Parents' perception of inclusion in Capricorn District, Limpopo Province, South Africa

by

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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my husband Lawrence Diko

and

My son, Immanuel Diko

DECLARATION

I declare that the dissertation hereby submitted to the University of Limpopo, for the degree of Master of Education in Educational Psychology has not previously been submitted by me for a degree at this or any other university; that it is my work in design and in execution, and that all material contained herein has been duly acknowledged.

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to compare the perceptions of three groups of parents; parents with special needs children in regular schools (n=16), parents with special needs children in special schools (n=16) and parents with special needs children not enrolled in either regular or special schools (n =18) towards inclusion in Capricorn District. Their perceptions were sought with regards to inclusion in regular schools, general education teacher's attitude and sociocultural constraints on inclusion. Causal comparative and quantitative design inclusive of administration of structured questionnaire was adopted for this study. From the basic descriptive and inferential statistics [ANOVA and Tukey (HSD) test], there was a significant difference (p < 0.05) in perceptions among the three groups on 59% and 46% of the statements addressing inclusion in regular schools and sociocultural considerations respectively. No significant difference was observed (p > 0.05) on 76**%** of the statements on teachers' attitude. Despite certain concerns, the perceptions of parents with SN children in RS (Group 1) were largely in favour of inclusion as opposed to parents with SN children in SS (Group 2) and parents with SN children not enrolled in either RS or SS (Group 3). There was a general consensus by all 3 groups of parents on the negative effects of general education teachers' attitudes on inclusion. The results further suggested that the sociocultural paradigm as envisaged by parents from Group 3 influenced not only their expectations but also those of others (children without SN, teachers and the community at large) about children with SN. Against this backdrop, a more detailed investigation on the influence of culture on parents' perception of inclusion is recommended.

Key words: comparison, culture, inclusive education, perception.

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ACRONYMS AND SYMBOLS

ANOVA	Analysis of variance
CNS	Central nervous system
DC	Developing country
EFA	Education for all
IE	Inclusive education
IEDC	Integrated Education for Disabled Children
IQ	Intelligence quotient
MKO	More knowledgeable other
PATI	Parents attitude towards inclusion
RS	Regular school
SEAS	School and the Education of All Students Scale
SEN	Special education need
SN	Special need
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
SS	Special school
TATI	Teachers attitude towards inclusion
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
Yrs	Years
ZPD	Zone of proximal development

Chapter One

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

2.0   Introduction

This chapter provides the background against which this study was developed. It presents an in-depth appraisal of the concept of inclusion as applied globally. It equally describes the development and challenges of special needs education and inclusion in South Africa. Statement of the problem, aims, objectives, hypothesis and significance of the study are placed against this background. A section dealing with definition of terminologies concludes this chapter.

1.1   Background

The readiness for acceptance of inclusion varies across countries of the world. The British Psychological Society defines inclusion as rejecting segregation for any reason, making learning more meaningful and relevant for all learners, and restructuring policies and curricula to meet diverse learning needs (Thomas & Vaughan, 2004). While developed countries have gone beyond categorical provisions to full inclusion (Ainscow & César, 2006; Smeets, 2007), Africa and other developing countries are still struggling with the education of children with Special Needs (SN) especially on mainstream basis (Garuba, 2003). According to United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO), regular schools with inclusive orientation are the most effective in combating discriminatory attitudes, creating welcoming communities, building an inclusive society and achieving education for all (UNESCO, 1994).

Odom and McEvoy (1990) argued that parental perceptions and concerns among other factors can interfere with successful inclusion. Listening to and attempting to describe parents' experiences is necessary for a number of related reasons. Parents, as a vital part of any school community, are valuable informants about their children and are able to provide information about the nature of their children's SNs (Gliga & Popa, 2010). Their experiences of including their children in mainstream

schools continuously help to deepen their insight into their expectations of an inclusive school. In this manner they contribute to further clarifying what inclusive education is and what it is not, informing the nature and development of parent-school partnerships – a new type of relationship in schools (Swart, Engelbrecht, Eloff, Pettipher, & Oswald, 2004). The resulting understanding is relevant to a systems view of human behaviour, which highlights the interaction and interdependence between the child, parent and school community (Swart et al., 2004).

Although parents' participation in their children's education is acknowledged (especially through parent–teacher associations) their perceptions are not always understood or considered in the decision–making process (Soodak, 2004; Yssel, Engelbrecht, Oswald, Eloff, & Swart, 2007). Furthermore, the constant fear of the SN child being rejected by community and school systems as well as the lack of competence and willingness displayed by teachers especially on mainstream basis are some of the concerns that continue to act as barriers to inclusive education (Engelbrecht, Oswald, Swart, Kitching, & Eloff, 2005; Odom & McEvoy, 1990; Yssel et al., 2007).

In South Africa, quite a number of studies on parental perceptions towards inclusion have been carried out (Belknap, Roberts & Nyewe, 1999; Engelbrecht et al., 2005; Swart et al., 2004; Yssel et al., 2007). Although the outcome of these studies were largely in favour of the active involvement of parents in the education of their children, most of these studies focused exclusively on either perceptions of parents with SN child in mainstream (Swart et al., 2004) or a comparison of the perceptions of parents of SN children in Regular Schools (RS) or Special Schools (SS) with peers from other countries (Yssel et al., 2007). Research on the perceptions of parents of SN children neither enrolled in SS nor in RS or a comparison of the three groups (i.e. parents with SN children in RS, SS and neither enrolled in RS nor SS) is yet to be documented. With a focus towards parents of children with SN in SS or RS, the assessment and appraisal of the strides made by 'the new South Africa' towards the provision of inclusive education (Belknap, Roberts & Nyewe, 1999; Swart et al., 2004; Engelbrecht et al., 2005; and Yssel et al., 2007), especially with regards to parental involvement remains biased and unrepresentative.

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This study therefore attempts to compare the perceptions of the three groups of parents with respect to regular schools, teacher attitudes and socio-cultural barriers towards inclusion in Capricorn District, Limpopo Province, South Africa.

1.2 Statement of the problem

The perceptions of parents of SN children neither enrolled in SS nor in mainstream are yet to take centre-stage. Despite the advances made by the Republic of South Africa towards improving the quality of Special education/Inclusive education as evidenced by the Education White Paper 6 (Department of Education, 2001), parents trust on the system is still questionable. Parents remain reluctant to enrol their children in inclusive education because of lack of trained personnel (Swart et al., 2004; Yssel et al., 2007). Most parents with SN children still find it hard to accept the conditions of their children (some preventing them from interacting with society, probably locked up in rooms, bungalows and left to their fate) (Swart et al., 2004). In addition, families, communities, and regular educational settings do not offer unconditional acceptance to children with SN (Education White Paper 6, Department of Education, 2001).

1.3 Aim and objectives of the study

1.3.1 Aim of the study

The aim of this study is to compare the perceptions of parents with:

(a) SN children in Regular Schools (RS)
(b) SN children in Special Schools (SS), and
(c) SN children not attending any school, towards inclusion in Capricorn District, Limpopo Province, South Africa.

1.3.2 Objectives of the study

The objectives of this study are:

- To find out parents' perceptions of inclusion in regular schools.
- To find out parents' perceptions of general education teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education.
- To find out parents' perceptions of socio-cultural barriers towards inclusion in the community.

1.4 Hypothesis

The hypothesis for this study is: there is no difference in parents' perception of regular schools, general education teacher's attitude and socio-cultural barriers towards inclusion.

1.5 Significance of the study

It is anticipated that this study may serve as a working document to complement the Education White Paper 6 (in Limpopo Province). Furthermore, findings from this study will enrich the resources on inclusive education in South Africa.

1.6 Literature review

1.6.1 Defining inclusion

The confusion that exists within the field internationally arises, in part at least, from the fact that the idea of inclusive education can be defined in a variety of ways (Ainscow, Farrell & Tweddle, 2000). It is also important to remember that there is no one perspective on inclusion within a single country, or even within a school (Booth, 1999; Dyson & Millward, 2000). A recent analysis of international research by Ainscow, Booth, Dyson, Farrell, Frankham, Gallannaugh, Howes, & Smith (2006) suggests a typology of five ways of thinking about inclusion. These are: inclusion as

concerned with 'disability' and Special Educational Needs (SEN); as a response to disciplinary exclusions; as about all groups vulnerable to exclusion; as the promotion of a school for all; and as Education for All (EFA).

1.6.2 Conceptual framework

1.6.2.1   Inclusion as concerned with 'disability' and special educational needs.

There is a common assumption that inclusion is primarily about educating children categorised as having SEN in mainstream schools. The usefulness of such an approach has been questioned, since it focuses on the 'disabled' or SN part of the child, ignoring other ways in which participation may be impeded or enhanced. The Index for Inclusion, a self-review instrument for schools that has been used in many countries in recent years (Booth & Ainscow, 2002), dispensed with the notion of SEN to account for educational difficulties and replaced it with notions of 'barriers to learning and participation' and 'resources to support learning and participation'.

 In this context, support was seen as all activities which increase the capacity of schools to respond to diversity. There is a danger, however, that, in rejecting a view of inclusion tied to SEN and 'disability', attention is deflected from the continued segregation of children categorised in this way. Inclusion can involve the assertion of the rights of 'disabled' children to a local mainstream education.

1.6.2.2   Inclusion as a response to disciplinary exclusions.

Although inclusion is most commonly seen as being associated with children categorised as having SEN, in many countries it is also closely connected to 'bad behaviour'. The mere mention of the word 'inclusion' in some schools can make teachers fearful of being asked to take on disproportionate numbers of students whose behaviour is considered to be 'difficult' and who may have been excluded (or expelled) from other schools (Ainscow & Miles, 2008) .

1.6.2.3   Inclusion as about all groups vulnerable to exclusion.

There is an increasing trend for inclusion in education to be viewed more broadly in terms of overcoming discrimination and disadvantage in relation to any groups of students who are vulnerable to exclusionary pressures (Mittler, 2000). In some countries this broader perspective is associated with the terms 'social inclusion' and 'social exclusion'. When used in an educational context, *social inclusion* tends to refer to barriers faced by groups whose access to schools is under threat, for example, girls who become pregnant or have babies while at school, looked-after children (those in the care of public authorities), and gypsy/travellers. Yet commonly, the language of social inclusion and exclusion is often used more narrowly to refer to children who are (or are in danger of being) excluded from schools and classrooms because of their 'behaviour' (Ainscow & Miles, 2008).

This broader use of the language of inclusion and exclusion is somewhat fluid. There may well be common processes which link the different forms of exclusion experienced by 'disabled' children who are excluded from school for disciplinary reasons and people living in economically poor communities. The nature of such exclusionary processes and their origins in social structures requires further research (Ainscow & Miles, 2008).

1.6.2.4   Inclusion as the promotion of a school for all.

A different strand of thinking about inclusion is related to the development of the common school for all, or comprehensive school. In the United Kingdom, for example, the term 'comprehensive school' is used in the context of secondary education and was established as a reaction to a system which had previously allocated children to different types of schools on the basis of their age (Ainscow & Miles, 2008) .

The comprehensive school movement in England is similar to the Folkeskole tradition in Denmark, the 'common school' tradition in the United States of America, and the unified compulsory education system in Portugal. It involves creating a single type of 'school for all' which serves a socially diverse community. In Norway,

however, the idea of 'the school for all' was as much about creating an independent singular Norwegian identity as it was to do with the participation of people within diverse communities. Although this strong emphasis on education for local communities facilitated the disbanding of segregated special institutions, it was not followed by an equally strong movement to reform the common school to embrace and value difference. There was an emphasis on assimilating those perceived to be different into a homogeneous normality rather than transformation through diversity (Ainscow & Miles, 2008).

1.6.2.5   *Inclusion as Education for All.*

This fifth way of thinking about inclusive education tends to be almost exclusively associated with developing countries, especially those where education is neither free nor compulsory. International efforts to promote EFA intensified following the first 'World Conference on EFA' held in Jomtien, Thailand, with its slogan of 'EFA by the year 2000' (UNESCO, 1991). The significance of Jomtien conference was its acknowledgement of the exclusion of large numbers of vulnerable and marginalized groups of children from education systems worldwide. It also presented a vision of education as a much broader concept than schooling, beginning with early childhood, emphasising women's literacy and recognising the importance of basic literacy skills as part of lifelong learning.

This was a landmark conference in the development of thinking about inclusive education, even though this concept was not widely used at that time. Although the initial vision of EFA was broad and ambitious, the rhetoric of 'all' has so far failed to reach the poorest and most disadvantaged children, including those with SN (Ainscow & Miles, 2008).

1.6.3 The concept of inclusion

In the context of this study, the concept of inclusion is addressed in relation to EFA with emphasis on the provision of education to SN children in mainstream schools. It is considered a process that addresses and responds to the diverse needs of all children through participation in learning, culture and in the communities with a

common vision to educate all (Booth & Ainscow, 1998; Mittler, 2000; Savolainen, Marja, & Heikki, 2006).

The provision of effective education for all children is arguably, the biggest challenge facing school systems throughout the world (Ainscow & Miles, 2008). In economically poorer countries there are mainly about an estimated 72 million children who are not in school (UNESCO, 2007). Ensuring that all children complete primary education is an essential step towards reducing poverty and human deprivation in what Hulme (2007) refers to as the world's biggest promise in the form of the Millennium Development Goals. Meanwhile, in wealthier countries - despite the resources that are available - many young people leave school with no worthwhile qualifications, others are placed in various forms of special provision away from mainstream educational experiences, and some simply choose to drop out since the lessons seem irrelevant to their lives.

Faced with these challenges, there is evidence of an increased interest in the idea of *inclusive education*. However, the field remains confused as to what actions need to be taken in order to move policy and practice forward. In some countries, inclusive education is still thought of as an approach to serving children with 'disabilities' within general education settings. Internationally, however, it is increasingly seen more broadly as a reform that supports and welcomes diversity amongst all children (UNESCO, 2001). It presumes that the aim of inclusive education is to eliminate social exclusion that is a consequence of attitudes and responses to diversity in race, social class, ethnicity, religion, gender and ability (Ainscow & César, 2006; Ainscow & Miles, 2008; Mittler, 2005; Vitello & Mithaug, 1998). As such, it starts from the belief that education is a basic human right and the foundation for a more just society.

Seventeen years ago the Salamanca World Conference on Special Needs Education endorsed the idea of inclusive education (UNESCO, 1994). Arguably the most significant international document that has ever appeared in the field of special education, the Salamanca Statement argued that regular schools with an inclusive orientation are 'the most effective means of combating discriminatory attitudes, building an inclusive society and achieving EFA'. Furthermore, it suggested that such

schools can provide an effective education for the majority of children and improve the efficiency and ultimately the cost-effectiveness of the entire education system (UNESCO, 1994). According to Skjørten (2001), for the process of inclusion to be successful, the following among others are important:

- Parents should take centre-stage in all matters of education.
- Legislation and regulation-implementation must be secure through allocated financial provision.
- Reorientation related to assessment, teaching methods, classroom management, including adjustment of the environment.
- There should be change in heart and attitudes.
- Redefinition of teacher's roles and reallocation of human resources.
- Reorientation of teacher education so that new teachers can contribute to the process towards inclusion.
- In-service orientation and upgrading of teachers so that they will be able to contribute to the process of inclusion.
- Establishment, improvement and further development of partnership between teachers and parents.

1.6.4 Special needs education in South Africa

Special needs education is a sector where the ravages of apartheid remain most evident. Here, the segregation of children on the basis of race was extended to incorporate segregation on the basis of SN. Apartheid SS were thus organised according to two segregating criteria, race and SN. In accordance with apartheid policy, schools that accommodated white children with SN were extremely well-resourced, whereas the schools for their black counterparts were systematically under resourced (Department of Education, 2001). Nonetheless, very few SS existed for both white and black children. The impact of this policy was that only about 2.43% children with SN were accommodated in about 380 special schools (Table 1.1) (Department of Education 2001). In Limpopo Province only about 4,250 are enrolled in any of the 19 specials schools found in the Province. The overall percentage of special learners in these schools stands at about 0.23 % – the lowest in the country (Department of Education, 2001).

In October 1996, the Ministry of Education appointed the National Commission on Special Needs in Education and Training and the National Committee on Education Support Services to investigate and make recommendations on all aspects of 'special needs and support services' in education and training in South Africa.

Table 1.1: Distribution of special schools and learner enrolment per province

Province	No. of special schools	No. of learners in special school	% of learners in special school	% of total No. of special schools
Eastern Cape	41	6,483	0.28	10.79
Free State	19	3,127	0.40	5.0
Gauteng	96	25,451	1.62	25.26
KwaZulu-Natal	58	7,631	0.28	15.26
Mpumalanga	15	2,692	0.29	3.95
Northern Cape	8	1,392	0.68	2.11
Limpopo	19	4,250	0.23	5.0
North West	42	4,364	0.46	11.05
Western Cape	82	9,213	0.96	21.58
Total	**380**	**64,603**	**5.2**	**100**

Source: (Department of Education, 2001).

A joint report on the findings of these two bodies was presented to the Minister of Education in November 1997, and the final report was published by the Department of Education in February 1998 for public comment and advice (Department of Education, 2001). The central findings of the investigations included:

- Specialised education and support have predominantly been provided for a small percentage of learners with disabilities within 'special' schools and classes.
- Where provided, specialised education and support were provided on a racial basis, with the best human, physical and material resources reserved for whites.

- Most learners with disability have either fallen outside of the system or been 'mainstreamed by default'.
- The curriculum and education system as a whole have generally failed to respond to the diverse needs of the learner population, resulting in massive numbers of drop-outs, push-outs, and failures.

In the light of these findings, the joint report of the two bodies recommended that the education and training system should promote education for all and foster the development of inclusive and supportive centres of learning that would enable all learners to participate actively in the education process so that they could develop and extend their potential and participate as equal members of society. The principles guiding the broad strategies to achieve this vision included: acceptance of principles and values contained in the Constitution and White Papers on Education and Training; human rights and social justice for all learners; participation and social integration; equal access to a single, inclusive education system; access to the curriculum, equity and redress; community responsiveness; and cost-effectiveness (Department of Education, 2001). The report also suggested that the key strategies required to achieve this vision included:

- Transforming all aspects of the education system, developing an integrated system of education.
- Pursuing the holistic development of centres of learning to ensure a barrier-free physical environment and a supportive and inclusive psycho-social learning environment, developing a flexible curriculum to ensure access to all learners.
- Promoting the rights and responsibilities of parents, educators and learners.
- Providing effective development programmes for educators, support personnel, and other relevant human resources.
- Fostering holistic and integrated support provision through intersectoral collaboration.
- Developing a community based support system which includes a preventative and developmental approach to support.

- Developing funding strategies that ensure redress for historically disadvantaged communities and institutions, sustainability.

1.6.4.1   Inclusive education in South Africa

Since the emergence of the new democratic South Africa in 1994 there has been extensive educational policy development and subsequent legislation. The final education policy paper, Education White Paper 6: Special Needs Education, *Building an inclusive education and training system* (2001), provides a framework for developing an inclusive system that acknowledges and respects diversity in learners and enables education structures, systems and learning methodologies to meet the needs of all learners, not just those with disabilities. Implementing inclusive education in schools demanded the interactive participation of all role-players, including teachers, managers, parents, learners and community members (Swart et al., 2004).

In order for the Ministry to establish an inclusive education and training system, it reviewed all existing policies and legislation for general, higher education and training so that these will be consistent with the policy proposals put forward in the White Papers. The central objective of the Education White Paper 6 was to extend the policy foundations, frameworks and programmes of existing policy for all bands of education and training so that the current education and training system will recognise and accommodate the diverse range of learning needs. The most significant conceptual change from current policy was that the development of education and training must be premised on the understanding that:

- All children, youth and adults have the potential to learn within all bands of education and they all require support.
- Many learners experience barriers to learning or drop out primarily because of the inability of the system to recognise and accommodate the diverse range of learning needs typically through inaccessible physical plants, curricula, assessment, learning materials and instructional methodologies.

- Establishing an inclusive education and training system will require changes to mainstream education so that learners experiencing barriers to learning can be identified early and appropriate support provided.
- It will also require changes to special schools and specialised settings so that learners who experience mild to moderate disabilities can be adequately accommodated within mainstream education through appropriate support from district-based support teams including special schools and specialised settings.

