers so that they are acquainted with special educational needs issues, without which it could be difficult for regular schools to fully include learners with special educational needs.

The majority of teachers (39=65%), however, felt any teacher could work with learners with special educational needs. Their argument was that some of these categories of special needs are already in the classrooms but teachers cannot clearly identify them. Further, these teachers pointed out that learners can be taught using what the teacher already knew. All that was needed is for the needs to be properly identified. Analysis of the findings of this study reveals that not much improvement has been achieved in terms of providing regular schools with adequately trained teachers, and there remains a lot to be done.

It was established through data collected from the questionnaires and interviews that the SBST and principals need to provide more help to teachers working with learners with special educational needs in regular schools. In an interview, teachers expressed a need for additional support people such as teacher aides. Information provided in this study also emphasises the importance of having reduced class sizes.

In realising full inclusion for learners with special educational needs, infrastructure and other suitable teaching and learning materials is a necessary support provision. This would enable not only all learners to learn but would ensure learners with special educational needs access education at the level of their peers who do not have special educational needs. It was evident from the research findings that the government needs to improve in this area. Without a conducive classroom, it would not only be difficult for the teacher to execute his/her duties but the child as well. For successful inclusion of learners with special educational needs, there is need to ensure learners are in classrooms which are conducive and teachers are supported with appropriate resources. This study established that training of teachers and availability of resources were major parameters which need an urgent address if full inclusion should be realised.

From questionnaires and interviews, inferences can be drawn that learners with special educational needs pose a challenge to teachers. When there is change in thinking and in practices in the relevant schools, these challenges can provide sufficient conditions for the successful implementation of inclusive education policies. Further, the findings of this study suggest that it is not advisable for school systems or the government to view regular schools as the least restrictive environments for all

learners. Rather, inclusion of learners with special educational needs should be based on each learner's individual needs. Failure to do this not only results in placing learners in classrooms where teachers cannot help them, but the environment itself will not enable them to reach their full potentials.

5.5 Recommendations based on the major findings of the study

Based on the above findings and conclusions, the researcher recommends the following:

- the government should ensure that more teachers and experts are trained in Special Education;
- the Ministry of Basic Education and Training should assist the schools to acquire appropriate infrastructure and other teaching and learning materials and ensure they are delivered to schools on time;
- regular schools must be made to be barrier-free, and in this way, they enhance access to education;
- the Ministry of Basic Education and Training ensure that monitoring and support mechanisms are implemented according to policy guidelines (SIAS);
- schools and the DBST organise information sharing workshops and other in-service training which are designed to enhance teacher knowledge of special education and strategies for teaching learners with special educational needs;
- the government should ensure enough teachers are deployed in schools to reduce large class sizes; and
- the media could be used to run awareness campaign programmes. These will help clear any misconceptions or misunderstandings about learners with special educational needs and enforce understanding. Eventually, parents and caregivers will find themselves sending their children to schools nearer their homes.

5.6 Recommendations for future research

This study examined the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in regular schools in Cape Town. The researcher has established there are challenges in the way regular schools are including learners with special educational needs in their classrooms. The end result is that despite the effort by government to ensure learners with special educational needs live a near to normal life which is not discriminatory and segregatory, there has not been much improvement to their social exclusion. After thoroughly analysing the findings of this study and relating to literature on including learners with special educational needs, the researcher makes the following suggestions as areas for future research:

- noting that this study was carried out in schools where inclusion of learners with special educational needs is relatively new and the schools are responding to the South African Schools Act No. 84 of 1996, Section 5(1), which states that regular or public schools must admit learners and serve their educational requirements without unfairly discriminating in any way, a further study could be carried out in full service schools where inclusion is already being practised with the same aim of examining the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in schools.
- as this study did not find severe cases of disability such as blindness, deafness and autism in schools, a study could be carried out to establish the possible factors contributing to this exclusion.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1: LETTER OF CONSENT FOR ALL RESPONDENTS

My name is Girlie Shadaya, a PhD. candidate at the University of Fort Hare, registered with the Department of Education. As a part of my academic programme, I am conducting research on **Examining the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in the regular primary schools in Cape Town**. As part of this process, I am inviting you to participate in an interview/questionnaire survey.