Recent education legislation and policy in South Africa recognises the role and responsibility of parents and emphasises on their participation. Parents are key informants of their children and can be a vital source of support for them and the school. Parents are viewed as integral partners in developing a more inclusive system, where decision-making and the responsibility for outcomes are shared (Swart et al., 2004; Engelbrecht et al., 2005; Yssel et al., 2007).

1.7   Research design and methods

A brief overview of the research design and methods employed in this study are presented below while extensive details are provided in chapter three.

1.7.1 Causal comparative design

For this study a causal comparative and quantitative approach was used. Causal comparative research also known as ex post facto, attempts to establish a cause and effect relationship involving group comparisons (Shenkar & Rumrill, 2004). Here the alleged causal variable is not manipulated by the researcher (Tukov, 2008). The choice of a quantitative approach is to provide an unbiased understanding and evaluation as perceived by the respondents (Golafshani, 2003; Tukov, 2008). The quantitative research approach also allows for testing of hypothetical generalizations (Golafshani, 2003) and the measurement and analysis of causal relationships between variables.

1.7.2 Population and sampling

For this study three target populations (*i.e.* parents with SN children in SS, parents with SN children in RS and parents with SN neither enrolled in SS nor RS) were selected from parents with SN children within Capricorn District, Limpopo Province. Both purposive and random samplings were used to select the respondents. A purposive sample is one in which the respondents are selected by the researcher subjectively (Tukov, 2008). The sample is selected to include subjects of interest and exclude those who do not meet the researcher's criteria. In random sampling each respondent has an equal and independent chance of being selected (Tukov, 2008).

1.7.3 Data collection

The main method of data collection was through administration of semi-structured questionnaires to individual parents. The questionnaire comprised two parts; (a) dealing with parents demographic information and nature of child's need, and (b) statements evaluating parents' perceptions on inclusion. The section that evaluates parents' perceptions used a 1 – 5 Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = not sure, 4 = agree and 5 = strongly agree) to indicate their level of agreement (Cheng, 2001; Stanley, Grimbeek, Bryer, & Beamish, 2003).

1.7.4 Data analysis

Basic descriptive statistics (frequency, percentage and mean) and inferential statistics (ANOVA and post hoc analyses) were used to compare the perceptions of the three groups of parents. A one – way analysis of variance (1 – ANOVA) was used to test the hypothesis.

1.7.5 Validity and reliability

The traditional criteria for validity find their roots in a positivist tradition, and to an extent, positivism has been defined by a systematic theory of validity. Within the positivist terminology, validity resided amongst, and was the result and culmination of other empirical conceptions: universal laws, evidence, objectivity, truth, actuality,

deduction, reason, fact and mathematical data to name just a few (Winter, 2000). Joppe (2000: 1) provides the following explanation of what validity is in quantitative research: *'Validity determines whether the research truly measures that which it was intended to measure or how truthful the research results are. In other words, does the research instrument allow you to hit "the bull's eye" of your research object? Researchers generally determine validity by asking a series of questions, and will often look for the answers in the research of others'.* The questionnaire administered in this study was subjected to content validity.

Joppe (2000: 1) defines reliability as: *'The extent to which results are consistent over time and an accurate representation of the total population under study is referred to as reliability and if the results of a study can be reproduced under a similar methodology, then the research instrument is considered to be reliable'.* Embodied in this citation is the idea of replicability or repeatability of results or observations. Kirk and Miller (1986: 41-42) indicated that reliability referred to in quantitative research, relates to: (1) the degree to which a measurement, given repeatedly, remains the same (2) the stability of a measurement over time; and (3) the similarity of measurements within a given time period. Test-retest reliability was adopted for this study.

1.7.6   Delimitation of the study

This study was carried out in Capricorn District of Limpopo Province, South Africa. It focused only on parents with special needs children within the Capricorn District.

1.8   Operationalization of terminologies

The following terms are defined within the context of this study:

1.8.1 Disability

According to Skjørten (2001), 'disability' is any lack or restriction (caused by physical, sensory, neurological, intellectual or emotional impairment) to perform an activity in the manner or within the range considered normal for a human being.

1.8.2 Special needs/special education needs

Special Need (SN) is a term used in clinical diagnostics and functional development to describe individuals who require assistance for 'disabilities' (Frederickson & Cline, 2002). Special Education Needs (SEN) on the other hand refers to individuals (children) who have learning difficulties or 'disabilities' that make it harder for them to learn or access education than most individuals (learners) of the same age (Frederickson & Cline, 2002). In this study, SN, SEN and 'disability' are considered synonymous and are used interchangeably.

1.8.3 Mainstreaming/Integration

It is the placement of the learner with SEN in a particular kind of system whereby the learner is provided with extra support if necessary in order for him/her to 'fit in' (Ainscow, 1995). In this case, both terms are considered to be synonymous.

1.9   Structure of the study

Chapter 1:   GENERAL INTRODUCTION
Chapter 2:   THEORETICAL ORIENTATION AND RELATED LITERATURE
Chapter 3:   RESEARCH METHODS AND DESIGN
Chapter 4:   PRESENTATION OF RESULTS AND DATA ANALYSES
Chapter 5:   DISCUSSIONS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

1.10   Conclusion

This chapter provided the background against which this study was developed. Statement of the problem, aims and objectives, hypothesis and significance of the study have been elaborated. The research methods and design, conceptual framework and definition of key terms have equally been highlighted. A brief outline of the structure of the study concludes this chapter. The theoretical framework and detailed review of related literature is presented in chapter 2.

Chapter Two

THEORETICAL ORIENTATION AND RELATED LITERATURE

2.1 Introduction

This chapter begins with a theoretical framework. It provides a general overview of inclusion and SEN from the USA, United Kingdom, South Africa and other developing countries. It further reviews literature on the role of parents as partners in inclusive education, parent's rights and advocacy as well as parents' perceptions of emotional and educational benefits of inclusion. The influence of parents' ethnic and socio-cultural background on their perception of inclusion is equally presented. The chapter ends with an overview of general education teachers' attitudes towards inclusion.

2.1 Theoretical framework

2.1.1 Vygotsky's theories of learning and their significance on inclusion

The Russian educational psychologist and semioticist Lev Vygotsky (1896 – 1934) argued that learning is a necessary and universal aspect of the process of developing culturally organized human psychological functions. In other words, learning is what leads to the development of higher order thinking (Thorne, 2005; Rodina, 2006). According to Vygotsky, the two primary means of learning occur through social interaction and language. Language greatly enhances humans' ability to engage in social interactions and sharing of their experiences. Initially, a child's new knowledge is interpsychological (learned through interaction with others) on the social level (Vygotsky & Lifanova, 1996 in Rodina, 2006). Later, this same knowledge becomes intrapsychological and the new knowledge or skill is mastered on an individual level.

The concept of Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) is central to Vygotsky's view on how learning takes place. He described this zone as the distance between the actual development as determined by independent problem solving and the level of

potential development through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers (Thorne, 2005; Rodina, 2006). Vygotsky maintained that learning occurs just above the child's current level of competence. It follows then, that the coping child will have a higher performance when working with a more capable student (Leong & Bodrova, 2001) and a child interacting with adults and/or peers will accomplish a task which could possibly not be completed independently. The ZPD works in conjunction with the use of scaffolding (Feden & Vogel, 2006). Vygotsky argued that, higher mental functions are not independently constructed by children in early ontogenesis rather, 'the development of mental process is mediated by adults in the context of social interactions with children' (Karpov 2005:10).

The implications of Vygotsky's theories and observations on children with SEN and inclusion are significant. In his view the teacher or adult has the task of guiding and directing the activities of the child with SN – tutoring within the ZPD (Feden & Vogel, 2006). Vygotsky defined those who are to teach as the 'more knowledgeable other' (MKO).The MKO is anyone (teacher, adult or peer) who has a better understanding or is more skilled than the learner (in this case child with SN) particularly with regards to a specific task, concept or process (Rosser, 2008).

Tutoring within the ZPD (scaffolding) usually follows a four step sequence: firstly, the guide (teacher, adult or more skilled peer) assumes most of the responsibility for completing a task; secondly, the learner and guide share responsibility for task completion; thirdly, the guide gradually relinquishes control to the learner as his/her skills increases; finally, the learner takes full responsibility for completing the task (Fetsco & Mcclure, 2005). This final step represents a transition from socially supported performance to independent performance.From a Vygotskian perspective, a new ZPD has been created.

Associated with tutoring within the ZPD is collaborative problem solving or collective scaffolding. This is an alternative way of conceptualizing skill and learning within the ZPD. In this case, the approach to scaffolding by a guide is replaced by the idea of two learners collaborating together to help each other develop new understanding or skills (Rosser, 2008). According to Vygotsky an individual's knowledge, skills and

prior experiences create the foundation of scaffolding for potential development independently. Thus, the use of language and shared experience is essential to successfully implementing scaffolding as a learning tool (Feden & Vogel, 2006).

2.1.2 Vygotsky's social constructionist view on 'disability'

Social constructionism is characterised by a relativistic epistemology. According to Newman and Holzman, (1997:25) and Yankun (2006), Vygotsky was one of the first social constructionists and pre-postmodernists in psychology who pioneered a sociocultural approach to understanding cognitive processes in childhood development. Social constructionism formulated the basis for Vygotsky`s *Cultural-Historical Activity Theory* (CHAT) as well as his *Theory on Dysontogenesis* (TD) also known as the theory of distorted development (Gindis, 2003:202). Both the CHAT and the TD address the characteristics and peculiarities of infant psychological development, the ZPD, developmental education, the socio-cultural origin of 'disability', and application of a dynamic approach to 'disability' and inclusion, presented in his work - *The Fundamentals of Defectology* (Stetsenko, 2005; Rodinia, 2006).

Thorne (2005) claimed that the Vygotskian concept of mediations is more than a means for solving problems and creating learning possibilities. It should be seen as part of the methods by which schools and members of the community construct learning environments, tasks, identities, and contexts (Thorne, 2005). The community is the bearer of cultural heritage without which, the development of mind is impossible (Rodina, 2006). This allows the learner to develop cognitively through social interactions. As a result it makes it possible for a child to communicate and share the environment from within his/her society. Every function in the child's cultural development appears twice; first, on the social level and later on the individual level; first between people (interpsychological) and then inside the child (intraspychological) (Vygotsky & Lifanova, 1996 in Rodina, 2006).

Vygotsky presents a dynamic assessment of disability. In his view, the structure of disability is too complex to be studied by simply summing up symptoms. Primary disorders (i.e. visual and hearing, language and speech-related, motor and central

nervous system related impairment) lead to the child's exclusion from the socio-cultural, traditional and educational environment, which in turn causes secondary (socio-cultural) 'disability'. Due to primary disorders, the child displays a distorted connection to culture as a source for development of higher mental functions, forcing parents and children with special needs to opt for special schools as opposed to general education settings (Vygotsky, 1993). Thus, Vygotskians stress on the fact that, the structural complexity of functional disability has considerable impact on special education (Yankun, 2006).

2.1.3 The impact of the socio-cultural approach to 'disability' in inclusive education

Vygotsky stressed the importance of the dynamic, socio-cultural nature of 'disability' for the methodology of inclusive education. He also stressed the importance of social learning in the upbringing and education of children with special needs. To him, psychological and physical insufficiency is determined by a certain social setting, arrangement, or 'aberration', hindering children's normal socialization. Vygotsky criticized parents', teachers' and psychologists' pathological approach to child 'disability'. Prior to inclusive education, most communities, parents and teachers (of general education) continuously pity, and discriminate against children with special needs, thus hindering their ZPD, enhancing secondary 'disability' even further (Rodinia, 2006). The excessive surveillance, the manifold limitations, and the deprivation of independency tend to negatively influence their overall development. This may explain the rapid loss of parental hope for potential development of their special needs child.

Vygotsky highly appreciated the role of social and collective life experience for children with special needs. According to Vygotsky (1993), the personality of children with special needs is not determined by their 'disability', but rather by their social environment and its dialectical interaction with the child. Thus, the social aspect is crucial in the upbringing of children with special needs. In the collective, the child 'finds the material to build the inner functions which are realized during the process of compensatory [collective] development' (Vygotsky 1993:127). Vygotsky (1993) argued further that, interaction with peers (or collective upbringing) is one of the most important socio-cultural conditions for development and socialization among children

with special needs. Through interaction, children can extend their 'internal' limitations and thus exceed their ZPD.

From the above arguments and theories, the following conclusions can be drawn from the works of Lev Vygotsky:

- Culture makes two sorts of contributions to a child's intellectual development. Firstly, through culture children acquire much of the content of their thinking. Secondly, the surrounding culture provides a child with the processes or means of their thinking, what Vygotskians call the tools of intellectual adaptation. In short, according to the social cognition learning model, culture teaches children both what to think and how to think.

- Cognitive development results from a dialectical process whereby a child learns through problem-solving experiences shared with someone else, usually a parent or teacher but sometimes a sibling or peer.

- Initially, the person interacting with a child assumes most of the responsibility for guiding the problem solving, but gradually this responsibility transfers to the child.

- Language is a primary form of interaction through which adults transmit to the child the rich body of knowledge that exists in the culture.

- As learning progresses, the child's own language comes to serve as his/her primary tool of intellectual adaptation. Eventually, children can use internal language to direct their own behaviour.

- Internalization refers to the process of learning by acquiring, a rich body of knowledge and tools of thought that first existed outside the child. This happens primarily through language.

- A difference exists between what a child can do by him/herself and what the child can do with help. Vygotskians call this difference the zone of proximal development.

- Since much of what a child learns come from the culture around him/her and much of the child's problem solving is mediated through an adult's help, it is wrong to focus on a child in isolation. Such focus does not reveal the processes by which children acquire new skills.

- Interactions with surrounding culture and social agents, such as parents and more competent peers, contribute significantly to a child's intellectual development.

Contrary to other schools of thought (for example Jean Piaget who reckons; *development concepts should not be taught until children are in the appropriate developmental stage* and that *the most important source of cognition is the children themselves*) (Roser, 2008:9), the social cognition learning model advanced by Lev Vygotsky, asserts that culture is the prime determinant of individual development. Humans are the only species to have created culture, and every human child develops in the context of a culture. Therefore, a child's learning development is affected in ways large and small by the culture of family and school environment in which he or she is enmeshed.

2.2   Review of related literature

2.2.1 Inclusion and 'education for all': global directions

There is clearly an important need to foster an education system that promotes high expectations for all children, including those with SN. The intended long term outcomes for children with SN should be no different from those of children without SN; schools exist to prepare children for life. As we look to the future, it is important not to underestimate the challenges facing education systems as they try to make EFA inclusive. Within this overall agenda, ensuring that the most marginalised groups of children, in the poorest countries, gain access to and participate in an education of good quality remains a major challenge.

Lewin (2007) explains that in sub-Saharan Africa a significant number of children of school – going ages (about 25 million children for primary and 75 million for secondary education) are excluded from education. It is currently estimated that one third of the world's out of school population are 'disabled', and that only 2% of 'disabled' children attend school (UNESCO, 2007).   Article 24 in the new UN Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities requires all signatories to ensure that all 'disabled' children '*can access an inclusive, quality, free primary and*

secondary education on an equal basis with others in the communities in which they live' (United Nations, 2005, Art 24 2b). Although not a homogenous group, children with SN in developing countries tend to be identified internationally as being excluded from education in disproportionately large numbers (Ainscow & Miles, 2008; Mittler, 2005).

Definitions and perceptions of SN are culturally and contextually determined and statistics inevitably vary between contexts. A focus on demographic data and statistics obscures contextual problems associated with negative attitudes, policies and institutions which exclude children (Rydstrom, 2010). According to Ainscow and Miles (2008) education involves complex social processes. Furthermore, the development of education systems does not take place in isolation. Rather it has to be understood in relation to particular geographical, political and economic factors, as well as culturally and contextually specific values and beliefs. This applies whether we are talking about the resource rich countries or economically disadvantaged countries.

 Ainscow and Miles (2008) argued further that, progress in relation to both the EFA agenda and inclusive education requires a greater clarity about what becoming more inclusive involves. According to them it is a *principled approach to education* which involves:

- The process of increasing the participation of students in, and reducing their exclusion from, the curricula, cultures and communities of local schools;
- Restructuring the cultures, policies and practices in schools so that they respond to the diversity of children in their locality;
- The presence, participation and achievement of all children vulnerable to exclusionary pressures, not only those with impairments or those who are categorised as 'having special educational needs'.

Such a formulation is consistent with what some scholars have defined as the '*organisational paradigm*' of inclusive education (Dyson & Millward, 2000). This requires new thinking that challenges assumptions that are deeply established

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amongst many educators across the world. Specifically, it requires a move away from explanations of educational failure that concentrate on the characteristics of individual children and their families, towards an analysis of the barriers to participation and learning experienced by children within education systems (Booth & Ainscow, 2002). Here, the notion of barriers draws our attention, for example, to ways in which lack of resources or expertise, inappropriate curricula or teaching methods, and attitudes can limit the presence, participation and achievement of some children.

2.2.1.1   *Inclusion / special education needs in United Kingdom and United States of America*

The past two decades has seen parallel shifts in the United Kingdom (UK) and the United States of America (USA) in the concept of inclusion/SEN and the legal framework surrounding its assessment. In the UK, SEN was introduced as a legally defined term by the Education Act London (Department of Education and Science, 1981), following the advice of the Warnock Report. Prior to 1981 the focus was on identifying and making provisions for handicapped individuals. The Warnock Report recommended that the statutory categories of 'disabled' persons should be abolished and instead children who require special educational provision be identified on the basis of their needs following detailed assessments (Frederickson & Cline, 2002). The implementation of the Education Act (Department of Education and Science, 1981) shifted the purpose of assessment from diagnosis of 'disability' to the identification of SEN.

In the USA the legislation on SEN in the last quarter of the 20th century, also emphasized meeting the individual needs of children and focused on the provision of a match between these needs and the education offered (Frederickson & Cline, 2002). With the historical movement for comprehensive schools and the vision of a school for all, irrespective of gender, social class or ability, it followed that more provision was to be made for children with SEN in ordinary schools. According to Norwich (2008), children with SEN were to be educated in ordinary schools, subject to several conditions:

- That the child received the provision needed.
- That others' education was not disrupted by integration arrangements.
- That parents were supportive.
- That the arrangements were consistent with the 'efficient use of resources.

This legislative framework made it possible to have a mixed model of provision, where special schools still existed, but there was also scope for increasing provision in ordinary schools. Since the 1990s, the movement towards increasing provision for children with SN in ordinary schools in UK and the USA (Ainscow, 1999) has been promoted in terms of inclusion rather than integration. This can be seen in the context of wider policies promoting social inclusion, which involves the participation of 'vulnerable' members of society in a range of social activities and settings, not just those with SN in regular schools. Inclusion has also been promoted as a 'rights issue' and as about changing the system to make them more accommodating of those who are 'different' (Ainscow, 1999; Ainscow & César, 2006).

2.2.1.2   Inclusion / special education needs in Africa and Asia

It is estimated that the majority of the world's population of people with 'disabilities' live in the developing countries of Asia, Africa, the Caribbean, Latin America and the Middle East (UNESCO, 2007). The educational policies in many developing countries and Africa in particular recognise inclusion as a desirable form of education for children with SN. However, its inclusion is not being satisfactorily implemented in many of these countries (UNESCO, 2007). In countries like India, China, Chile, Mongolia, Palestine, Peru, Jordan and most of Africa (Benin Republic, Burkina Faso, Ghana, Guinea, Ivory Coast, Lesotho, Malawi, Morocco, Cameroon, Uganda and to some extent Nigeria and South Africa just to name but a few) some of these inclusive education programmes (IEP) remain as 'pilot projects' UNESCO reports (UNESCO 1996/97, 1999, 2007). Encouraging and commendable as these projects are, the majority of children with SN that are provided educational and other services in inclusive settings are scarce.

Abosi (1996) observed that in most countries in Africa for instance, the implementation of inclusion has not received strong support from most of the governments in terms of proper planning and resource provision. Abosi considered that the type of inclusion practised in Africa results in isolation and frustration for children with SN because the necessary supports and resources for meaningful inclusion are lacking. Research indicates that facilities for early childhood education that could have served as the foundation for the implementation of IEP for SN children in Africa are underdeveloped (Kalabula, 2000).