Should you consent, I wish to guarantee you that any information that you may provide will be confidential. At no time will your identity be divulged or made available to anybody other than the researcher.

Thank you,

Researcher's signature

Date

.....

.....

I.....hereby give consent to participating in the study on **The nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in the regular school**. I understand that I am participating freely without being forced in any way. I also understand that I can stop participating in the study, and my decision to do so will not affect me negatively.

Participant's signature:

Date

.....

.....

APPENDIX 2: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR TEACHERS

My name is Girlie Shadaya, a PhD. candidate at the University of Fort Hare, registered with the Department of Education. As a part of my academic programme, I am conducting research on **Examining the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in the regular primary schools in Cape Town**. You are kindly requested to complete this questionnaire. Your responses will be treated with confidentiality and will be used only for the purposes of this study. Thank you in advance for your participation.

1. What is your gender? a) Male ☐ b) Female ☐

2. What is your age range?

Age range	Frequency
20- 29 years	
30-39 years	
40-49 years	
50-59 years	
60 years and above	

3. What are your qualifications? Please tick next to your qualification.

	Professional	Tick here
1	Certificate in Education	
2	Diploma in Education	
3	Bachelor of Education	
4	Bachelor of Education Honours	
5	Master of Education	
6	Other (Specify)	

4. Teaching experience: 0-5years ☐ 6-10years ☐
11- 15years ☐ 16years + ☐

5. Have you been trained in Special Needs Education? Yes ☐ No ☐
Currently on training ☐

6. If trained, what is your experience as a Special Education Teacher? 0-5years ☐
6-10years ☐ 11- 15years ☐ 16years + ☐

7. In your opinion, does having training in Special Needs Education impact positively/negatively in the education of learners with special educational needs? Of the following statements, please tick in only one of the boxes which most represent your views. (SA- strongly agree, A- agree, UN- undecided, D- disagree, SD- strongly disagree)

Question	Response					Total
	SA	A	UN	D	SD	
Trained or untrained teachers can effectively teach all learners in an inclusive school						
Training of teachers in Special Needs Education equips them with skills and knowledge that enables them to teach learners with special educational needs effectively						
Teachers trained in Special Needs Education have more confidence in handling learners with special educational needs in regular classes than the untrained ones						
Training of teachers in Special Needs Education enhances enrolment in the school						

8. What categories of special educational needs do you have in your class?

9. What method(s) do you use to identify learners as having special educational needs?

10. In your opinion, should the learners with special educational needs be educated after all? Yes ☐ No ☐

11. What placement option would you suggest for learners with special educational needs? Special Schools ☐ Regular Schools ☐ Home Schooling ☐ Other (Specify)

12. On a scale of 1 to 5, where 1 represents “not skilled” and 5 represents “very skilled”, how would you rate yourself with regard to educating children with special educational needs in a regular school? 1. Not skilled ☐ 2. Just skilled ☐ 3. Skilled ☐ 4. Not sure ☐ 5. Very skilled ☐

13. What teaching strategies do you employ in teaching a diverse group of learners? Please rank the following priorities for you with regard to educating children with special educational needs in regular schools. Put a 1 by your 1st priority until you have numbered all items.

- (a) Motivate students to learn
- (b) Involve parents in the education of their children
- (c) Cooperative learning is the best teaching strategy
- (d) Consider the learners’ learning style
- (e) Assessment should consider cognitive levels of the children

14. To what extent do you agree that having learners with special educational needs in regular classes means content and pedagogy are adapted to ensure that it meets the needs of all learners in the class? Tick one box.

Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Not sure
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15. Do you have learners with special educational needs in your school? Yes ☐ No ☐

16. In your opinion, are parents and the community around your school sensitised on education for the child with special educational needs so as to be able to allow their children attend school. Yes ☐ No ☐

17. How do you identify learners as having special educational needs?

Criteria	Ratings				
	Have never used it	Not effective	Partially effective	Effective	Very highly effective
Observation					
Examination					
Results from previous grade					
Information from parents					

18. How would you rate the enrolment of the children with special educational needs in your school in relation to those who have been identified within the wider community? Very high ☐ High ☐ Average ☐ Low ☐ Very low ☐ Not sure ☐

19. Does your school offer support services for the learners with special educational needs? Yes ☐ No ☐

20. What support do you get from your:

(a) School-Based Support Team.....