Inclusive education within the Ghanaian context, like elsewhere, is providing education that responds to and accounts for majority-minority relations and asymmetrical relations of power based on difference (Dei, 2005). This working definition of inclusivity contrasts with dominant definitions that view inclusive education simply as teaching children with a range of abilities and, specifically, integrating SN children into regular classrooms. Schooling can be 'exclusive' by not responding adequately to difference and diversity among the student population. Dei (2005) argued further that, the practice of inclusion in Ghana is hindered by differences structured along lines of ethnicity, gender, class, religion, language, culture and ability.

From India, Chadha (1999, 2000) reported that although a nation-wide inclusion scheme called Integrated Education for Disabled Children (IEDC) was launched in 1974, the programme had attained only a very limited coverage. According to Chadha, only about 60 000 of the estimated 30 million children with special needs in India have been enrolled under the IEDC. Further, Chadha indicated that many children with SN were forced to drop out of the programme due to the lack of relevant supports and resources.

Clearly, factors such as inadequate facilities and personnel training programmes, inadequate support services, relevant materials and support personnel, absence of enabling legislation, fear of rejection by both school and community as well as ethnic and sociocultural influences are the major problems hindering effective implementation of inclusion in Africa and other developing countries (Eleweke & Rodda, 2002). In addition to the above challenges, parents rights and advocacy as

well as their involvement in the education of their children has been side-lined. With the exception of South Africa, the role of parents in most African countries is limited to fund raising and ensuring accountability in schools (Engelbrecht, et al. 2005). The absence of enabling legislation in favour of parents' rights and advocacy has been echoed as a significant drawback to inclusion and EFA (Engelbrecht, et al. 2005; (Swart, et al., 2004).

In summary the concept of inclusion remains a global phenomenon, however, it is context specific in terms of practise and meaning as one moves from one part of the world to another. Attempts to generalise concepts, approaches and observations as obtained in specific regions (countries/continents) would be futile as presented in above arguments. While appreciating contributions from the West towards the promotion of IE and EFA, setting Western models of inclusion as bench-marks for Africa without taking the African context into perspective will be unrealistic.

2.2.2 Parents as partners in inclusion

The voices of parents and their involvement in the education of their children have been a positive force in education. Research over many years have documented the benefits of a collaborative relationship between home and school (Chrispeels, 1996; Christenson & Sheridan, 2001; Engelbrecht et al., 2005; Epstein, 2001; Gliga & Popa, 2010; Henley, Ramsey & Algozzine, 2006; Odom & McEvoy 1990; Soodak & Erwin, 2000; Soodak, 2004; Swart et al., 2004; Yssel et al., 2007;). These benefits include higher grades and test scores, positive attitudes, improved behaviour, more successful programs and schools.

A survey by Kelly-Laine (1998) in the UK showed a wide spread encouragement of parental involvement in education. The following reasons for parental involvement were identified by the above researchers:

- Democracy; in some countries parents are considered to have a right to involve in their child's education.

- Accountability; parental involvement is seen as a means of making schools more accountable to the community that finances them.
- Consumer choice; parents are encouraged to choose the education they want for their child and complain if it falls short of their expectations.
- Means of raising standards; research has shown that high achieving, well – ordered schools are characterized by good home – school relationships.
- Tackling disadvantages and improving equity; here the focus is on raising the achievements of individual children by helping their parents to support them more effectively at home. This is seen as particularly where there are cultural differences between family and school.
- Resources; parents are regarded as a source of extra funds for running the school.

In South Africa, the voice of parents was silent for many years and parental involvement was limited to fundraising by parent organizations at schools (Engelbrecht et al., 2005; Swart et al., 2004). With the emergence of a new democratic South Africa, parents are now considered to be integral partners in developing a more inclusive system, where decision making and the responsibilities for outcomes are shared (Swart et al., 2004).

There is thus a wide range of reasons why schools and public authorities endorse effective partnership between home and school. One goal may be emphasized more frequently than others – the enhancement of child's learning (*whether a SN child or not*). The flow diagram below (Figure 2.1) presents an overview of those school practices that are most effective in this respect.

Raise parents' expectations
through communication
and information

Use parent workshop
to focus on academics

COMMUNITY

SCHOOL

Effective school practices being
implemented

Provide frequent
reports of pupils'
progress

Develop parents
as leaders

Structure
home/school
relations that
respect culture and
diversity

Give recognition for
academic growth and
achievement

Extend learning time with homework, after school
programmes, family workshops

Figure 2.1: Effective school practise for reinforcing parents' efforts to enhance their children's learning (modified after Chrispeels, 1996).

The involvement of parents with SN children should be in line with general trends outlined above. Cunningham and Davis (1985) suggested that the ways in which parent – school relationships around SEN have been described over the years may be characterized in terms of three models:

- *An expert model* in which professionals (teachers, administrators) are seen as the source of all knowledge about children with SEN whereas parents play the role of passive recipients of advice from experts.
- *A transplant model* in which professionals are regarded as key decision makers and main source of expertise while parents are considered a valuable resource and source of active support and intervention for their child.
- *A consumer model* in which the parent becomes the key decision maker and the professionals offer information and services from which the parent could select according to their needs.

These three models are contrasted with a *partnership model* in which; teachers are viewed as experts on education; and parents, experts on their children (Hornby,

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1995). The teacher-parent relationship can then be a partnership which involves sharing of expertise and control in order to provide the optimum education for children with SN (Hornby, 1995: 20). According to Soodak and Erwin (2000), this partnership can only be possible when parents perceive a sense of acceptance in the community not only for themselves, but also for their children. Thus, an open-door policy to make parents feel welcome at any time is most important; moreover, schools that are committed to effective partnerships must make an effort to hear what parents want and expect of their children (Soodak & Erwin, 2000).

2.2.3 Parents rights and advocacy

In special education, the US has had a long and rich history of parent advocacy, resulting in ground-breaking changes in the education of students with SN (Yssel et al., 2007). However, legal rights do not necessarily translate into an effective partnership. As Henley et al., (2002: 380) explained; 'a built-in mechanism for teacher–parent collaboration does not guarantee successful outcomes. Success or failure depends on trust, mutual respect and cooperation'.

The recognition of parents' rights and advocacy in the mid 90's in South Africa served as an impetus for the inclusive movement (Belknap et al., 1997: Swart et al. 2004; Yssel et al., 2007). Although parental rights are now legally protected and their influence recognized in South Africa, Soodak (2004) claimed that parents' perspectives are not always adequately understood or considered in educational decision making. Soodak further noted that the move to inclusive education must include parents' perspectives because they are the primary stakeholders in the success of inclusive education. Parents have legal responsibility for the proper care and development of their children. They should therefore be regarded as having a major stake in the way education and other services are provided. The rights and needs of children are fundamental and parents have responsibilities that arise from these (Yssel et al., 2007). Parents need to have access to all information that is available and relevant to their children's education while at the same time be able to understand differences in professional opinion and the evidence on which theses are based.

It should however be recognised that, parents of children with SEN will at times have their own needs for emotional and moral support. In as much as there some common issues for parents' across the globe, they do not all have the same or similar needs (Soodak, 2004). There is diversity not just in culture and interests of different parents but also in the resources they can bring to bear (Eleweke & Rodda, 2002).

2.2.4 Parents' perception of socio-emotional and educational benefits of inclusion

2.2.4.1   Inclusion and social acceptance

Most parents (if not all) are apprehensive of the fact that inclusion might offer a set of challenges for their children with SN in terms of; seeking acceptance and integration from peers without SN who view them as being different (Ruijs & Peetsma, 2009). Inclusive classrooms offer SN children unique opportunities for adjusting to the larger social world (Carrington & Robinson, 2006). A number of researchers have argued that inclusive classrooms can improve the social status of SN children; because there is great opportunity for positive interaction with 'non-disabled' peers (Estell, Jones, Pearl, Van Acker, Farmer & Rodkin, 2008; Ruijs & Peetsma, 2009).

In a study by Peck, Carlson and Helmstetter (1992), 125 parents of children who involved in school district-based integrated kindergarten program in Washington State were surveyed about their perceptions on inclusion. These parents stated that given their involvement, the children had better self-concepts after attending inclusive early childhood programs. Vaughn, Elbaum and Schumm (1996) studied second, third and fourth – grade children in inclusive classrooms in the USA. Initial results suggested the children with SN were often socially rejected and, generally not liked by their peers without SN. As the school year progressed social acceptance changed as children with SN increased their number of reciprocal friendships (Vaughn et al., 1996). Weiner and Tardif (2004) offered complementary results regarding children with SN in fourth through eighth grades in Canada. Comparing different special education placements (resource room, in-class resources, self-contained, and inclusive classrooms), they found that SN children in the inclusive

classroom were more socially accepted and had more friends than if they were in either of the three special education placements (Weiner & Tardif, 2004).

However, not all research has suggested that inclusion improves the social situation and unconditional acceptance of children with SN. In a review on social acceptance and SN children in the USA, Salend and Duhaney (1999) argued that some studies reported only temporal social improvement; and that, longer lasting social benefits may not be gained from inclusive classrooms. Frederickson and Furnham (2004) suggested that typically achieving middle school children in the UK disproportionately rejected their peers with SN. In their study, children with SN were rejected both for play and scholastic activities despite being in an inclusive educational environment.

Similar results were found in ethnically diverse studies of inclusion and social acceptance. Plata, Trusty and Glasgow (2005) reported that educationally successful Anglo-American and African American children held similar levels of reluctance towards peers with SN. Although both the Anglo-American and African American children would allow SN children to participate in some social activities (signing their yearbook, being a member of their church), the two groups were more hesitant towards other activities (going places with friends, being in a class project together) (Plata et al., 2005).

Findings by Yssel et al. (2007) in South Africa and the US with regards to parents' perception towards inclusion and social acceptance were mixed (positive and negative). On a negative note, Yssel et al. (2007: 359) reported the recurrence of the theme 'you against them' from the South African parents with SN children. These parents' indicated that their children always felt a sense of invading the space/environment of their peers without 'disability'. These sentiments where shared by their US counterparts; *'because there is eight of them and two of us… it seems like we are going into their environment and it is they who are in charge'* (Yssel et al., 2007:359). Another South African parent also expressed her fears;

> *'I think the main worry when you send your child in inclusive education is, how are the teachers going to cope with your own child? Is he going to cope, is he*

going to be happy? And what are the other children going to do with my child in school'? (Yssel et al., 2007:360).

Considering the importance of social acceptance as voiced by parents of children with SN, the role of general education peers in successful inclusion is crucial (Yssel et al., 2007. Despite being very apprehensive, South African parents also commented that over time, the general education learners stopped noticing the 'disability' and started demonstrating a positive attitude toward their peers with SN. This manifested in a willingness to assist SN children with various tasks (e.g., carrying bags, writing down homework) (Yssel et al., 2007).

2.2.4.2   *Emotional and educational benefits of inclusion*

An important line of argument on inclusive education concerns the emotional and educational benefits for both children with and without SN (Lindsay, 2007; Myklebust, 2007; Ruijs & Peetsma, 2009). Children with SN might feel rejected and a failure because they attend special schools. They may compare themselves more often to children without SN, which might have an adverse effect on their self-confidence.

Reichart, Lynch, Anderson, DiCola, and Mercury (1989), measured the responses of parents with SN children and parents of children without SN towards integration regarding socio-emotional benefits, teacher factors as well as organizational and philosophical issues in some states in USA. A total of 51 parents were involved in the study (12 parents with SN children and 39 parents of children without SN). Fifty eight percent of the parents with SN children and 64% of parents with children without SN indicated that their children's self-concepts improved. All of the parents of children with SN and 92% of the parents of typically developing children believed that integrated placement had a positive emotional impact on the child. In addition, 75% of the parents of children with SN and 51% of the parents of children without SN disagreed with the premise that their child would receive less individual attention from teachers in an inclusive setting. Only one third of parents of typically developing children (33%) claimed that they would learn best in segregated classrooms while fewer parents of children with SN (18%) agreed with this premise.

Peck, Staub, Gallucci, and Schwartz (2004: 139) reported comments by parents of children with and without SN (A1 and A2 respectively) from suburban districts in Pacific North West, USA on the emotional benefits of inclusion on their children;

> *"My daughter has alopecia areata - she has lost most of the hair on her head. It has been obvious to me that helping another child (her classmate with severe 'disabilities') has made my child's differences in appearance less important. Her class has been very supportive and it's made a difficult time easier to bear" (parent A1).*

> *"Our daughter has become more accepting of other children", "they are all learning. You do not have to be perfect to be valuable" (parent A2).*

Salend and Duhaney (1999) reviewed nine articles on the effect of inclusive education on the academic achievement of students with SN. Findings from most of these studies reported that placement in inclusive programmes results in improved educational outcomes for students with SN. Myklebust (2007) investigated the effect of inclusive education in Norwegian upper secondary education. He investigated the development of 494 students with special educational needs such as general learning difficulties, specific difficulties with reading, writing and arithmetic and mild psychosocial problems. He found a positive effect of inclusive education on competence attainment: students receiving additional support in inclusive classes were 76% more likely to obtain formal qualifications than students receiving education in special classes. Students who achieved better at the start of upper secondary education were also more likely to obtain a formal qualification.

Also, in a similar study conducted in Washington by Guralnick (1994), where 220 mothers of children with SN and children without SN were surveyed about their perceptions of the benefits and drawbacks of including their children in regular early childhood classrooms. These parents indicated that children with SN were likely to benefit from being educated in a regular classroom. Belknap et al. (1997) reported that parents of children with downsyndrome in mainstream schools in South Africa recognized the academic and socio-emotional benefits of mainstream settings.

In contrast, Rogers and Thiery (2003) reported negative effects of inclusion on the educational achievement of children with SN. They investigated the reading performances of five students with SN in an inclusive class of 17 students (from the USA). Before the study, students were having their reading lessons in special classes. During the first 6 weeks of the study, students still had reading education in their special classes. After 6 weeks, they stayed a regular class for reading. Reading performances were measured before the study, after 6 weeks and after 12 weeks. Their results indicated that: four out of five students showed a decrease in performance after their reading lessons were switched to the inclusive setting. One student performed better in inclusive education. 80% of the students with SN stated that they preferred to attend the special classes. However, this study was very small-scale, and the students were already being taught in an inclusive setting for most of the time before the reading inclusion project.

A growing body of research findings have indicated that social status and inclusion is not governed by a single factor. Various indices of social status and functioning exist (amongst which is the duration of contact between the SN child and his peers without SN), yielding different relationships and behaviours. At this juncture, arriving at a common consensus regarding the socio-emotional and educational benefits of inclusion seems unlikely due to the different schools of thought on the subject. A rather short term solution is to address the merits of the specific case study at hand without necessarily generalising the findings.

2.2.5   Influence of culture on parents' perception of inclusion

2.2.5.1   Ethnic and cultural considerations: an overview

Looking back through history, literature carries scanty detail about cultural attitudes towards children with intellectual disabilities. In Ancient Egypt and Greece a state council of inspectors examined new-borns. If they suspected that a child was 'defective' in any way, the infant was thrown from a cliff to its death (Gaad, 2004). By the second century, individuals with intellectual disabilities, including children who lived throughout the Roman Empire, were frequently sold to entertain or amuse the privileged class. The paintings of the ancient Mexican Olmec (a series of cave

drawings and wall paintings of 'disabled' children) suggested that children and people with intellectual disabilities had religious and superhuman significance (Stratford & Gunn, 1996). These Olmec paintings seem to suggest further that children with Down's syndrome, for example, were the result of unions between senior women and the jaguar. Stratford and Gunn (1996: 4-5) provide reasons to explain why these children were singled out for special treatment and why ancient cultures endowed people with Down's syndrome with religious or superhuman significance. 'Besides their rarity, it was mainly their striking physical and facial features which made Down's syndrome, a phenomenon which called for reason'.

The history of other cultures often reveals totally different attitudes reflecting cultural beliefs that 'disabled' children in general, and those with intellectual 'disabilities' in particular, resulted from some kind of an 'abnormal' sexual relationship. It is known that the Ancient Greeks (the case of the Spartans) thought that such children would weaken their great culture and thus exterminated children observed to have intellectual disabilities in a cruel and inhumane way (Gaad, 2004).

Different cultures attach very different meanings to the presence of disabling conditions which in turn affect the emotional and intellectual responses of the parents (Hourcade, Parette, & Huer, 1997). Views related to 'disability' and its cause range from those that emphasize the role of fate to those that place responsibility on the individual or his/her family (Hanson, Lynch, & Wayman, 1990). Correa and Weismantel (1991) noted that, in some Asian cultural belief systems, individuals believe that they have little power to escape their fate and seek mainly to achieve harmony in this life. In some cultures many parents see a child's 'disability' as a punishment for sins or wrong doing; others may view it as the result of some action the mother or father took while the mother was pregnant or before; still others may believe that 'disability' was caused by something the parents did after the child was born (Frederickson & Cline, 2002).

2.2.5.2   Cultural attitudes towards inclusion: an African perspective

Throughout Africa, those with intellectual disabilities are still seen as hopeless and helpless (Desta 1995), African culture and beliefs have not made matters easier. Abosi and Ozoji (1985) found that Nigerians in particular and Africans in general, associate disabilities with witchcraft, juju, sex-linked factors, god-mediated and super sensible forces. Avoiding whatever is associated with evil historically affected people's attitudes toward those with disabilities simply because disability is associated with evil. Most of these negative attitudes are misconceptions that stem from a lack of proper understanding of disabilities and how they affect functioning. They stem directly from the traditional systems of thought, which reflect magical-religious philosophies that can be safely called superstition. Chances of inclusion, and other forms of educational services for such children, are affected by the construction of society, as well as traditional values and beliefs.

A typical Yoruba woman in Nigeria, for example, would prefer not to have anything to do with 'disabled' children. She would not visit a special school. This, according to that culture, was to prevent or avoid the risk of having a future child with disability in one's own family (Gaad, 2004). In Egypt, a North African country but with Arabic and mainly Islamic cultural foundations, Gaad (2004) examined educational options for children with Down's syndrome, the most leading cause of intellectual disabilities. It showed that inclusion was not a valid option to any child that is believed to have any form of intellectual disabilities. Such children are only recently offered placement in schools for the mentally handicapped (as it is referred to in Egypt).

Having insight into traditional African attitudes sheds light on motives as to why people behave in a certain way towards children generally and towards children with special needs specifically. It also sheds light on how people feel in the presence of children with special needs, and how people explain the need as it were. Knowledge of these attitudes relates significantly to parents' perceptions on inclusion and on teacher effectiveness (Ozoji, 1991) hence it has to play a role in the debate on the education of pupils with special education needs in Africa.

In traditional African society a child is a highly valued member. The child assures biological continuity of the family, the child contributes to the economic and social prosperity of the community, and the existence of the child implies above all the spiritual existence of society (Kisanji, 1996). Hop (1996) stated that children with special needs are often seen as a curse from the gods and thus a disappointment to the family, often requiring spiritual cleansing of the child's family. He presented an overview on the attitudes towards children with special needs in Botswana as summarised in Figure 2.2

Situation:
Meeting a child with special needs

↓

Beliefs:
1. Caused by witchcraft
2. Parents violated traditional standards and /or values

Feelings:
1. Fear
2. Pity

Behaviours:
1. Isolating
2. Neglecting

Consequences:
1. Short term:
Children with special needs are literally hidden in the most remote cattleposts.

2. Long term:
Children with special needs do not attend formal education; they do not develop in any area.
"Disability" deteriorates to "Inability"

Figure 2.2: Schematic diagram representing perceptions and attitudes towards a child with special needs (Hop, 1996).

As indicated in the Education White Paper 6 of the Department of Education of South Africa, SN education is a sector where the ravages of apartheid remained most evident (Department of Education, 2001). Besides segregation based on 'disability', the influence of the race component was prevalent. The result of decades of segregation and systematic under-resourcing are apparent in the imbalance between SS that catered exclusively for white learners and those that catered exclusively for black learners (Department of Education, 2001). From an all-inclusive

societal perspective, unconditional acceptance by community and school is vital for full and complete inclusion. Yssel et al. (2007:361) echoed the following comments from two South African parents:

> *'That is actually where we need to start; it is … our neighbours, our community, our church…. And why shouldn't they be included' (parent 1).*

> *'I cannot hide my child away, she must learn… It doesn't help if we keep her locked up for eighteen years, and all of a sudden I say to her, there is the world , now you must find a place for yourself' (parent 2)*

The cultural backgrounds of families shape the members' beliefs and practices. Culture plays a role in defining who individuals are and how they relate to one another. Attitudes drive our behaviour. As individuals and as groups, what we believe and how we feel about a matter largely determines what we do with respect to it. Human behaviour further reinforces our beliefs and feelings. Attitudes towards inclusion are affected by cultural beliefs and values. Therefore, it is important to analyse current cultural beliefs and values if one is to examine the extent to which including SN students in inclusive settings is currently accepted, criticized or rejected.

2.2.6 General education teacher's attitude towards inclusion

2.2.6.1   Parents' perception of general education teachers' attitude towards inclusion

Teachers are the key agents of change. The locus of change is the routine of daily classroom life. What they do on a day-to-day basis does make a profound difference. According to the results of a study in Romania by Gliga and Popa (2010), Swart et al. (2004) in South Africa and Yssel et al. (2007) in South Africa and USA, parents cited several issues as drawbacks to inclusion, including frustration with the lack of training and competence of teachers and administrators.

In South African parents are well aware of the fact that teachers are not necessarily trained to work with children with 'disabilities' (Swart et al., 2004). Yssel et al. (2007) interviewed parents with SN children from the USA and South Africa about their perceptions of general education teacher's competency on inclusion. Several parents complained about teachers who failed to make an effort to get information about a student, or worse, who were unwilling to accommodate children;

> *"[they were] not interested . . . not really in the mood for extra hassles",* a parent from South Africa reported.

Another South African parent also pointed out that teachers were not always positive;

> '*If she's make-believe positive . . . then you don't know how to act as a parent'* (Yssel et al., 2007:361).

Some parents felt disempowered by this attitude; others saw it as an opportunity to foster a collaborative spirit. It is interesting to note that a negative attitude from the teacher was not necessarily perceived as an unwillingness to help, but rather as a fear of the unknown and a lack of knowledge (Engelbrecht et al., 2005). South African parents also felt that the teacher's disposition was crucial;

> *'When the teacher is positive . . . as a mother I don't worry so much'* (Yssel et al., 2007:361).

Whereas South African parents do not necessarily expect teachers to know everything right away, they felt the teachers need to be prepared to learn (Ysel et al., 2007:361). The same could be said of the parents from USA. One mother commented;

> *'I can say my son was pretty much a guinea pig; I have nothing bad to say, they had done very well. The only thing I can say is they could have been trained a lot better'* (Yssel et al., 2007:361).

According to these researchers, the parent is certainly not accusing the teachers of failing to try, but rather blaming their inadequate training. This view was reflected in another's complaint; '*We need more in-service'*. Another parent from USA recounted the experiences of her deaf child;

> '*The teacher I am with right now, she asks me a lot of questions because they just aren't as prepared. They don't know what to expect, and a lot of them are scared'*. (Yssel et al., 2007:361).

A lack of training could also explain the ignorance about certain disabilities, according to one parent;

> '*More and more kids are diagnosed with autism and the teachers are not aware; they think of autism as the Rain Man–type situation with the rocking and all that stuff and it's not that at all'* (Yssel et al., 2007:361).

Often, a lack of experience was simply seen as the problem. A parent from the USA noted;

> '*Most teachers don't know what it's like to have a special needs child in their classroom until the first day of school when the kid shows up'* (Yssel et al., 2007:361).

Another parent from the USA group felt that at least some of the teachers were to blame;

> *I think that's the only problem I've had, is some of the teachers haven't fully read those IEPs, and so we've had a few conflicts; they don't understand, they don't know what they're dealing with* (Yssel et al., 2007:361)

However, not all the responses from the parents were negative. Although comparatively fewer, some parents were also appreciative of the teachers' efforts and dedication; *'They constantly make modifications, and it has been good'*

reiterated a USA parent. A second parent from the USA group expressed her appreciation for her son's teachers;

> '*I really have found wonderful teachers. They want to help, they want to understand'* (Yssel et al., 2007:361).

A South African parent felt reassured by a teacher's enthusiasm and positive attitude;

> '*The first day of school, the Grade 1 teacher said to me I mustn't worry, because she's got all the stuff on the Internet, and her husband bought her some books on inclusive education, so she was very well prepared'.*

In addition to having expertise with children with SN, that parents wanted personnel who desired to understand parents' lives and involve them in planning. They looked for excitement, sensitivity, and honesty in teachers. From the above arguments, the importance of understanding or at least the attempt by teachers to understand parents' perceptions cannot be overemphasized.

2.2.6.2   A move towards inclusive teaching

The recognition that inclusive schools will not be achieved by transplanting special education thinking and practice into mainstream contexts points to other possibilities. Ainscow and Miles (2008) suggest the need to move to a perspective that seeks to personalize learning through an engagement with the whole class. In this sense, many ideas about effective teaching are relevant. However, what is particular to an inclusive pedagogy is the way teachers conceptualize notions of difference.

As Bartolome (1994) explains, teaching methods are neither devised nor implemented in a vacuum. The design, selection and use of particular teaching approaches and strategies arise from perceptions about learning and learners. In this respect, she argues that, even the most pedagogically advanced methods are likely to be ineffective in the hands of those who implicitly or explicitly subscribe to a

belief system that regards some students, at best, as 'disabled' and in need of 'fixing' or, worse, as deficient and therefore beyond 'fixing'.

Inclusive school practice has brought about changes in several dimensions of the educational support for children with SEN (Agaliotisa & Kalyvab, 2010). According to Cheminais (2005), the new role of teachers in the 21st century demands them to be; lead professionals, advocates, managers of knowledge/information, commissioners, brokers, resource managers, partnership managers, quality assurers, facilitators, and solution managers. Positive attitudes among teachers are necessary for the successful implementation of these inclusive views (McCormack & Flahertya, 2010).

A review of the literature shows that pre and in-service training impacts teachers' attitudes. According to Lanier and Lanier (1996), Singal (2008) and Symeonidou & Phtiaka (2009), teacher training would help educators better to deal with SN children that are placed in regular education classrooms. It is indicated that when training is provided, it not only results in a positive attitude of participants, but a willingness to accept children with SN into regular classrooms (Lanier & Lanier, 1996; Singal, 2008; Symeonidou & Phtiaka, 2009).

Bennett, Bruns, and DeLuca (1997) argued that special education teachers as compared to general education teachers perceive themselves as more competent in teaching children with SN because of their professional training. Bennett et al. (1997) indicated that training increases teacher confidence and promotes positive attitudes. In turn, teachers with positive attitudes are more likely to seek out additional training. There is a positive correlation between teacher training and their attitudes toward inclusion, indicating the need for on-going training for general education teachers (Bennett et al., 1997).

Stoler (1992) pointed out that in service training might not be accomplished in one day workshops. In fact, training must be comprehensive, and be in-depth before the process of inclusion takes place. Topics may include techniques on team teaching, collaboration, and the ability for teachers to recognize any physical or emotional problems children may exhibit. The importance of training in formation of positive

attitudes towards inclusive education is equally supported by the findings by Gliga and Popa (2010) in a study on general education teachers in Romania.

In contrast, teachers' without any form of training might demonstrate negative attitudes towards inclusion (Lobosco & Newman, 1992). Teachers without training not only demonstrated negative attitudes, but lacked confidence in their instructional skills to teach children with SN. According to Lobosco and Newman (1992), the more exposure general education teachers had to SN children, the more willing they were to include children with SN in their classrooms. Another reason general education teachers have negative attitudes toward inclusion is due to the fact that they feel unprepared to teach children with SN (Beirne, Daane, & Latham, 2000). According to Beirne et al. (2000) teachers who feel unprepared tend to be overwhelmed by the responsibility for accommodating SN children, and assumed the special education teacher to take the responsibility.

The lack of knowledge, training and necessary experience for effective implementation of inclusive education in South Africa has been cited by a number of researchers (Eloff & Kgwete, 2007; Englebrecht & Forlin, 1998; Englebrecht, Forlin, Eloff & Swart 2001; Hay et al., 2001). A comprehensive study conducted in South Africa by Hay et al. (2001) revealed that teachers (n=2,577) had a definite lack of knowledge about the issues related to inclusive education. Furthermore, the teachers felt unprepared and unequipped to teach as a result of lack of training and experience.

Singal (2008) noted that teachers' attitudes appear to vary with their perceptions of the specific 'disability', as well as the demands that children's instructional and management needs will place on them. A study by Eloff, Swart and Englebrecht (2002) in South Africa indicated that the inclusion of a child with a physical 'disability' led to relatively little stress for teachers, while a similar study by Englebrecht, Oswald, Swart and Ellof (2003) on the inclusion of a child with cognitive 'disability' provided evidence of increased stress levels for teachers. According to Clouch and Lindsay (1991) a majority of teachers ranked the needs of children with emotional and behavioural needs as being most difficult to meet, followed by children with learning difficulties, visual impairment, and hearing impairment. Following a study

conducted in India, Singal (2008) concurred that; the willingness for general education teachers to accept SN children is inversely proportional to severity of 'disability'.

From the above arguments it stands out that teachers are key instruments in the implementation of an inclusive philosophy. Within the South African context, characterised by changes in her educational landscape (e.g. phasing out of the outcome based education system and implementation of inclusive education) the expectations from teachers are equally high. Although the existence of legislation together with conceptual and operational guidelines for implementation of inclusive education represents a major step forward in the transformation of South African education system, the ability of teachers to implement inclusive education is questionable (Hay et al., 2001; Eloff & Kgwete, 2007). In spite of the fact that a number of attempts have been made at Government and Departmental levels to support and train teachers, they still feel threatened by new demands and experience a sense of powerlessness and lack of control of their situation (Eloff & Kgwete, 2007; Hay et al., 2001).

Chapter Three

RESEARCH METHODS AND DESIGN

3.0   Introduction

This chapter describes the methods that were employed to find out parents' perception of inclusion in Capricorn District, Limpopo Province, South Africa. It elaborates on the research design, population and sampling procedure. Comprehensive descriptions have been provided on the development and administration of questionnaires, pilot studies, validity and reliability of the questionnaire as well as the statistical parameters that were used for data analysis.

3.1   Design of the study

Causal comparative design and quantitative research approach were adopted for this study.

3.1.1 Causal comparative research

In causal comparative research the researcher examines an observation or phenomenon and analyses the data retrospectively to establish relationships or associations, meanings and to some extent causes (Cohen, Manion & Morisson, 2000). Comparative designs generally involve the use of pre-existing or derived groups to explore differences between or among groups with respect to the observation. In causal comparative research three types of variables are considered; dependent variable, categorical or independent variable and continuous variable (Schenker & Rumrill, 2004). A dependent variable is the observation or phenomenon under examination whereas; categorical variable constitutes pre-existing or derived mutually exclusive groups to which the participants are assigned. Furthermore, participants may belong to any number of groups that may be of interest to the researcher (such as those differentiated by gender, race, or occupation to name but a few) before a study is conducted. Continuous variable on the other hand represent the elements (statements) on the questionnaire that are used to examine the

relationship between the dependent variable and the independent variable (Schenker & Rumrill, 2004).

For this study, the dependent variable was *perception of inclusion* while the categorical or independent variables were; *parent with SN child in SS, parent with SN child in regular school* and *parent with SN child not enrolled in either special or regular school.* In this case, a comparative study was most appropriate to compare the perceptions of inclusion between the three groups of parents in Capricorn District.

Often, the variables that are examined in causal comparative studies cannot be experimentally manipulated for practical or ethical reasons. Given that causal comparative design lacks control of most extraneous variables, the researcher was not be able to conclude with some degree of certainty that, the effect the independent variable had on the dependent variable was causative.

This limitation by no means implies that causal comparative designs are not useful; rather, they provide a structure for examining group differences when causal inference is not the primary purpose of the study. According to Cohen et al. (2000), among the advantages of the causal comparative design the following are identified:

- In some ways and in certain situations causal comparative designs are more useful than experimental designs, especially when setting up the latter introduces a note of artificiality into the research.
- The approach can give a sense of direction and/or generate hypotheses that can be tested by more rigorous experimental methods.
- Improvements in statistical techniques have made this approach more reliable and valid.

3.1.2 Quantitative research

Researchers who use logical positivism or quantitative research employ experimental methods and quantitative measures to test hypothetical generalizations

(Golafshani, 2003), and they also emphasize the measurement and analysis of causal relationships between variables (Denzin & Lincoln, 1998).

Quantitative research allows the researcher to familiarize him/herself with the problem or concept to be studied, and perhaps generate hypotheses to be tested. In this paradigm: (1) the emphasis is on facts and causes of behaviour, (2) the information is in the form of numbers that can be quantified and summarized, (3) the mathematical process is the norm for analyzing the numeric data and (4) the final result is expressed in statistical terminologies. A quantitative research attempts to fragment and delimit phenomena into measurable or common categories that can be applied to all of the subjects or similar situations. The researcher's methods involve the use of standardized measures so that the varying perspectives and experiences of people can fit into a limited range of predetermined response categories to which numbers are assigned.

3.1.3 Population and Sampling

3.1.3.1   Population

According to the Education White Paper 6, there are about 296,869 persons with SN in Limpopo Province (Department of Education, 2001). Unfortunately, the document does not specify what percentage of this figure is of school-going age. However, an estimated 4,250 learners are reported to be enrolled in 19 SS in the Province. Within Capricorn District, there is no emperical data on the total number of SN children in regular schools (RS), or SN learners not enrolled in either SS or RS. Thus the samle population for this study was ill-defined.

3.1.3.2   Sampling

Due to this shortcoming, an almost equal distribution of respondents were assigned to the three target populations as follows; parents with SN children in SS (n=16), parents with SN children in RS (n=16) and parents of SN children not enrolled in either SS or RS (n=18), giving a total of 50 respondents.

A purposive and random sampling was used to select the respondents. The sample was selected to include parents of interest and excluded those who did not meet the researcher's criteria (Cohen et al., 2000; Tukov, 2008). Sample selection was based on parents' knowledge of child's condition, knowledge about inclusion, cultural awareness, parent's availability and willingness to participate.

In order to make generalizations on the findings and because of the diverse and almost unknown size of the sample population, cluster random sampling was employed. By cluster sampling, the researcher selected a specific number of regular and special schools to identify SN learners and eventually their parents whereas geographically close communities were sampled for parents with SN children not enrolled in either SS or RS.

3.2 Data collection

The main method of data collection would be through administration of semi-structured questionnaires to parents.

3.2.1 Development of the questionnaire

The questionnaire comprised of two parts; part 1 with open-ended demographic questions and part 2 with closed-ended questions on parents' perceptions of inclusion using a 1 – 5 Likert scale (where 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = not sure, 4 = agree and 5 = strongly agree) to indicate their level of agreement. Part 2 comprised three sections; A – parents' perception of regular schools towards inclusion, B – parents' perception of general education teachers' attitude towards inclusion and C – parents' perception of socio-cultural considerations towards inclusion in the community. A total of 47 questions with 25 negative and 22 positive statements made up part 2 (Appendix C).

Statements evaluating parents' perception of regular schools towards inclusion and parents' perception of general education teachers' attitude towards inclusion were adapted from previous studies (Cheng, 2001; Horne & Timmons, 2009; Stanley, Grimbeek, Bryer, & Beamish, 2003; Pearman, Huang, & Mellblom, 1997), whereas

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those evaluating parents' perception of socio-cultural considerations towards inclusion were adapted from Ozoji (1991), Kisanji (1996), Hop (1996) and Gaad (2004). The entire questionnaire was subsequently translated to 'Sepedi' for administration to respondents whose first language was not English (appendix d), followed by back translation in order to ascertain the correctness of the Sepedi version.

3.2.4 Administration of the questionnaire

Prior to the administration of questionnaires the following documents were presented to the respondents; a covering letter introducing the researcher and the research aims and an authorization letter from the Department of Education, Limpopo Province. In collaboration with administrators/teachers of the respective schools, parents were contacted through their children (letters and subsequently telephonically) to inquire about their willingness and availability to participate in the study. Thereafter, at the parents' convenience a date and time was set to meet in the child's school for administration of the questionnaire. Alternative measures such as sending and receiving the questionnaire through the child or meeting the parent at his/her residence was equally employed.

In the case of parents whose SN child was neither enrolled in a special or regular school, the researcher contacted community leaders (heads of zones and/or units or societies) for assistance in identifying the parents. These parents were subsequently visited at their premises for administration of questionnaires. The researcher was accompanied by a field assistant (especially in areas where English is not the preferred language of communication).

The administration of questionnaires followed procedures discoursed in Cohen et al. (2000). Once with the parents, the researcher gave a general overview of the questionnaire (inclusive of sections, instructions on answering and the significance of the exercise). Where necessary the researcher or assistant provided edification on certain statements in the questionnaire. No attempts were made to influence the responses of the parents since their appraisal of the different statements are vital in ascertaining their perceptions of inclusion.

In the case were the questionnaire was to be sent through the child to his/her parent, a covering letter introducing the researcher and aims of the study was attached. The responses were returned through the child to his/her teacher who then contacted the researcher. In cases were the responses did not return within a week, follow-up letters were sent to the parents concerned.

3.3 Validity and reliability

3.3.1 Validity

For this study only content validity has been considered. Cohen et al. (2000:109) defined content validity as, the ability of the research instrument to show that it fairly and comprehensibly covers the domain or items that it purports to cover. They argued further that, the researcher must ensure that elements of the main issue to be covered in the research are both a fair representation of the wider issue under investigation and that the elements chosen for the research sample are themselves addresses in depth and breadth. According to Anatasi and Urbrina (1997: 114), content validity is a non–statistical type of validity that involves 'the systematic examination of the test content to determine whether it covers a representative sample of the variable to be measured'. Cohen et al. (2000) noted that by using a panel of experts to review the test specifications of a survey instrument, the content validity can be improved.

3.3.1.1 Content validity

The statements in the questionnaire were adapted from the research of different authors on a related theme or same subject matter (parental perception of inclusion). These studies include;

- An adaptation of *The School and the Education of All Students Scale (SEAS) Survey-developed in Colorado by* Pearman et al. (1997) and used by Horne & Timmons (2009) on perceptions of the inclusion of children with special needs in the regular classroom and its impact on their daily working lives at Prince Edward Island (PEI) elementary schools, Canada.

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- Comparing parents' versus teachers' attitudes to inclusion: *When PATI meets TATI* (Stanley et al., 2003).

- Perceptions of Inclusion by Kindergarten Teachers and Parents In Taiwan (Cheng, 2001).

- Cross-cultural perspectives on the effect of cultural attitudes towards inclusion for children with intellectual disabilities (A survey in Egypt, United Arab Emirates and England) (Gaad, 2004).

- Attitudes towards Disabled Children in Botswana (Hop, 1996).

- Psychology of Attitudes towards the Disabled: The Nigerian Perspective (Ojozi, 1991).

- The Relevance of Indigenous Customary Education Principles in the Formulation of special Needs Education Policy (Kisanji, 1996).

The questionnaire was submitted to two experts for content validity. According to the experts, the questions/statements adapted from the above mentioned studies were clear, relevant and applicable to the present study. The elements covered in the questionnaire were a fair representation of the wider issue under investigation and were themselves addressed in depth and breadth. The questionnaire was therefore considered to be valid.

3.3.2 Reliability

Charles (1995) and Golafshani (2003) adhere to the notions that consistency with which questionnaire [test items] are answered or individual's scores remain relatively the same can be determined through the test-retest method at two different times. This attribute of the instrument is actually referred to as stability. If we are dealing with a stable measure, then the results should be similar. A high degree of stability indicates a high degree of reliability, implying the results are repeatable.

3.3.2.1   Test-retest reliability

The questionnaire was subjected to test-retest reliability. The reliability was estimated by performing the same survey with the same respondents after a week interval. Two parents were randomly selected for this exercise (denoted as parent A and parent B). The correlation coefficient was determined using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). The correlation coefficient between the two sets of responses for each parent was used as a quantitative measure of the test-retest reliability. In the ideal case both scores should coincide for each respondent culminating in a correlation coefficient of 1.0. In reality, this is almost never the case since the scores produced by a respondent would vary if the test were carried out several times. However, the closer the test scores, the greater the reliability of the survey instrument (Golafshani, 2003). Meyer, Evenson, Morimoto, Siscovick and White (2009) grouped test retest correlation coefficients into five categories of reliability thus; poor (0 to 0.2), fair (0.2 to 0.4), moderate (0.4 to < 0.6), substantial (0.6 to < 0.8) and almost perfect (0.8 to 1). The reliability of the survey instrument for this study was 0.78 for parent A and 0.88 for parent B, suggesting high degree of stability (see appendix e for calculation).