(b) School principal

(c) District Support Team

21. How would you rate the availability of resources and support services?

Adequate ☐ Inadequate ☐

22. What in-service training programmes are conducted to assist teachers to improve their teaching skills?

.....
.....

23. Who conducts the in-service training programmes?

.....
.....

24. Usually, how long do the in-service training programmes/ workshops last?

.....
.....

25. What are your concerns/challenges regarding inclusion?

.....
.....

26. What problems do you encounter in your class with the inclusion of learners with special educational needs?

.....
.....

27. How can teachers with Special Education training and those without collaborate in the classroom to ensure learners all learners learn effectively?

.....
.....

28. What steps would you like the:

(a) School Support Team to take in order to help you improve on the education of children with special educational needs in your class?

.....
.....

(b) The principal to take in order to help you improve on the education of children with special educational needs in your class?

.....
.....

(c) The District Based Support Team to take in order to help you improve on the education of children with special educational needs in your class?

.....
.....

THANK YOU!!!!!!

APPENDIX 3: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR TEACHERS

1. What is your understanding of special educational needs?
2. How many of your learners have special educational needs?
3. Would you say gender has any effect on the inclusion of learners with special educational needs?
4. Would you say you possess the requisite skills to teach learners with diverse learning needs?
5. In your opinion, do you believe that learners with special educational needs have the ability to perform equally or better than the other children if their educational needs were adequately catered for?
6. What role do parents play in the identification and placement of learners with special educational needs?
7. Are learners with special educational needs given any leadership roles in class?
8. Describe the teaching strategies you have actually adopted to ensure all learners access education equally.
9. What are the most important priorities for you with regard to educating learners with special educational needs?
10. Comment on the support/ monitoring available to teachers and learners from:
 - (a) The School Based Support Team
 - (b) The principal

(c) The District Based Support Team

11. Would you say educating learners with special educational needs in the regular primary school is an issue?
12. Describe the challenges you are encountering with regard to the inclusion of learners with special educational needs in the regular classroom?
13. As an individual, what are you doing to address these challenges affecting the inclusion of learners with special educational needs in your classroom?
14. Which other advice would you give to ensure that inclusion of the learners with special educational needs is successful in regular primary schools in Cape Town, South Africa?

APPENDIX 4: DOCUMENT ANALYSIS GUIDE

Teacher documents were analysed with reference to:

- Teaching strategies;
- Assessment of learning;
- Content adaptation;
- Provision for learners with special educational needs; and
- Any other issues relating to implementation of the inclusion policy

School documents will be analysed with reference to:

- Staff development programmes;
- Class supervision;
- Support provision to teacher and learners; and
- Any other issues relating to implementation of the inclusion policy.

APPENDIX 5: CLASSROOM OBSERVATION GUIDE

The researcher observed the following aspects:

- Teacher provides explicit instruction to build background and/or tap prior knowledge;
- Lesson includes a variety of opportunities for learner engagement and active participation;
- Roles played by learners with special educational needs, if any;
- A variety of strategies are used to make new concepts clear and focused;
- Ongoing assessment of lesson objectives prior to activity is evident;
- Teacher's degree of mastery of content and pedagogy;
- Content structuring in the lesson that caters for different levels of learners;
- Strategies and flexible grouping are in place to differentiate instruction while doing an activity;
- Providing independent thinking time and writing time for learners who may need this service;
- Monitoring and providing individual and group support during learning;
- Following group work with teacher mediated unified class discussion to ensure all learners understand essential information;

- Teacher's degree of awareness of the readiness level of the learners to receive the content;
- Psychological climate in the classroom (that is teacher's attitude towards the lesson and the learners);
- Sitting arrangement or grouping system; and
- Classroom appearance promotes learning beyond teacher instruction.