3.3 Pilot study

Given that the statements in the questionnaire were adapted from other works, a pilot study was undertaken to investigate the feasibility of the study and to bring possible deficiencies of the survey instrument to the fore (Roberts, Curran, Minogue, Shewan, Spencer & Wattis, 2010).

The test sample comprising two parents each from the three categories of parents reported minimal challenges in understanding the questionnaire. The following statements from section c part 2 (parents' perception of socio-cultural considerations towards inclusion in the community) were rephrased for the purpose of clarity:

S.36: Children with SN are considered mysterious rephrased to *certain cultures consider a special needs child as having sacred powers.*

S.38: Special needs children are not normal rephrased to *special needs children are expected to live a normal life.*

S. 39: Jealousy by peers is responsible for having SN child rephrased *to parents with special needs children believe they have been bewitched out of envy by their contemporaries.*

The respective parents used for the pilot study were not included in the main study since their acquaintance with the subject matter may influence their responses as recommended by Joppe (2000) and Golafshani (2003).

3.5   Data analysis

Data obtained from the questionnaires was analyzed by several statistical parameters. A descriptive analysis (frequency, percentile and mean) was used to describe parents' perceptions on inclusion. For the purpose of carrying out basic descriptive statistics the scoring *strongly agree* and *agree* on the likert scale were computed as agreed whereas *disagree* and *strongly disagree* were considered as disagreed. The scoring *not sure* remained unchanged.

In addition, an analysis of variance (One – Way ANOVA) was used to examine differences between mean responses of the three groups of parents towards their perceptions of inclusion. For group comparison, the 1 to 5 scoring system on the likert scale was maintained. One – Way ANOVA was used to test the hypothesis, defined further as:

- The null hypothesis: *the mean responses of the parents are not significantly different.*

- Alternative hypothesis: the *mean responses of one or more groups of parents are significantly different.*

The level of significance used for ANOVA test was 0.05. Where the probability value (p) was > 0.05 the data was considered insignificant, implying an acceptance of the null hypothesis. On the other hand, a p-value < 0.05 was considered significant, suggesting a rejection of the null hypothesis.

A Tukey Honestly Significant Difference (HSD) test was conducted to determine the source of variation between the three groups tested. Data analyses for this study were performed using SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) and Origin-7 statistical package.

3.6   Ethical considerations

The relevant persons and authorities including the ethical committee of the University of Limpopo were consulted and permission obtained. Detailed explanation on the purpose and procedure of the study was given to parents and their consent sought. The rule of confidential and protection of identity was upheld.

Chapter Four

PRESENTATION OF RESULTS AND DATA ANALYSES

4.0   Introduction

This chapter presents demographic information of parents and their SN children, as well as responses to the questionnaire. Basic descriptive and inferential statistics have been employed to compare the perceptions of the three groups of parents with respect to the three main themes in the questionnaire: (1) parents' perception of inclusion in regular schools, (2) parents' perception of general education teachers' attitude towards inclusion and (3) parents' perception of socio-cultural considerations towards inclusion in the community.

4.1   Demographic information of parents and their special needs children

A total of 50 parents classified into 3 groups as follows; parents with SN children in RS (n=16), parents with SN children in SS (n=16) and parents of SN children not enrolled in either SS or RS (n=18), took part in this study and responded to all items in the questionnaire. The demographic information of parents with SN children in RS revealed that out of the 16 parents, 31.25% were male and 68.7% female. About 81.3% of the parents had formal education with their qualifications ranging from grade 5 to first degree. The ages of their SN children ranged from 8 to 33 yrs old with needs ranging from mental retardation (50%), physical impairment (31.3%), and visual impairment (18.75%).

With respect to parents with SN children in SS, 37.5% were males and 62.5% females with a 50-50% distribution in terms of formal and informal education. The children's ages ranged from 8 to 32 yrs with 50% of them being physically impaired, 31.2% mentally retarded and 18.8% visually impaired. For parents of SN children not enrolled in either SS or RS, 27.8% of them were male whereas 72.8% were female. About 83.3 % had no form of formal education whereas just over 16% had formal education. The ages of their SN children ranged from 7 to 28 yrs with needs ranging

from physical impairment (55.6%), mental retardation (22.2%), and visual impairment (5.5%) and hearing impairment (16.7%).

4.2   Parents' perception of inclusion in regular schools

The results of parents perception of inclusion in regular schools (theme 1) has been analysed firstly for individual groups using basic descriptive statistics (percentage) and then between groups using Anova and Tukey HSD test. The parents (n = 50) responded to all 17 statements addressing this theme.

4.2.1   Perception of parents with special need children in regular school.

The responses of the parents' with SN children in RS with respect to theme 1 are summarized on Table 4.1. With regards to statement 1; 'inclusion is the best way to meet the needs of all students', the responses of 56.2 % of the parents were positive whereas 31.2% were negative. 62% of the parents disagreed with the fact that inclusion causes more problems in regular schools while 56.2 % felt regular schools did not provide full integration of SN children in regular classrooms.

The parents were at par (50-50%) with regards to the educational benefits of inclusion on SN children, while 62.2% of the respondents indicated that the leadership of the principal is necessary for inclusion to work. 56.2% felt that in inclusive classrooms, the negative benefits to the regular education learners outweighed the positive benefits. With respect to the statement; 'the more time SN children spend in regular classrooms the more likely that they would end up feeling content', 31.2% of the parents responded positively, 25% negatively whereas 43.8% were unsure. 43.8% of the respondents felt that SN children would end up not getting extra help in inclusive classrooms whereas, 50% refuted this statement. Parent's perception on the possibility to modify most lessons in regular classrooms to meet the demands of SN learners was quite diverse. Most parents (62.5%) gave negative responses to the prospects of their SN children being ill-treated, while about 75% of the parents indicated that over time, SN children would become friends with their peers without SN.

Table 4.1: Perceptions of parents with special need children in regular school with respect to theme 1

Statement	Agreed (%)	Not sure (%)	Disagreed (%)
1) Inclusion is the best way to meet the needs of all students.	56.2	12.5	31.3
2) Inclusion causes more problems in regular schools.	37.5	0	62.5
3) Regular schools support full integration of special needs children in classrooms.	25	18.8	56.2
4) The more time special needs children spend in a regular classroom, the more likely that the quality of their education will drop.	50	0	50
5) Leadership of the principal is necessary for inclusion to work.	62.5	12.5	25
6) When students with severe disabilities are enrolled in regular education classrooms, the negative benefits to the regular education students outweigh the positive benefits.	56.2	25	18.8
7) The more time special needs children spend in a regular classroom, the more likely that they would end up feeling content	31.2	43.8	25
8) If special needs children were to spend a lot of time in regular classrooms, they would end up not getting the extra help they need.	43.8	6.2	50
9) It is possible to modify most lessons in a regular classroom to meet the demands of special needs children.	43.8	31.2	25
10) The more time special needs children spend in a regular classroom, the more likely that they will be ill-treated by children without special need.	37.5	0	62.5
11) The more time special needs children spend in a regular classroom, the more likely that the quality of their education will improve.	31.2	12.5	56.3
12) The more time special needs children spend in a regular classroom, the more likely that they would end up feeling lonely.	6.2	25	68.8

13) When students with severe disabilities are enrolled in regular education classrooms, the positive benefits to the regular education students outweigh any possible problems that this practice may present.	37.5	37.5	25
14) If special needs children were to spend much of the day in a regular classroom, they would end up not getting all the necessary special services that would be provided in special education classrooms.	43.8	25	31.2
15) The quality of regular education students' education is enriched when students with special needs participate in their classes.	37.5	37.5	25
16) Regular education classrooms provide lesser opportunities for special needs children to learn compared to special education classrooms.	25	18.8	56.2
17) If special needs children were to spend much time in a regular classroom, they would end up becoming friends with children without special needs.	75	6.2	18.8

4.2.2 Perception of parents with special need children in special school

The responses of the parents' with SN children in SS with respect to theme 1 are summarized on Table 4.2. A total of 62.5% of the respondents disagreed with the statement that was the best way to meet the needs of all learners. 81.2% gave positive responses to the statement 'inclusion causes more problems in regular schools, while 62.4% felt the quality of education of their SN children in regular schools will drop over time. Most of the parents (68.8%) also acknowledged the leadership of the principal as necessary for inclusion to work, but 62.5% of the parents felt their SN children would still not be content. 56.3% of the parents responded positively to the statement 'if SN children were to spend a lot of time in regular classrooms, they would end up not getting the extra help they need'. 37.5% disagreed with the statement that it was possible to modify most lessons in regular classrooms to meet the needs of SN learners, whereas 25% were unsure. A total of 62.4% of the respondents were positive their SN children will be ill-treated in regular schools whereas 18.8% were unsure if their SN children would be ill-treated or not. Most of the parents (56.2%) concurred that regular education classrooms provide

lesser opportunities for children with SN, whereas 18.8% were unsure of any opportunities for SN children in regular schools

Table 4.2: Perceptions of parents with special need children in special school with respect to theme 1

Statement	Agreed (%)	Not sure (%)	Disagreed (%)
1) Inclusion is the best way to meet the needs of all students.	12.4	25	62.6
2) Inclusion causes more problems in regular schools.	81.2	0	18.8
3) Regular schools support full integration of special needs children in classrooms.	18.8	18.8	62.4
4) The more time special needs children spend in a regular classroom, the more likely that the quality of their education will drop.	62.4	18.8	18.8
5) Leadership of the principal is necessary for inclusion to work.	68.8	12.4	18.8
6) When students with severe disabilities are enrolled in regular education classrooms, the negative benefits to the regular education students outweigh the positive benefits.	37.5	37.5	25
7) The more time special needs children spend in a regular classroom, the more likely that they would end up feeling content	12.6	25	62.4
8) If special needs children were to spend a lot of time in regular classrooms, they would end up not getting the extra help they need	56.3	18.7	25
9) It is possible to modify most lessons in a regular classroom to meet the demands of special needs children.	37.5	25	37.6
10) The more time special needs children spend in a regular classroom, the more likely that they will be ill-treated by children without special need.	62.4	18.8	18.8
11) The more time special needs children spend in a regular classroom, the more likely that the quality of their education will improve.	31.2	25	43.8

12) The more time special needs children spend in a regular classroom, the more likely that they would end up feeling lonely.	31.2	43.8	25
13) When students with severe disabilities are enrolled in regular education classrooms, the positive benefits to the regular education students outweigh any possible problems that this practice may present.	6.2	25	68.8
14) If special needs children were to spend much of the day in a regular classroom, they would end up not getting all the necessary special services that would be provided in special education classrooms.	50	18.8	31.2
15) The quality of regular education students' education is enriched when students with special needs participate in their classes.	37.6	37.4	25
16) Regular education classrooms provide lesser opportunities for special needs children to learn compared to special education classrooms.	56.2	18.8	25
17) If special needs children were to spend much time in a regular classroom, they would end up becoming friends with children without special needs.	62.5	25	12.5

4.2.3 Perception of parents with special need children not enrolled in either special or regular school.

The responses of the parents' with SN children not enrolled in either RS or SS with respect to theme 1 are presented on Table 4.3. A total 33.3% of the parents whose SN children were neither enrolled in RS nor SS believed inclusion was the best way to meet the needs of all students whereas 50% held negative views. Most of the parents (72.2%) however felt inclusion may cause problems in regular schools. Equally, 72.2% gave a negative response to the statement 'regular schools support full integration of SN children in classrooms', whereas 16.7% were unsure.

With regards to the quality of education of SN children in regular schools, more than half of the parents (55.5%) were unsure of the educational benefits, 16.7% felt it would drop whereas, 22.3% taught it would increase. Furthermore, 44.4% of the

respondents believed that, when students with severe disabilities are enrolled in regular education classrooms, the negative benefits to the regular education students outweigh the positive benefits whereas 44.5% held a contrary opinion. A total of 72.2% felt the more time SN children spend in a regular classroom, the more likely that they would end up not feeling content, while 55.6% indicated that if SN children were to spend a lot of time in regular classrooms, they would end up not getting the extra help they need. 83.3% of the parents indicated that the more time SN children spend in a regular classroom, the more likely that they will be ill-treated by children without SN, while 72.2% believed the more time SN children spend in a regular classroom, the more likely that they would end up feeling lonely. A majority of the parents (61.1%) equally felt that regular education classrooms provide lesser opportunities for SN children to learn compared to special education classrooms. Fifty percent of the parents were unsure if children with SN would end up becoming friends with children without SN after spending much time in a regular classroom, 22.2% agreed whereas 27.8% disagreed.

Table 4.3: Perceptions of parents with special need children not enrolled in either special or regular school with respect to theme 1

Statement	Agreed (%)	Not sure (%)	Disagreed (%)
1) Inclusion is the best way to meet the needs of all students.	33.3	16.7	50
2) Inclusion causes more problems in regular schools.	72.2	16.7	11.1
3) Regular schools support full integration of special needs children in classrooms.	11.1	16.7	72.2
4) The more time special needs children spend in a regular classroom, the more likely that the quality of their education will drop.	16.7	55.5	27.8
5) Leadership of the principal is necessary for inclusion to work.	83.3	5.6	11.1
6) When students with severe disabilities are enrolled in regular education classrooms, the negative benefits to the regular education students outweigh the positive benefits.	44.4	11.1	44.5

7) The more time special needs children spend in a regular classroom, the more likely that they would end up feeling content	11.1	16.7	72.2
8) If special needs children were to spend a lot of time in regular classrooms, they would end up not getting the extra help they need.	55.6	11.1	33.3
9) It is possible to modify most lessons in a regular classroom to meet the demands of special needs children.	50	11.1	38.9
10) The more time special needs children spend in a regular classroom, the more likely that they will be ill-treated by children without special need.	83.3	5.6	11.1
11) The more time special needs children spend in a regular classroom, the more likely that the quality of their education will improve.	33.3	22.2	44.5
12) The more time special needs children spend in a regular classroom, the more likely that they would end up feeling lonely.	72.2	16.7	11.1
13) When students with severe disabilities are enrolled in regular education classrooms, the positive benefits to the regular education students outweigh any possible problems that this practice may present.	5.6	22.2	72.2
14) If special needs children were to spend much of the day in a regular classroom, they would end up not getting all the necessary special services that would be provided in special education classrooms.	50	22.2	28.8
15) The quality of regular education students' education is enriched when students with special needs participate in their classes.	5.6	22.2	72.2
16) Regular education classrooms provide lesser opportunities for special needs children to learn compared to special education classrooms.	61.1	22.2	16.7
17) If special needs children were to spend much time in a regular classroom, they would end up becoming friends with children without special needs.	22.2	50	28.8

4.2.4 Group comparisons of parents' perceptions of inclusion in regular schools

Figure 4.1 summarizes the distribution of the mean responses of the three groups of parents with respect to their perceptions of inclusion in regular schools. By visual inspection of Figure 3, the perceptions of the three groups of parents were diverse.
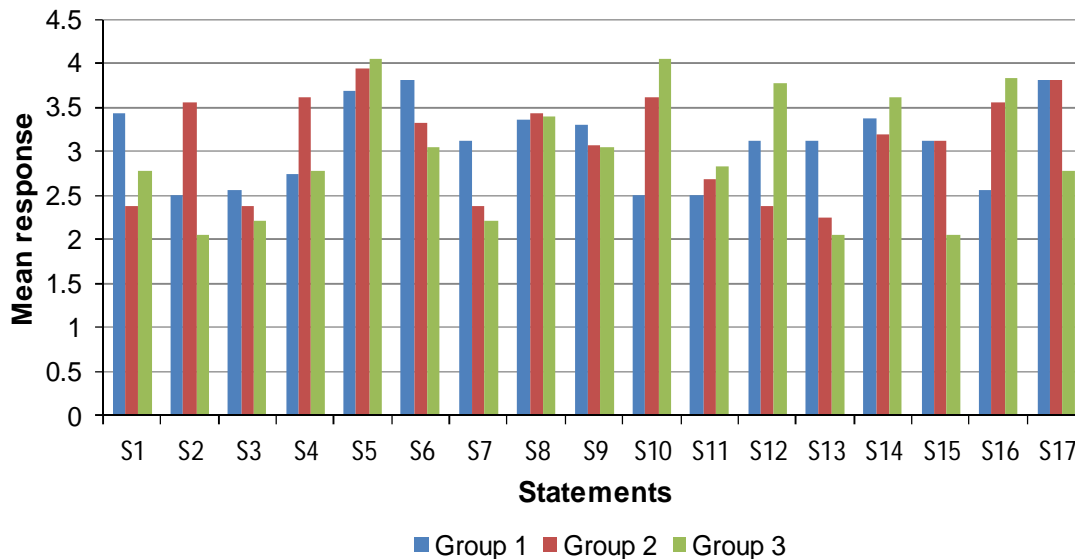
Figure 4.1: Distribution of the mean responses of parents' perceptions of inclusion in regular schools.

A one-way ANOVA test was performed to evaluate the perceived group mean differences. As indicated in chapter three, for ANOVA test the null hypothesis was; *there is no significant difference in group means* whereas the alternative hypothesis was; *the mean response of one or more groups are significantly different*. Result of the statistical test is presented on Table 4.4. From the results, three categories of p-values were observed; $p > 0.05$, $p < 0.05$ and $p < 0.01$, with the last two values defining a progressive increase in level of significance respectively. Based on these p-values, the group mean responses for seven statements were considered insignificant (i.e. $p > 0.05$), implying an acceptance of the null hypothesis. On the other hand, the mean responses for the remaining 10 statements (denoted by shaded regions on Table 4.4) were considered significant to very significant (i.e. $p < 0.05$ or $p < 0.01$), suggesting a rejection of the null hypothesis.

Table 4.4: Result of ANOVA for parents' perceptions of inclusion in regular schools

Statement	ANOVA	SS	df	MS	F-ratio	P-value	F crit.
Inclusion is the best way to meet the needs of all students. # 3.43, 2.37, 2.77	Between Group Within Group Total	9.22 66.02 75.24	2 47 49	4.61 1.42	3.24	0.04	3.19
Inclusion causes more problems in regular schools. # 2.5, 3.56, 3.78	Between Group Within Group Total	15.45 81.05 96.5	2 47 49	7.73 1.72	4.48	0.02	3.19
Regular schools support full integration of SN children in classrooms. # 2.56, 2.37, 2.22	Between Group Within Group Total	0.98 56.79 57.77	2 47 49	0.49 1.21	0.41	0.66	3.19
The more time SN children spend in a regular classroom, the more likely that the quality of their education will drop. # 2.75, 3.62, 2.66	Between Group Within Group Total	9.25 66.75 76	2 47 49	4.63 1.42	3.26	0.04	3.19
Leadership of the principal is necessary for inclusion to work. # 3.68, 3.93, 4.05	Between Group Within Group Total	1.18 63.31 64.49	2 47 49	0.59 1.34	0.43	0.64	3.19
When students with SN are enrolled in regular education classrooms, the negative benefits outweigh the positive benefits. # 3.62, 3.18, 3.05	Between Group Within Group Total	2.94 61.13 64.07	2 47 49	1.47 1.30	1.13	0.33	3.19
The more time SN children spend in a regular classroom, the more likely that they would end up feeling content # 3.13, 2.37, 2.22	Between Group Within Group Total	7.71 54.61 62.32	2 47 49	3.85 1.16	3.32	0.04	3.19
If SN children were to spend a lot of time in regular classrooms, they would end up not getting the extra help they need. # 3.25, 3.43, 3.38	Between Group Within Group Total	0.30 97.21 97.51	2 47 49	0.15 2.06	0.07	0.92	3.19
It is possible to modify most lessons in a regular classroom to meet the demands of SN children. # 3.31, 3.06, 3.05	Between Group Within Group Total	0.70 73.31 74.01	2 47 49	0.35 1.55	0.22	0.79	3.19

The more time SN children spend in a regular classroom, the more likely that they will being ill-treated by children without SN. # 2.5, 3.62, 4.05	Between Group Within Group Total	21.48 72.69 94.17	2 47 49	10.74 1.54	6.95	0.002	3.19
The more time SN children spend in a regular classroom, the more likely that the quality of their education will improve. # 2.5, 2.68, 2.83	Between Group Within Group Total	0.94 99.93 100.87	2 47 49	0.47 2.12	0.22	0.80	3.19
The more time SN children spend in a regular classroom, the more likely that they would end up feeling lonely. # 2.25, 3.13, 3.78	Between Group Within Group Total	18.45 80.36 98.81	2 47 49	9.22 1.7	5.39	0.007	3.19
When students with severe disabilities are enrolled in regular education classrooms, the positive benefits outweigh any possible problems. # 3.12, 2.25, 2.05	Between Group Within Group Total	10.72 43.69 54.41	2 47 49	5.36 0.92	5.76	0.005	3.19
If SN children were to spend much of the day in a regular classroom, they would not getting all the necessary special services that would be provided in special classrooms. # 3.37, 3.18, 3.61	Between Group Within Group Total	1.53 92.46 93.99	2 47 49	0.76 1.96	0.39	0.67	3.19
The quality of regular education students' education is enriched when students with SN participate in their classes. # 3.12, 2.25, 2.05	Between Group Within Group Total	10.72 43.69 54.41	2 47 49	5.36 0.92	5.76	0.005	3.19
Regular classrooms provide lesser opportunities for SN children to learn compared to special education classrooms #2.56, 3.56, 3.83	Between Group Within Group Total	14.84 64.37 79.21	2 47 49	7.42 1.36	5.41	0.007	3.19
If SN children were to spend much time in a regular classroom, they would end up becoming friends with children without SN. # 3.81, 3.81, 2.77	Between Group Within Group Total	12.33 55.98 68.31	2 47 49	6.16 1.19	5.17	0.009	3.19

Group means: 1; 2; and 3

In addition to the p-value, the F-ratio was equally employed to evaluate the level of significance of the group responses. The F-ratio is defined as the ratio of mean square between groups to the mean square within groups. Where F-ratio is > F-critical, the data is considered significant whereas if F-ratio < F-critical the data is insignificant. A summary of the test statistics for the ten statements is presented as follows:

- With respect to the statement 'Inclusion is the best way to meet the needs of all students', the mean response of the three groups were significantly different; $F_{(2, 47)} = 3.24$, $p < 0.05$.