APPENDIX 6: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

My name is Girlie Shadaya, a PhD. candidate at the University of Fort Hare, registered with the Department of Education. As a part of my academic programme, I am conducting research on **Examining the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in the regular primary schools in Cape Town**. You are kindly requested to complete this questionnaire. Your responses will be treated with confidentiality and will be used only for the purposes of this study. Thank you in advance for your participation.

1. What is your gender? Male ☐ Female ☐

2. What is your age range?

Age range	Frequency
20-29 years	
30-39 years	
40-49 years	
50-59 years	
60 years and above	

3. What is your highest professional qualification?

Certificate in Education	
Diploma in Education	
Graduate Certificate in Education	
Other specify-----	

4. How long is your experience as a Principal?

Less than 1 year	
1-5 years	
6-10 years	
11-15 years	
16-20 years	
20 years and above	

5. Would you say your school is inclusive or not? Yes [] No []

6. Are there learners with special educational needs in your school? Yes []
No []

7. What categories of special educational needs do you have in your school?

8. At what stage do you identify your learners as having special educational needs?

.....

9. What method do you use to identify learners as having special educational needs?

.....

10. Are students given Guidance and Counselling before they are selected?

Yes [] No []

Give a reason for your answer.

.....

11. Are parents in your community sensitised on inclusive education? Yes []

No []

12. What would you say is the attitude of teachers towards inclusive education?

Positive [] neutral [] negative []

13. Give a reason for your answer.....

.....

14. What is your staff compliment of special needs education teachers? Male []
Female []

15. Would you say teachers at this school possess the requisite skills to address the diverse learner needs? Yes [] No []

Explain your response:
.....
.....

16. How would you rate the performance of your teachers? Good []
Average [] Below average [] Poor []

17. What support mechanism do you have for improving teacher performance? ...
.....
.....

18. Which INSET/training workshop programmes are in place to improve teachers' teaching skills?
.....
.....

19. How often are these INSET/workshops held?
.....
.....

20. What are the teaching methods used by teachers in your school? Lecture method [] group methods [] project methods [] child-centred methods []

21. How often does the District Based Support Team offer support services? Once a year [] Once in two years [] Once in 3 years [] Once in 4 years []
Once in more than 5 years [] Not at all [].

22. What support do you get from the District-Based Support Team?

.....
.....
23. How do you ensure learners with special educational needs are taught at the level of their understanding?

.....
.....
24. What are your concerns from the inclusion of learners with special educational needs in the school?

.....
.....
25. What challenges have you actually encountered in your school with the inclusion of learners with special educational needs?

.....
.....
26. How can general and special needs education teachers collaborate in the classroom to ensure learners with special educational needs are included in the regular classroom?

.....
.....
27. As a principal, what are you doing to address these challenges affecting the inclusion of learners with special educational needs in your school?

.....
.....
28. What steps would you like the:

(a) Institutional (School) Level Support Team to take in order to help teachers improve on the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in classes?

(b) The District-Based Support Team to take in order to help the school improve on the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in classes?

.....
.....

THANK YOU!!!!!!!!!!!!

APPENDIX 7: PROOF OF LANGUAGE EDITING CERTIFICATE

23 Elfin Glen Road, Nahoon Valley Heights, East London, 5200

**Professional
EDITORS
Group**

To whom it may concern:

This document certifies that the PhD thesis whose title appears below has been edited for proper English language, grammar, punctuation, spelling, and overall style by Rose Masha, a member of the Professional Editors' Group whose qualifications are listed in the footer of this certificate.

Title:

**EXAMINING THE NATURE AND EXTENT TO WHICH LEARNERS WITH
SPECIAL EDUCATIONAL NEEDS ARE INCLUDED IN REGULAR
SCHOOLS: A CASE OF FOUR PRIMARY SCHOOLS IN CAPE TOWN,
SOUTH AFRICA**

Author:

GIRLIE SHADAYA

Date Edited:

10 May 2016

Signed:



Rose Khanyisile Masha

082 770 8892

Bachelor of Library and Information Science, Hons (English Language Teaching), HDE,
MA (Hypermedia in Lang. Learning), PhD (Education).