- There was a significant difference in group means with respect to the statement 'inclusion causes more problems in regular schools', $F_{(2, 47)} = 4.48$, $p < 0.05$.

- 'The more time SN children spend in a regular classroom, the more likely that the quality of their education will drop'. The test statistics yielded the following results; $F_{(2, 47)} = 3.26$, $p < 0.05$, implying a significant difference in group mean responses.

- With respect to the statement 'the more time SN children spend in a regular classroom, the more likely that they would end up feeling content', the group means were significantly different; $F_{(2, 47)} = 3.32$, $p < 0.05$.

- 'The more time SN children spend in a regular classroom, the more likely that they will be ill-treated by children without SN'. The test statistics suggested a very significant difference in parental perceptions; $F_{(2, 47)} = 6.95$, $p < 0.01$.

- The group means were very different with respect to the statement 'the more time SN children spend in a regular classroom, the more likely that they would end up feeling lonely', $F_{(2, 47)} = 5.39$, $p < 0.01$.

- The test statistics gave a very significant difference in group means with respect to the statement 'when students with severe disabilities are enrolled in regular education classrooms, the positive benefits to the regular education

students outweigh any possible problems that this practice may present'; F (2, 47) = 5.76, p < 0.01. An identical observation was made for the statement 'the quality of regular education students' education is enriched when students with SN participate in their classes'.

- With regards to the opportunities of SN children in regular schools, the parents' mean responses were significantly very different; F (2, 47) = 5.41, p < 0.01.

- Finally on the statement 'if SN children were to spend much time in a regular classroom, they would end up becoming friends with children without SN', the difference in group mean response was very significant; F (2, 47) = 5.17, p < 0.01.

The ten statements with a calculated significant difference in group mean responses were subjected to Tukey (HSD) test in order to find out the source of variation amongst the groups. Results of the Tukey test are summarized on Table 4.5. From the analyses, the following interpretations were drawn:

- With regards to statement 1; inclusion is the best way to meet the needs of all students', there was a significant difference in perception between Group 1 and 2 whereas no significant difference was observed between Groups 1 and 3; 2 and 3.

- A significant difference existed between Groups 1 and 2; 1 and 3 on the statement 'inclusion causes more problems in regular schools' whereas the perceptions of Group 2 and 3 were not significantly different.

- Statement 3; 'the more time SN children spend in a regular classroom, the more likely that the quality of their education will drop'. The Tukey (HSD) test indicated a significant difference in perception between Groups 1 and 2; 1 and 3 whereas the difference in perception between Groups 2 and 3 were considered insignificant. The same trend was observed for statements 4, 5, 6, 7, 8 and 9 (Table 4.5).

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Table 4.5**:** Tukey (HSD) test for parents' perceptions of inclusion in regular school

Statement	Parents	Mean	Difference Between mean	Simultaneous confidence interval		Significance at 0.05 level
				Lower limit	Upper limit	
1. Inclusion is the best way to meet the needs of all students.	Group 1	3.43				
	Group 2	2.37	1.06	0.04	2.08	Yes
	Group 1	3.43				
	Group 3	2.78	0.65	-0.33	1.65	No
	Group 2	2.37				
	Group 3	2.78	-0.40	-1.39	0.58	No
2. Inclusion causes more problems in regular schools.	Group 1	2.5				
	Group 2	3.56	-1.06	-2.18	0.06	Yes
	Group 1	2.5				
	Group 3	3.78	-1.28	-2.36	-0.18	Yes
	Group 2	3.56				
	Group 3	3.78	-0.21	-1.31	0.87	No
3. The more time SN children spend in a regular classroom, the more likely that the quality of their education will drop.	Group 1	2.75				
	Group 2	3.62	-0.87	-1.89	0.14	Yes
	Group 1	2.75				
	Group 3	2.66	-0.08	-0.90	1.07	No
	Group 2	3.62				
	Group 3	2.66	0.95	-0.03	1.95	Yes
4. The more time SN children spend in a regular classroom, the more likely that they would end up feeling content.	Group 1	3.12				
	Group 2	2.37	0.75	-0.17	1.67	Yes
	Group 1	3.12				
	Group 3	2.22	0.90	0.006	1.79	Yes
	Group 2	2.37				
	Group 3	2.22	-0.74	-0.74	1.04	No
5. The more time SN children spend in a regular classroom, the more likely that they will be ill-treated by children without SN.	Group 1	2.5				
	Group 2	3.62	-1.12	-2.18	0.06	Yes
	Group 1	2.5				
	Group 3	4.05	-1.55	-2.58	-0.52	Yes
	Group 2	3.62				
	Group 3	4.05	-0.43	-1.46	0.60	No
6. The more time SN children spend in a regular classroom, the more likely that they would end up feeling lonely.	Group 1	2.25				
	Group 2	3.12	-0.87	-1.99	0.24	Yes
	Group 1	2.25				
	Group 3	3.72	-1.47	-2.55	-0.38	Yes
	Group 2	3.12				
	Group 3	3.72	-0.59	-1.68	0.49	No
7. The positive benefits to the regular education students outweigh any possible problems that this practice may present	Group 1	3.12				
	Group 2	2.25	0.87	0.05	1.7	Yes
	Group 1	3.12				
	Group 3	2.05	1.06	0.26	1.87	Yes
	Group 2	2.25				
	Group 3	2.05	0.19	-0.61	0.99	No

Statement	Group	Mean				
8. The educational quality of children in RS is enriched when children with SN participate in their classes.	Group 1	3.12				
	Group 2	2.25	0.87	0.05	1.7	Yes
	Group 1	3.12				
	Group 3	2.05	1.06	0.26	1.87	Yes
	Group 2	2.25				
	Group 3	2.05	0.19	-0.61	0.99	No
9. Regular education classrooms provide lesser opportunities for SN children to learn compared to special education classrooms.	Group 1	2.56				
	Group 2	3.56	-1	-2.00	0.001	Yes
	Group 1	2.56				
	Group 3	3.83	-1.27	-2.24	-0.29	Yes
	Group 2	3.56				
	Group 3	3.83	0.27	-1.24	0.70	No
10. If SN children were to spend much time in a regular class, they would end up becoming friends with children without SN	Group 1	3.81				
	Group 2	3.81	0	-0.93	0.93	No
	Group 1	3.81				
	Group 3	2.77	1.03	0.12	1.94	Yes
	Group 2	3.81				
	Group 3	2.77	1.03	0.12	1.94	Yes

Group 1; parents with SN children in RS, Group 2; parents with SN children in SS and Group 3; parents of SN children not enrolled in either SS or RS (Group 3).

- With respect to statement 10; 'if SN children were to spend much time in a regular classroom, they would end up becoming friends with children without SN', parents in Group 3 held very different perceptions from those in Groups 1 and 2. Conversely, there was no significant difference in perception between Groups 1 and 2 parents.

From the analyses of group perceptions on the 10 statements with significant difference (Table 4.5), 56.2% of parents from Group 1 believed inclusion is the best way to meet the needs of all children, whereas 62.6% from Group 2 and 50% from Group 3 disagreed. From Group 1, 62.5% disagreed with the statement inclusion causes more problems in RS whereas 81.2% from Group 2 and 72.2% from Group 3 agreed. With regards to the quality of education of SN children in RS, 56.3% of Group 1 indicated that the quality of their education will improve whereas only 31.2% and 33.3% from Groups 2 and 3 respectively shared this view. With respect to the statement 'the more time SN children spend in a regular classroom the more likely that they would end up feeling content', about 43.8% of Group were unsure whereas 62.4% and 72.2% of parents from Groups 2 and 3 respectively disagreed. Most parents (62.4%) from Group 1 felt their children will not be ill-treated by peers without SN. On the contrary, 62.4% of parents from Group 2 and 83.3% from Group 3 felt their SN children will be ill-treated. Some parents from Group 1 (43.8%) were equally unsure if their SN children would end up feeling lonely in regular classrooms

whereas 72.2% from Group 3 felt their SN children will feel lonely over time. Group 1 parents (37.5%) felt within inclusive classrooms the positive benefits to the child without SN outweighs any possible problems that this practise may present. In contrast, Groups 2 (68.8%) and 3 (72.2%) felt the negative benefits to the child without SN will outweigh any possible benefits of inclusion. More than half of the parents from Group 1 (56.2%) disagreed with the statement' regular education classrooms provide lesser opportunities for children with SN compared to special education classrooms 56.2% (Group 2) and 61.1% (Group 3) agreed with the statement. Seventy five percent of parents from Group 1 indicated that if SN children were to spend much time in regular classrooms, they would end up becoming friends with their peers without SN, whereas 50% of the parents from Group 3 were unsure of any eventual friendship over time.

In summary, there was a general consensus between Groups 2 and 3 on most of the statements addressing parental perception of inclusion in RS whereas the perceptions of Group 1 (i.e. parents with SN children in RS) were mostly antagonistic to those of Groups 2 and 3.

4.3   Parents' perception of general education teacher's attitude towards inclusion.

The results of parents perception of general education teacher's attitude towards inclusion (theme 2) has been analysed firstly for individual groups using basic descriptive statistics (percentage) and then between groups using Anova and Tukey HSD test. All fifty parents responded to the 17 statements addressing this theme.

4.3.1 Perception of parents with special need children in regular school.

Table 4.6 summarizes the basic descriptive statistics of the perceptions of respondents with respect to general education teacher's attitude towards inclusion. Most of the parents (62.5%) agreed that inclusion causes more problems to teachers in RS whereas 25% disagreed. 56.2% felt general education teachers were unwilling to accept a philosophy of full inclusion whereas 25% disagreed. A total of 68.7% of the parents indicated that general education teachers do not put in enough time to

meet the needs of all students while 62.5% believed the teachers were concerned about teaching children with a wide range of needs in one class. Also, 56.2% gave positive responses to the statement 'general education teachers believe having special needs children in regular schools would negatively influence class standards'.

With respect to teacher training, 56.2% felt general education teachers lacked the necessary training, 18.8% were unsure whereas 25% believed they are trained. With regards to willingness to teach children with SN, about 75% of the parents indicated that general education teachers were unwilling, while 75% also felt the teachers were unskilled. A total of 31.2% responded positively to the statement 'general education teachers believe it would be difficult to maintain discipline in class' whereas 43.8% held contrary views. The parents were divided on the issue of teacher's expectations of the SN child. 31.2 % indicated that general education teachers expect excellent performances from children with SN, 31.3 were unsure whereas 37.5% responded negatively.

A total of 43.8% of the parents believed inadequate support system is not to blame for general education teacher's negative attitude towards inclusion whereas 50% disagreed. About 68.7% of the parents however felt that adequate support systems positively influence effective teaching of children with SN.

Most of the respondents (62.5%) believed general education teachers are not influenced by the 'stigma' associated with SN, 25% were unsure whereas only 12.5% felt general education teachers are influenced by the 'stigma'. With respect to the statement; 'general education teachers are ignorant about the challenges facing children with special needs', 62.4 % of the parents responded negatively whereas only 18.8% agreed with the statement.

Table 4.6: Perceptions of parents with special need children in regular school with respect to theme 2

Statement	Agreed (%)	Not sure (%)	Disagreed (%)
18) Inclusion causes more problems to teachers in regular schools.	62.5	12.5	25
19) General education teachers are willing to accept a philosophy of full inclusion.	25	18.8	56.2
20) General education teachers do not put in enough time to meet the needs of all students.	68.7	12.5	18.8
21) General education teachers are concerned about teaching children with a wide range of needs in one class.	62.5	12.5	25
22) General education teachers believe having special needs children in regular schools would negatively influence class standards.	56.2	6.3	37.5
23) General education teachers have been trained to work with increasingly diverse student needs.	25	18.8	56.2
24) General education teachers believe all students would not be adequately taught.	37.5	25	37.5
25) General education teachers are willing to teach children with special needs.	18.8	6.2	75
26) General education teachers believe it would be difficult to maintain discipline in class.	31.2	25	43.8
27) Most general education teachers have the skill to teach special needs children.	18.8	6.2	75
28) General education teachers would not be able to individualize instructions.	43.8	25	31.2
29) General education teachers expect excellent performances from a child with special need.	31.2	31.3	37.5

30) Inadequate support systems are not to blame for general education teacher's negative attitude towards inclusion.	43.8	6.2	50
31) General education teachers are not influenced by the 'stigma' associated with special needs.	62.5	25	12.5
32) General education teachers are ignorant about the challenges facing children with special needs.	18.8	18.8	62.4
33) Adequate support system positively influences effective teaching of children with special needs.	68.7	6.3	25
34) Evaluating the work of diverse students would be challenging.	56.2	18.8	25

4.3.2 Perception of parents with special need children in special school

The perceptions of the parents' with SN children in SS with respect to theme 2 are given on Table 4.7. Fifty percent of the parents gave positive response to the statement; 'inclusion causes more problems to teachers in regular schools', 6.3% were unsure whereas 43.8% disagreed. 62.4% felt general education teachers are not willing to accept a philosophy of full inclusion while 62.5% indicated that the teachers do not put in enough time to meet the needs of all students. With respect to the statement; 'general education teachers are concerned about teaching children with a wide range of needs in class', 25% of the responses were negative, 37.5% unsure and 37.5% positive. Fifty percent of the parents indicated that general education teachers believe, having SN children in RS, negatively influences class standards while 18.8% disagreed.

As far as teacher training is concerned, 31.3% believed general education teachers have not been trained to work with increasingly diverse student needs whereas 37.5% were unsure. Fewer parents (37.5%) agreed with the statement 'general education teachers believe all students would not be taught adequately', whereas 50% were unsure. A total of 56.2% of the respondents believed general education teachers are not willing to teach children with SN while with respect to the issue of discipline, 50% agreed, 12.5% were unsure whereas 37.5% disagreed with the

statement 'general education teachers believe it would be difficult to maintain discipline in class'. Equally 56.2% of the respondents believed general education teachers would not be able to individualize instructions while, 62.4% of the parents concurred that general education teachers lacked the necessary skills to teach children with SN. Most of the parents (62.4%) also indicated that general education teachers do not expect excellent performances from a child with SN.

With respect to the statement; 'inadequate support is not to blame for general education teacher's negative attitude towards inclusion', 43.7% of the parents responded negatively whereas 37.5% were unsure. However, 50% of the parents concurred that adequate support systems positively influences effective teaching of children with SN.

A total of 56.2% of the respondents believed general education teachers are influenced by the 'stigma' associated with SN, 12.5% were unsure whereas 31.3% felt general education teachers are influenced by the 'stigma'. With respect to the statement; 'general education teachers are ignorant about the challenges facing children with special needs', 12.5 % of the parents responded negatively whereas about 43.8% agreed with the statement.

Table 4.7: Perceptions of parents with special need children in special school with respect to theme 2

Statement	Agreed (%)	Not sure (%)	Disagreed (%)
8) Inclusion causes more problems to teachers in regular schools.	50	6.3	43.8
19) General education teachers are willing to accept a philosophy of full inclusion.	18.8	18.8	62.4
20) General education teachers do not put in enough time to meet the needs of all students.	62.5	12.5	25

21) General education teachers are concerned about teaching children with a wide range of needs in one class.	25	37.5	37.5
22) General education teachers believe having special needs children in regular schools would negatively influence class standards.	50	31.3	18.8
23) General education teachers have been trained to work with increasingly diverse student needs.	31.3	37.5	31.2
24) General education teachers believe all students would not be adequately taught.	37.5	50	12.5
25) General education teachers are willing to teach children with special needs.	25	18.8	56.2
26) General education teachers believe it would be difficult to maintain discipline in class.	31.2	25	43.8
27) Most general education teachers have the skill to teach special needs children.	18.8	18.8	62.4
28) General education teachers would not be able to individualize instructions.	56.2	18.8	25
29) General education teachers expect excellent performances from a child with special need.	18.8	18.8	62.4
30) Inadequate support systems are not to blame for general education teacher's negative attitude towards inclusion.	18.8	37.5	43.7
31) General education teachers are not influenced by the 'stigma' associated with special needs.	31.3	12.5	56.2
32) General education teachers are ignorant about the challenges facing children with special needs.	43.8	43.7	12.5
33) Adequate support system positively influences effective teaching of children with special needs.	50	31.2	18.8
34) Evaluating the work of diverse students would be challenging.	62.5	12.5	25

4.3.3 Perception of parents with special need children not enrolled in either special or regular school.

The responses of the parents' with SN children not enrolled in either RS or SS with respect to theme 2 are presented on Table 4.8. Most of the parents (77.8%) agreed that inclusion causes more problems to teachers in RS. A total of 55.5% felt general education teachers were unwilling to accept a philosophy of full inclusion whereas 22.3% disagreed. A majority of the parents (88.9%) indicated that general education teachers do not put in enough time to meet the needs of all students while 44.4% believed the teachers were concerned about teaching children with a wide range of needs in one class. More than half (55.5%) responded positively to the statement 'general education teachers believe having special needs children in regular schools would negatively influence class standards'.

On the issue of teacher training, 44.4% of the parents believed general education teachers lacked the necessary training whereas 44.4% felt they are trained. With regards to willingness to teach children with SN, about 44.4% of the respondents believed general education teachers are not willing to teach children with SN, 22.2% unsure whereas 33.4% taught they were willing. 61.1% of the parents felt all students in regular education settings would not be taught adequately. A total of 44.4% of the respondents believed general education teachers lacked the necessary skills to teach children with SN whereas 38.9% held opposite views. Equally, 38.9% of the parents indicated that general education teachers do not expect excellent performances from a child with SN, 22.2% were unsure whereas another 38.9% held contrary opinions.

Fewer parents (22.3%) believed inadequate support system is not to blame for general education teacher's negative attitude towards inclusion whereas 55.5% disagreed. Also, 44.4% of the parents however felt that adequate support systems positively influence effective teaching of children with SN whereas 38.9% held contrary views. More than half of the respondents (55.5%) believed general education teachers are influenced by the 'stigma' associated with SN whereas only 22.3% felt general education teachers are influenced by the 'stigma'. With respect to the statement; 'general education teachers are ignorant about the challenges facing

children with special needs', 38.9 % of the parents responded negatively as opposed to 50% who agreed with the statement.