APPENDIX 8: PROOF OF ETHICAL CLEARANCE



University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

ETHICAL CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE

Certificate Reference Number: MUS061SSHA01

Project title: **The nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in regular schools: The case of four primary schools in Cape Town, South Africa.**

Nature of Project: PHD
Principal Researcher: Girlie Shadaya
Supervisor: Prof T Mushoriwa
Co-supervisor: N/A

On behalf of the University of Fort Hare's Research Ethics Committee (UREC) I hereby give ethical approval in respect of the undertakings contained in the above-mentioned project and research instrument(s). Should any other instruments be used, these require separate authorization. The Researcher may therefore commence with the research as from the date of this certificate, using the reference number indicated above.

Please note that the UREC must be informed immediately of

- Any material change in the conditions or undertakings mentioned in the document
- Any material breaches of ethical undertakings or events that impact upon the ethical conduct of the research

APPENDIX 9: PERMISSION LETTER FROM THE UNIVERSITY

University of Fort Hare

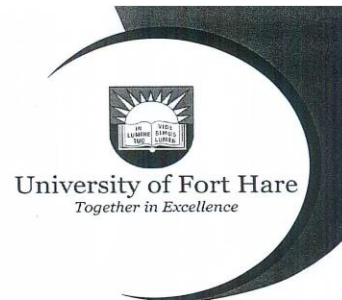
FACULTY OF EDUCATION

Alice (main) Campus:

Private Bag X1314, King William's Town, Road Alice, 5700, RSA
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East London Campus:

Private Bag X9083, 50 Church Street, East London, 5201, RSA
Tel: +27 (0) 43 704 - 7227 / 7218 • Fax: +27 (0) 43 704 - 7113



5 November, 2015

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

Re: Request to be permitted to conduct Research.

This letter serves to indicate that Mrs G. Shadaya (Student No.200909136) is a PhD student at the University of Fort Hare and is under my supervision. Her research topic is: **Examining the nature and extent to which learners with special educational needs are included in regular schools: A case of four primary schools in Cape Town, South Africa.**

Mrs Shadaya is now at the data collection stage. I would greatly appreciate if you would allow her and help her where necessary, to have access to your Institution(s) which she wishes to involve in her study.

Should there be any queries or problems, please do not hesitate to contact me.

Thanking you in advance.

Prof TD Mushoriwa (PhD)

Cell: +27 (0) 780830012

E-mail Tmushoriwa @ufh.ac.za

www.ufh.ac.za

APPENDIX 10: PERMISSION LETTER FROM THE WESTERN CAPE EDUCATION DEPARTMENT



Western Cape
Government

BETTER TOGETHER.

METRO NORTH EDUCATION DISTRICT* Private Bag X45* PAROW 7500* TEL: 021 938 3000* FAX: 021 938 3184* ENQUIRIES: F. FERES* email: fferes@westerncape.gov.za

TO : HEAD OF DEPARTMENT, FACULTY OF EDUCATION

UNIVERSITY OF FORT HARE

FROM : CES HRD & LABOUR RELATIONS

DATE : 18 JANUARY 2016

SUBJECT: PERMISSION TO COLLECT DATA: MRS G. SHADAYA
(STUDENT NO. 200909136)

- Your letter dated 5 November 2015 has been acknowledged.
- We are thrilled and delighted to note that your student shows interest in the field of Education, in particular in our district.
- Education is a dynamic phenomenon; hence we take pride when students want to take up a research in our district in this field.
- The findings and recommendations will not only assist to improve the system of education in our district but the province and national.
- It is against that background that we welcome your student and any other to come and conduct research in our district.
- We further wish to commit ourselves in giving **Mrs Shadaya** the necessary support she might need.
- We wish her a success in her endeavours to pass her studies and please extend our humble plea to share her **findings** and **recommendations**.

Yours faithfully

.....

MR F. FERES

For: CES- HRD & LABOUR RELATIONS

APPENDIX 11: LIST OF RESPONDENTS

Data collection instrument	Category of respondents	Number of respondents
Questionnaire	Teachers	60
	principals	4
Interviews	Teachers	16
Classroom observation	Teachers	16
Documents analysis	Teachers	16
	Principals	4