Table 4.8: Perceptions of parents with special need children not enrolled in either special or regular school with respect to theme 2

Statement	Agreed (%)	Not sure (%)	Disagreed (%)
18) Inclusion causes more problems to teachers in regular schools.	77.8	5.6	16.6
19) General education teachers are willing to accept a philosophy of full inclusion.	22.3	22.2	55.5
20) General education teachers do not put in enough time to meet the needs of all students.	88.9	11.1	0
21) General education teachers are concerned about teaching children with a wide range of needs in one class.	44.4	22.2	33.4
22) General education teachers believe having special needs children in regular schools would negatively influence class standards.	55.5	27.8	16.7
23) General education teachers have been trained to work with increasingly diverse student needs.	44.5	11.1	44.4
24) General education teachers believe all students would not be adequately taught.	61.1	16.7	22.2
25) General education teachers are willing to teach children with special needs.	33.4	22.2	44.4
26) General education teachers believe it would be difficult to maintain discipline in class.	77.8	22.2	0
27) Most general education teachers have the skill to teach special needs children.	38.9	16.7	44.4
28) General education teachers would not be able to individualize instructions.	33.3	33.3	33.4

29) General education teachers expect excellent performances from a child with special need.	38.9	22.2	38.9
30) Inadequate support is not to blame for general education teacher's negative attitudes.	22.3	22.2	55.5
31) General education teachers are not influenced by the 'stigma' associated with special needs.	22.3	22.2	55.5
32) General education teachers are ignorant about the challenges facing children with special needs.	50	11.1	38.9
33) Adequate support system positively influences effective teaching of children with special needs.	44.4	16.7	38.9
34) Evaluating the work of diverse students would be challenging.	61.1	22.2	16.7

4.3.4 Group comparisons of parents' perceptions of general education teacher's attitude towards inclusion

The distribution of mean responses of the three groups of parents with respect to general education teacher's attitude towards inclusion is given on Figure 4. Visual inspection of Figure 4.2 reveals comparatively lesser variations in perceptions of the three groups of parents.

Results from the ANOVA test (Table 4.9) were consistent with the above remark. Based on the definitions of F-ratio, p-value, null and alternate hypotheses (as elaborated in section 4.2.4) the test statistic yielded 2 categories of p-values; $p < 0.05$ and $p > 0.05$. The results for 13 statements were considered insignificant (i.e. $p > 0.05$), implying acceptance of the null hypothesis whereas the difference in group mean responses for four other statements were significant (i.e. $p < 0.05$), indicating rejection of the null hypothesis.
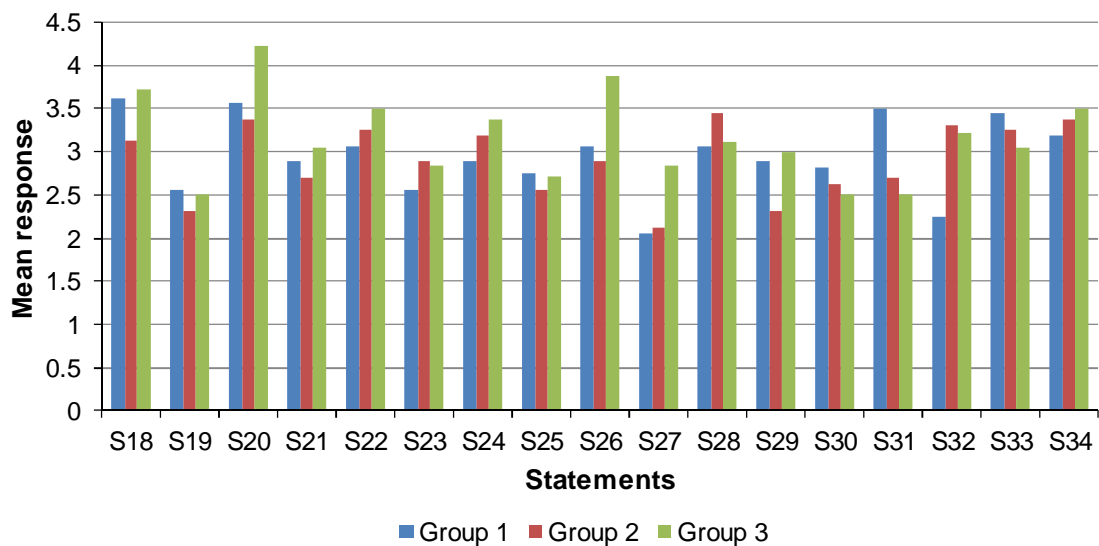
Figure 4.2: Distribution of mean responses of the three groups of parents with respect to general education teacher's attitude towards inclusion.

Table 4.9: Result of ANOVA for parents' perceptions of general education teacher's attitude towards inclusion

Statement	ANOVA	SS	df	MS	F	P-value	F crit.
Inclusion causes more problems to teachers in regular schools. # 3.62, 3.12, 3.72	Between Group	3.38	2	1.69	0.98	0.38	3.19
	Within Group	81.11	47	1.72			
	Total	84.49	49				
General education teachers are willing to accept a philosophy of full inclusion. # 2.56, 2.31, 2.5	Between Group	0.54	2	0.27	0.2	0.81	3.19
	Within Group	63.87	47	1.35			
	Total	64.41	49				
General education teachers do not put in enough time to meet the needs of all students. # 3.56, 3.37, 4.22	Between Group	6.82	2	3.45	4.35	0.01	3.19
	Within Group	36.79	47	0.78			
	Total	43.61	49				

Statement							
General education teachers are concerned about teaching children with a wide range of needs in one class. # 2.87, 2.68, 3.05	Between Group	1.14	2	0.57	0.37	0.68	3.19
	Within Group	72.13	47	1.53			
	Total	73.27	49				
General education teachers believe having SN children in RS would negatively influence class standards. # 3.06, 3.43, 3.5	Between Group	1.84	2	0.92	0.71	0.49	3.19
	Within Group	61.37	47	1.31			
	Total	63.21	49				
General education teachers have been trained to work with increasingly diverse student needs. # 2.56, 2.87, 2.83	Between Group	0.93	2	0.46	0.29	0.74	3.19
	Within Group	74.18	47	1.57			
	Total	75.11	49				
General education teachers believe all students would not be adequately taught. # 2.87, 3.18, 3.38	Between Group	2.25	2	1.12	1.14	0.32	3.19
	Within Group	24.46	47	0.98			
	Total	26.71	49				
General education teachers are willing to teach children with special needs. # 2.75, 2.56, 2.72	Between Group	0.33	2	0.16	0.09	0.91	3.19
	Within Group	82.54	47	1.75			
	Total	82.87	49				
General education teachers believe it would be difficult to maintain discipline in class. # 2.87, 3.06, 3.88	Between Group	10.03	2	5.01	5.07	0.01	3.19
	Within Group	46.46	47	0.98			
	Total	56.49	49				
Most general education teachers have the skill to teach special needs children. # 2.06, 2.12, 2.83	Between Group	6.33	2	3.16	1.87	0.16	3.19
	Within Group	79.18	47	1.68			
	Total	85.51	49				
General education teachers would not be able to individualize instructions. # 3.06, 3.43, 3.11	Between Group	1.34	2	0.67	0.57	0.56	3.19
	Within Group	54.65	47	1.16			
	Total	55.99	49				

General education teachers expect excellent performances from a child with special need # 2.87, 2.31, 3	Between Group Within Group Total	4.43 85.18 89.61	2 47 49	2.21 1.59	1.38	0.26	3.19
Inadequate support is not to blame for general education teacher's negative attitude towards inclusion. # 2.81, 2.62, 2.5	Between Group Within Group Total	0.83 70.68 71.51	2 47 49	0.41 1.50	0.27	0.75	3.19
General education teachers are not influenced by the 'stigma' associated with special needs # 3.5, 2.68, 2.5	Between Group Within Group Total	9.34 65.93 75.27	2 47 49	4.67 1.40	3.32	0.04	3.19
General education teachers are ignorant about the challenges facing children with special needs # 2.25, 3.31, 3.22	Between Group Within Group Total	11.27 59.54 70.81	2 47 49	5.63 1.26	4.44	0.01	3.19
Adequate support system positively influences effective teaching of children with special needs. # 3.43, 3.43, 3.05	Between Group Within Group Total	1.68 64.81 66.49	2 47 49	0.84 1.37	0.61	0.54	3.19
Evaluating the work of diverse students would be challenging. # 3.18, 3.37, 3.5	Between Group Within Group Total	0.83 54.68 54.763	2 47 49	0.41 1.16	0.35	0.70	3.19

#: Group means: 1; 2; and 3

A summary of the test statistic for the four statements (denoted by the shaded regions on Table 4.9) with a significant difference in group mean responses is presented thus;

- With respect to the statement 'general education teachers do not put in enough time to meet the needs of all students', the mean responses were significantly different; $F_{(2, 47)} = 4.35$, $p < 0.05$.

- There was a significant difference with regards to the statement 'general education teachers believe it would be difficult to maintain discipline in class'; $F(2, 47) = 5.07$, $p < 0.05$.

- 'General education teachers are not influenced by the 'stigma' associated with special needs'. The test statistics produced the following results; $F(2, 47) = 3.32$, $p < 0.05$, implying a significant difference in group mean responses.

- A significant difference was equally observed on the statement 'general education teachers are ignorant about the challenges facing children with special needs'; $F(2, 47) = 4.44$, $p < 0.05$.

The four statements were subjected to Tukey (HSD) test in order to account for variations. Results of the Tukey test are given on Table 4.10.

Table 4.10**:** Tukey (HSD) test for parents' perceptions of general education teacher's attitude towards inclusion

Statement	Parents	Mean	Difference Between mean	Simultaneous confidence interval		Significance at 0.05 level
				Lower limit	Upper limit	
1. General education teachers do not put in enough time to meet the needs of all students.	Group 1	3.56				
	Group 2	3.37	0.18	-0.59	0.94	No
	Group 1	3.56				
	Group 3	4.22	-0.65	-1.39	0.07	No
	Group 2	3.37				
	Group 3	4.22	-0.84	-1.58	-0.11	Yes
2. General education teachers believe it would be difficult to maintain discipline in class.	Group 1	3.06				
	Group 2	2.87	-0.66	1.03	1.03	No
	Group 1	3.06				
	Group 3	3.88	-1.65	4.02	4.02	No
	Group 2	2.87				
	Group 3	3.88	-1.84	-1.84	-0.18	Yes
3. General education teachers are not influenced by the 'stigma' associated with special needs.	Group 1	3.5				
	Group 2	2.68	0.81	-0.20	1.82	Yes
	Group 1	3.5				
	Group 3	2.5	1	0.01	1.98	Yes
	Group 2	2.68				
	Group 3	2.5	0.18	-0.79	1.17	No
4. General education teachers are ignorant about the challenges facing children with special needs	Group 1	2.25				
	Group 2	3.31	-1.06	-2.02	-0.09	Yes
	Group 1	2.25				
	Group 3	3.22	-0.97	-1.91	-0.03	Yes
	Group 2	3.31				
	Group 3	3.22	0.09	-0.84	1.02	No

Group 1; parents with SN children in RS, Group 2; parents with SN children in SS and Group 3; parents of SN children not enrolled in either SS or RS (Group 3).

From the results on Table 4.10, the following interpretations were made:

- With respect to statement 1 'general education teachers do not put in enough time to meet the needs of all students', there was no significant difference in the mean responses of Groups 1 and 2; Groups 1 and 3. A significant difference was however observed between Groups 2 and 3.

- The perceptions of Group 2 and 3 were significantly different in relation to the statement 'general education teachers believe it would be difficult to maintain discipline in class' whereas no significant difference in responses were observed between Groups 1 and 2; Groups 1 and 3.

- Groups 2 and 3 shared a common consensus on the statement 'general education teachers are not influenced by the 'stigma' associated with special needs' whereas a significant difference was obtained between Groups 1 and 2; Groups 1 and 3.

- A similar trend was observed for statement 4 'general education teachers are ignorant about the challenges facing children with special needs'. The perceptions of Groups 2 and 3 were not significantly different whereas those between Groups 1 and 2; Groups 1 and 3 were significantly different.

From the analyses of group perceptions on the four statements with significant difference, 68.7% of parents from Group 1, 62.5% from Group 2and comparatively more for Group 3 (88.9%) felt the teachers do not put in enough time to meet the needs of all students. 31.2% from Group 1, 50% (Group 2) and 77.8% (Group 3) indicated that general education teachers believed it would be difficult to maintain discipline in class. Most parents (62.5%) rom Group 1 felt general education teachers are not influenced by the 'stigma' associated with SN whereas, 56.2% from Group 2 and 55.5% from Group 3 happen to disagree. Parents from Group 1 (62.4%) equally indicated that general education teachers are not ignorant about the challenges facing children with SN whereas, 43.8% and 50% of parents from Groups 2 and 3 respectively felt these teachers are ignorant about the challenges of SN children in inclusive classrooms.

The statistical data (ANOVA and Tukey tests) presented suggests a general consensus amongst the three groups of parents with respect to general education teacher's attitude towards inclusion. This is supported by the comparatively fewer number of statements (< 24%) with a resultant significant difference in group mean responses. The four statements address issues related to; level of commitment by general education teachers to children with SN, maintaining discipline in RS, stigma associated with SN and teachers knowledge of the challenges faced by children with SN. These factors and the respective group perceptions shall be discussed in greater detail in chapter 5.

4.4 Parents' perception of socio-cultural considerations towards inclusion in the community.

The results of parents perception of socio-cultural considerations towards inclusion in the community (theme 3) has been statistically analysed firstly for individual groups using basic descriptive statistics (percentage) and then between groups using Anova and Tukey HSD test. The parents (n = 50) responded to all 13 statements addressing this theme.

4.4.1 Perception of parents with special need children in regular school

From the basic descriptive statistics presented on Table 4.11, 31.3% of the respondents believed inclusion causes more problems in the community whereas 62.4% disagreed. A total of 43.7% indicated that certain cultures consider a SN child as having sacred powers, 25% were unsure whereas 31.3% held contrary views. Most of the parents (62.4%) responded negatively to the statement 'if a child has a SN it is his/her fate'. A majority (81.2%) equally responded negatively to the statement 'there is nothing that can be done to a special needs child' while 50% believed SN children are expected to leave a normal life. Most of the parents (68.7%) believed SN children can become successful in life whereas 25% gave a negative response.

Most of the parents (68.7%) equally responded negatively to the statement; 'parents with special needs children believe they have been bewitched out of envy by their

contemporaries', while 56.2% also disagreed with the statement; 'parents of children with special needs are believed to have violated certain traditional norms'. A total of 56.2% of the parents felt African cultures still consider SN children as hopeless whereas 31.3% disagreed with this statement. More than half (56.2%) of the parents indicated that children with SN are not considered a blessing in traditional African societies whereas 25% felt they are. With respect to the statement; 'association with a special need child is seen as partaking in the wrath of the gods', 31.3% of the parents responded positively, 25% negatively whereas 43.7% were unsure. Most of the parents (62.5%) however believed that unconditional acceptance by communities contributes towards the overall development of the child with SN whereas 25% of the parents disagreed while 12.5% were unsure of any benefits associated with unconditional acceptance by communities.

Table 4.11: Perceptions of parents with special need children in regular school with respect to theme 3

Statement	Agreed (%)	Not sure (%)	Disagreed (%)
35) Inclusion causes more problems in the community.	31.3	6.3	62.4
36) Certain cultures consider a special needs child as having sacred powers.	43.7	25	31.3
37) There is nothing that can be done to help a special needs child.	18.8	0	81.2
38) Special needs children are expected to live a normal life.	50	6.3	43.7
39) Parents with special needs children believe they have been bewitched out of envy by their contemporaries.	25	6.3	68.7
40) If a child has special needs then that is his/her fate.	31.3	6.3	62.4
41) Children with special needs can become successful in life	68.7	6.3	25

42) Parents of children with special needs are believed to have violated certain traditional norms.	12.5	31.3	56.2
43) Association with a special need child is seen as partaking in the wrath of the gods.	31.3	43.7	25
44) African cultures still considers the special needs child as hopeless.	56.2	12.5	31.3
45) Children with special needs are considered as a blessing within traditional African societies.	25	18.8	56.2
46) African cultures still considers the special needs child as helpless.	50	6.3	43.7
47) Unconditional acceptance by communities contributes towards overall development of the child with special needs.	62.5	12.5	25

4.4.2 Perception of parents with special need children in special school

The responses of the parents' with SN children in SS with respect to theme 3 are presented on Table 4.12. Most of the respondents (62.5%) believed inclusion causes more problems in the community whereas 25% disagreed. A total of 56.2% indicated that certain cultures consider a SN child as having sacred powers, 25% were unsure whereas 18.8% responded negatively. 62.4% of the parents believed if a child has a SN it is his/her fate whereas 31.3% disagreed. With respect to the statement 'there is nothing that can be done to a special needs child', 37.5% responded positively while 56.2% gave a negative response. A total of 68.7% of respondents indicated that SN children are expected to leave a normal life. A majority (75%) of the parents believed SN children can become successful in life whereas 25% gave a negative response.

Fifty percent of the parents responded positively to the statement; 'parents with special needs children believe they have been bewitched out of envy by their contemporaries', 12.5% were unsure whereas 37.5% gave a negative response. A total of 62.4% also felt that parents of children with special needs are believed to

have violated certain traditional norms while 31.3% of the parents disagreed. Equally 62.5% also believed African cultures still considers SN children as hopeless whereas 31.3% disagreed with this statement. Fewer parents (25%) indicated that children with SN are considered a blessing in traditional African societies whereas 56.2% felt they were not. With respect to the statement; 'association with a special need child is seen as partaking in the wrath of the gods', 50% of the parents responded positively, 18.7% negatively whereas 31.3% were unsure. Most of the parents (62.4%) believed that unconditional acceptance by communities contributes towards the overall development of the child with SN, 31.3% of the parents disagreed whereas 6.3% were unsure of any benefits associated with unconditional acceptance by communities.

Table 4.12: Perceptions of parents with special need children in special school with respect to theme 3

Statement	Agreed (%)	Not sure (%)	Disagreed (%)
35) Inclusion causes more problems in the community.	62.5	12.5	25
36) Certain cultures consider a special needs child as having sacred powers.	56.2	25	18.8
37) There is nothing that can be done to help a special needs child.	37.5	6.3	56.2
38) Special needs children are expected to live a normal life.	68.7	12.5	18.8
39) Parents with special needs children believe they have been bewitched out of envy by their contemporaries.	50	12.5	37.5
40) If a child has special needs then that is his/her fate.	62.4	6.3	31.3
41) Children with special needs can become successful in life	75	0	25
42) Parents of children with special needs are believed to have violated certain traditional norms.	62.4	6.3	31.3

43) Association with a special need child is seen as partaking in the wrath of the gods.	50	18.7	31.3
44) African cultures still considers the special needs child as hopeless.	62.4	6.3	31.3
45) Children with special needs are considered as a blessing within traditional African societies.	25	18.8	56.2
46) African cultures still considers the special needs child as helpless.	62.4	6.3	31.3
47) Unconditional acceptance by communities contributes towards overall development of the child with special needs.	62.4	6.3	31.3

4.3.3 Perception of parents with special need children not enrolled in either special or regular school

The perceptions of the parents' with SN children in SS with respect to theme 3 are given on Table 4.13. A majority of the respondents (77.7%) felt inclusion causes more problems in the community whereas 16.7% disagreed. Fifty percent of the parents indicated that certain cultures consider a SN child as having sacred powers, 22.2% were unsure whereas 27.8% responded negatively. A total of 72.2% of the parents believed if a child has a SN it is his/her fate whereas 16.7% disagreed. With respect to the statement 'there is nothing that can be done to a special needs child', 77.7% responded positively while 16.7% gave a negative response. A majority of the parents (83.4%) indicated that SN children are not expected to leave a normal life while only 22.3% of the parents believed SN children can become successful in life.

Most of the parents (61.1%) responded positively to the statement; 'parents with special needs children believe they have been bewitched out of envy by their contemporaries', 16.7% were unsure whereas 27.8% gave a negative response. A total of 33.4% of the respondents felt that parents of children with special needs are believed to have violated certain traditional norms while 44.5% of the parents disagreed. Fifty percent of the parents equally believed African cultures still consider SN children as hopeless whereas 38.9% disagreed with this statement. Fewer

parents (22.3%) indicated that children with SN are considered a blessing in traditional African societies whereas 61.1% felt they were not. With respect to the statement; 'association with a special need child is seen as partaking in the wrath of the gods', 50% of the parents responded positively, 27.8% negatively whereas 22.2% were unsure. Most of the parents (77.8%) however believed that unconditional acceptance by communities contributes towards the overall development of the child with SN whereas 11.1% of the parents disagreed while 11.1% were unsure of any benefits associated with unconditional acceptance by communities.

Table 4.13: Perceptions of parents with special need children not enrolled in either special or regular school with respect to theme 3

Statement	Agreed (%)	Not sure (%)	Disagreed (%)
35) Inclusion causes more problems in the community.	77.7	5.6	16.7
36) Certain cultures consider a special needs child as having sacred powers.	50	22.2	27.8
37) There is nothing that can be done to help a special needs child.	77.7	5.6	16.7
38) Special needs children are expected to live a normal life.	5.6	11.1	83.4
39) Parents with special needs children believe they have been bewitched out of envy by their contemporaries.	61.1	16.7	22.3
40) If a child has special needs then that is his/her fate.	72.2	5.6	22.3
41) Children with special needs can become successful in life	22.3	11.1	66.6
42) Parents of children with special needs are believed to have violated certain traditional norms.	33.4	22.2	44.5
43) Association with a special need child is seen as partaking in the wrath of the gods.	50	22.2	27.8

44) African cultures still considers the special needs child as hopeless.	50	11.1	38.9
45) Children with special needs are considered as a blessing within traditional African societies.	22.3	16.7	61.1
46) African cultures still considers the special needs child as helpless.	72.2	5.6	22.2
47) Unconditional acceptance by communities contributes towards overall development of the child with special needs.	77.8	11.1	11

4.4.4 Group comparison of parents' perceptions of socio-cultural considerations towards inclusion in the community

The distribution of mean responses of the three groups of parents with respect to their perceptions on socio-cultural considerations towards inclusion in the community is given on Figure 4.3. Visual comparison of Figure 4.3 revealed comparatively lesser variations in perceptions between Groups 1 and 2 than between Groups 1 and 3 or 2 and 3.
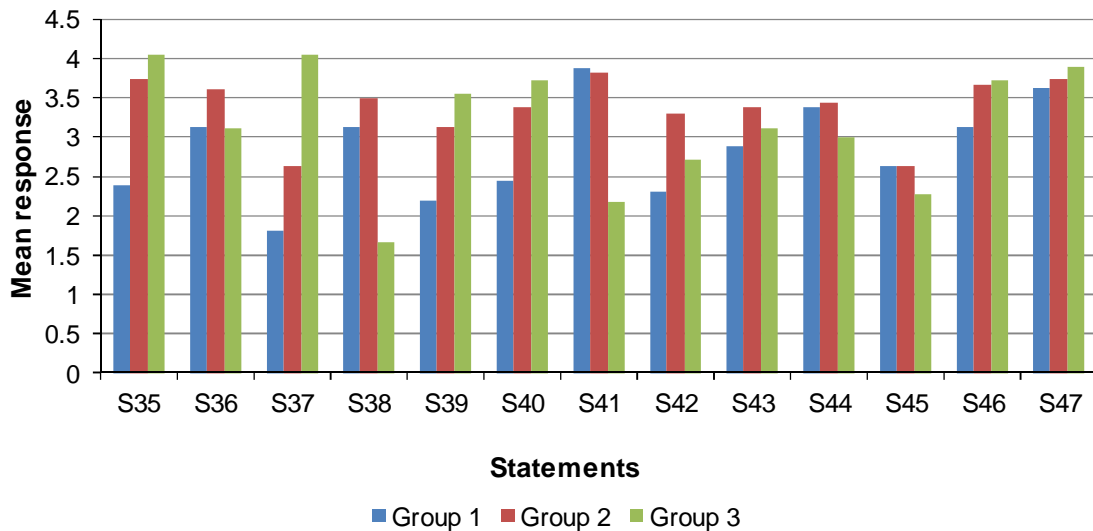
Figure 4.3: Distribution of the mean responses of the three groups of parents with respect to their perceptions of socio-cultural considerations towards inclusion in the community.

A one – way ANOVA test was conducted to quantitatively determine which groups where significantly different in their perceptions. The null hypothesis was; *there is no significant difference in group means* whereas the alternative hypothesis was; *the mean responses of one or more groups are significantly different.* From the results (Table 4.14), the differences in group mean responses were insignificant for 7 statements (p > 0.05 meaning an acceptance of the null hypothesis) whereas, a significant to very significant difference was observed for 6 statements (P < 0.05 and P < 0.01 respectively) implying a rejection of the null hypothesis.

Table 4.14: Result of ANOVA for parents' perceptions of socio-cultural considerations towards inclusion in the community

Statement	ANOVA	*SS*	*df*	MS	F	P-value	F crit.
Inclusion causes more problems in the community # 2.37, 3.75, 4.05	Between Group Within Group Total	26.48 91.69 118.17	2 47 49	13.24 1.95 	6.78	0.002	3.19
Certain cultures consider a special needs child as having sacred powers. # 3.12, 3.5, 3.11	Between Group Within Group Total	1.59 75.52 77.12	2 47 49	0.79 1.61 	0.49	0.61	3.19
There is nothing that can be done to a special needs child. #1.81, 2.62, 4.05	Between Group Within Group Total	44.14 81.13 125.28	2 47 49	22.07 1.72 	12.78	0.0003	3.19
Special needs children are expected to live a normal life. # 3.12, 3.5, 1.67	Between Group Within Group Total	32.33 77.75 110.08	2 47 49	16.16 1.65 	9.77	0.0002	3.19
Parents with special needs children believe they have been bewitched out of envy by their contemporaries. # 2.18, 3.12, 3.55	Between Group Within Group Total	16.34 84.63 100.98	2 47 49	8.17 1.80 	4.53	0.01	3.19
If a child has special need then that is his/her fate # 2.43, 3.37, 3.72	Between Group Within Group Total	14.7 99.29 114	2 47 49	7.35 2.11 	3.47	0.03	3.19
Children with special needs	Between Group	32.43	2	16.21	9.44	0.0003	3.19

can become successful in life # 3.87, 3.81, 2.16	Within Group Total	80.68 113.12	47 49	1.71			
Parents of children with special needs are believed to have violated certain traditional norms # 2.31, 3.31, 2.77	Between Group Within Group Total	8.01 65.98 74	2 47 49	4.0 1.4	2.85	0.06	3.19
Association with a special need child is seen as partaking in the wrath of the gods. # 2.87, 3.37, 3.11	Between Group Within Group Total	2.00 81.27 83.28	2 47 49	1.00 1.72	0.57	0.56	3.19
African cultures still considers the special needs child as hopeless. # 3.37, 3.5, 3	Between Group Within Group Total	2.33 95.75 98.08	2 47 49	1.16 2.03	0.57	0.56	3.19
Children with special needs are considered as a blessing within traditional African societies. # 2.62, 2.62, 2.27	Between Group Within Group Total	1.38 57.11 58.5	2 47 49	0.69 1.21	0.57	0.56	3.19
African cultures still considers the special needs child as helpless. # 3.12, 3.56, 3.72	Between Group Within Group Total	3.18 101.2 104.48	2 47 49	1.59 2.15	0.73	0.48	3.19
Unconditional acceptance by communities contributes towards overall development of the child with special needs. # 3.62, 3.5, 3.88	Between Group Within Group Total	1.35 71.52 72.88	2 47 49	0.67 1.52	0.44	0.64	3.19

#: Group means: 1; 2; and 3

Inclusive of the F-ratio, a summary of the test statistics for the 6 statements with a resultant significant or very significant difference in parental perceptions is presented below:

- With respect to the statement 'inclusion causes more problems in the community', the mean responses were significantly very different; $F_{(2, 47)} = 6.78$, $P < 0.01$.

- The parents' perceptions were equally very different on the statement 'there is nothing that can be done to a special needs child'; $F_{(2, 47)} = 12.78$, $P < 0.01$.

- On the statement 'special needs children are expected to live a normal life', the difference in group mean responses were also very significant; $F_{(2, 47)} = 9.77$, $P < 0.01$.

- With respect to the statement 'parents with special needs children believe they have been bewitched out of envy by their contemporaries', the test statistics yielded the following; $F_{(2, 47)} = 4.53$, $p < 0.05$, indicating a significant difference.

- A significant difference in group mean responses was also obtained for the statement 'If a child has special need then that is his/her fate'; $F_{(2, 47)} = 3.47$, $p < 0.05$.

- Finally for the statement 'children with special needs can become successful in life', the mean responses from the 3 groups of parents were significantly very different; $F_{(2, 47)} = 9.44$, $P < 0.01$.

The 6 statements with a calculated significant difference in group mean responses were subjected to Tukey (HSD) test in order to find out the source of variation amongst the groups. From the results of the Tukey test (Table 4.15) the following interpretations were drawn:

- With respect to the statement 'inclusion causes more problems in the community', there was a significant difference in perception between Groups 1 and 2; Groups 1 and 3 whereas no significant difference was observed between Groups 2 and 3.

- A significant difference was observed between Groups 1 and 3; Groups 2 and 3 on the statement 'there is nothing that can be done to a special needs child'. No significant difference was reported between Groups 1 and 2. A similar trend was equally observed for statement 3 (Table 4.15).

Table 4.15: Tukey (HSD) test for parents' perceptions of socio-cultural considerations towards inclusion in the community

Statements	Parents	Mean	Difference Between mean	Simultaneous confidence interval		Significance at 0.05 level
				Lower limit	Upper limit	
1. Inclusion causes more problems in the community.	Group 1	2.37				
	Group 2	3.75	-1.37	-2.57	-0.17	Yes
	Group 1	2.37				
	Group 3	4.05	-1.68	-2.84	-0.51	Yes
	Group 2	3.75				
	Group 3	4.05	-0.30	-1.46	0.85	No
2. There is nothing that can be done to a special needs child.	Group 1	1.81				
	Group 2	2.62	-0.81	-1.93	0.31	No
	Group 1	1.81				
	Group 3	4.05	-2.24	-3.33	-1.15	Yes
	Group 2	2.62				
	Group 3	4.05	-1.43	-2.52	-0.33	Yes
3. Special needs children are expected to live a normal life.	Group 1	3.12				
	Group 2	3.5	-0.37	-1.47	0.72	No
	Group 1	3.12				
	Group 3	1.67	-1.45	-0.38	2.52	Yes
	Group 2	3.5				
	Group 3	1.67	1.83	0.76	2.90	Yes
4. Parents with special needs children believe they have been bewitched out of envy by their contemporaries.	Group 1	2.18				
	Group 2	3.12	-0.93	-2.08	0.21	No
	Group 1	2.18				
	Group 3	3.55	-1.36	-2.48	-0.25	Yes
	Group 2	3.12				
	Group 3	3.55	-0.43	-1.54	0.68	No
5. If a child has special need then that is his/her fate.	Group 1	2.43				
	Group 2	3.37	-0.93	-2.18	0.30	No
	Group 1	2.43				
	Group 3	3.72	-1.28	-2.49	-0.07	Yes
	Group 2	3.37				
	Group 3	3.72	-0.34	-1.55	0.86	No
6. Children with special needs can become successful in life.	Group 1	3.87				
	Group 2	3.81	0.06	-1.05	1.18	No
	Group 1	3.87				
	Group 3	2.16	1.70	0.61	2.79	Yes
	Group 2	3.81				
	Group 3	2.16	1.64	0.55	2.73	Yes

Group 1; parents with SN children in RS, Group 2; parents with SN children in SS and Group 3; parents of SN children not enrolled in either SS or RS (Group 3).

- The perceptions between Groups 1 and 2; Groups 2 and 3 were not significantly different with regards to the statement 'parents with special needs children believe they have been bewitched out of envy by their contemporaries'. However, the perceptions between Groups 1 and 3 were significantly different on this issue.

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- Statement 5; 'If a child has special need then that is his/her fate'. No significant difference in perception was reported between Groups 1 and 2; Groups 2 and 3 whereas a significant difference was observed between Groups 1 and 3.

- The perceptions between Groups 1 and 3; Groups 2 and 3 were significantly different with regards to the statement 'children with special needs can become successful in life' whereas the views between Groups 1 and 2 were not significantly different.

From the analyses of group perceptions on the 6 statements with significant difference, 62.4% of parents from Group 1 disagreed with the statement 'inclusion causes more problems in the community', whereas an almost identical number (62.5%) from Group2 and 77.7% from Group 3 agreed. A majority of parents from Group 3 (77.7%) felt there is nothing that can be done to help a child with SN whereas 56.2% from Group 2 and up to 81.2% from Group 1 disagreed. Most parents from Group 1 (68.7%) as opposed to 37.5% (Group 2) and 22.3% (Group 3) tend to disagree with the notion that parents with SN children have been bewitched out of envy by their contemporaries. In contrast to the other 2 groups, a majority of the parents from Group 3 (83.4%) were of the opinion that children with SN are not expected to live a normal life. Most of parents from Group 3 (72.2%) and 62.4% from Group 2 felt if a child has SN, then it is his/her faith. Finally parents from Group 1 and Group 2 (68.7% and 75% respectively) were optimistic that children with SN can become successful in life whereas, only 22.3% of their peers from Group 3 seemed to share this view.

In summary, individual group perceptions on 6 of the 13 statements addressing socio-cultural factors influencing inclusion in the community were found to be significantly different. Further analyses of the 6 statements with a significant difference revealed that, the perceptions of Group 1 were significantly different from those of Group 3 on all 6 statements. Groups 2 and 3 had opposing views on 3 statements while the perceptions between Groups 1 and 2 were not significantly different on 5 statements. An attempt to provide some explanations for the above trends shall be given in chapter 5.

Chapter Five

DISCUSSIONS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0   Introduction

This chapter presents discussions of the results with an attempt to contextualise the findings within a local and global framework. Based on these discussions a number of conclusions have been made. The chapter also highlights some of the limitations of this study. It concludes with recommendations for further research.

5.1   Overview of the research findings

5.1.1   Parents' perception of inclusion in regular schools

From the statistical analyses, there was a significant difference between the 3 groups of parents on ten statements (59%) addressing parents' perceptions of inclusion in RS whereas, no significant difference was observed on 41%. With respect to these ten statements, the perceptions of parents with SN children in RS (Group 1) were antagonistic to those of parents with SN children in SS (Group 2) and parents with SN children not enrolled in either RS or SS (Group 3).

The perceptions of Group 1 were largely in favour of inclusive education. With respect to the educational benefits of inclusion, their perceptions are similar to those reported for parents with SN children in RS in the USA (Reichart, 1989); Myklebust (2007) in Norway; Guralnick (1994) in Washington, USA and Belknap et al. (1997) in South Africa as presented in literature. Based on social acceptance and emotional benefits of inclusion, most of the parents from Group 1 had concerns pertaining to the happiness of their children and acceptance by peers without SN. The parents also felt that their SN children may experience teasing and bullying by peers without SN as well as mild learning difficulties.These concerns were equally shared by some parents from South Africa and USA as documented by Yssel et al. (2007). Despite being apprehensive about their SN children not feeling content and lonely, parents from Group 1 were rather positive on an eventual development of friendship between

their children and peers without SN over time. Similar results were reported by Vaughn et al. (1996) on a study of second, third and fourth grade children in inclusive classrooms in the USA. They reported that children with SN were often socially rejected and generally not liked by their peers without SN. However as the school year progressed social acceptance changed as the children with SN increased their number of reciprocal friendship. Weiner and Tardif (2004) equally offered complementary results regarding children with SN in fourth through eighth grades in Canada.

On the other hand, the perceptions of Group 2 and 3 were strongly against the inclusive movement. Their perceptions mostly emphasized the inability of regular education settings to meet the social, emotional and educational needs of children with SN. These views corroborate those of Salend and Duhaney (1999), who reported only temporal social development rather than long term benefits for SN children in some inclusive settings in the USA. Frederickson and Furnham (2004) equally noted that school children in the UK disproportionately rejected theirs with SN. Similar arguments have been advanced by Yssel et al. (2007) on parents perceptions of inclusion in South Africa and USA. In their study, they reported the recurrence of the theme 'you against them' from the South African parents with SN children (Yssel et al., 2007: 359). Rogers and Thiery (2003) equally reported negative effects of inclusion on the educational achievements of children with SN in the USA.

From the above observations the choices made by the parents from Capricorn District (especially Group 1 and 2) as to where to educate their SN children seem to be informed; at least based on their perceptions. The results from this study suggests that the overwhelming positive attitude displayed by parents from Group 1 towards inclusive education seem to be explained in part by their desire to raise their SN children as 'normally' as possible (i.e. as Swart et al., 2004:89 put it – '*to learn of the world in the world*'). On the other hand, concerns raised by parents from Group 2 and 3 pertaining to happiness of their SN children in RS, acceptance by peers without SN as well as issues related to educational benefits of inclusion seemed to dictate their choices. These results further support the fact that parents remain key players towards defining the fate of their SN children. As pointed out by Swart et al.

(2004), parents' experiences of including their children in mainstream schools continuously help to deepen their insight into their expectations of an inclusive school. In this manner they contribute to further clarifying what inclusive education is and what it is not, informing the nature and development of parent-school partnerships. The resulting understanding is relevant to a system's view of human behaviour, which defines the interaction and interdependence between the child, parent and school community.

According to Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) an individual's positive or negative evaluation of performing a behaviour (considered in the context of this study as adopting inclusive education) is informed by his/her attitude or perception towards that behaviour. Thus a person who believes that performing a given behaviour will lead to mostly positive outcomes will hold a favourable attitude toward performing that behaviour, while a person who believes that performing the behaviour will lead to mostly negative outcomes will hold an unfavourable attitude (Ajzen, 2002). Therefore, within the framework of fostering the concept of inclusive education in South Africa and the Limpopo Province in particular (Department of Education, 2001), these results suggests a dire need to revamp the campaign towards implementing such inclusive movements with emphasis on addressing those statements with significant differences among the three groups of parents.

5.1.2 Parents' perception of general education teacher's attitude towards inclusion

The analysed data revealed a general consensus among the 3 groups of parents on 76% (n=13) of the statements on general education teachers attitudes towards inclusion. Their perceptions were however significantly different on four of the statements (24%).

Teachers indeed are key agents of change; thus what they do or fail to do on a daily basis has a profound impact on the lives of children under their care (i.e. whether children with SN or not). From the results of this study, all three groups of parents tend to agree on most of the statements addressing general education teachers' attitudes towards inclusion. Amongst them are issues related to their lack of training, competence and willingness to accept a philosophy of inclusion. The perceptions of

the parents in this study correlates well with those of parents from countries such as South Africa (Englebrecht et al., 2005; Swart et al., 2004; Yssel et al., 2007), Romania (Gliga & Popa, 2010) and the USA (Yssel et al., 2007).

Despite this general agreement, the perceptions of parents from Group 1 were significantly different from the other 2 groups with respect to general education teacher's level of commitment, his/her reaction to 'stigma' associated with SN as well as issues related to discipline in regular classrooms and knowledge about the condition of children with SN. Although Group 1 had some concerns about level of commitment displayed by general education teachers, they indicated that the teachers successfully manage issues related to discipline and are not ignorant about the challenges faced by their children. This observation is in sharp contrast to those reported by Englebrecht et al. (2003) and Eloff and Kgwete (2007) on studies conducted in South Africa. According to Englebrecht et al. (2003), inclusion of children with SN provided evidence of increased stress levels for general education teachers while Eloff and Kgwete (2007) noted that general education teachers felt threatened by new demands and experienced a sense of powerlessness and lack of control over their situation. The perceptions of parents from Group 1 were equally in contrast to those of their peers from USA as indicated by Yssel et al. (2007). They reported the comments of some parents from the USA focus groups as follows;

> '*The teacher I am with right now, she asks me a lot of questions because they just aren't as prepared. They don't know what to expect, and a lot of them are scared*' – a parent recounted the experiences of her deaf child (Yssel et al., 2007:361).

> '*Most teachers don't know what it's like to have a special needs child in their classroom until the first day of school when the kid shows up*, (U.S. F2) (Yssel et al., 2007:361).

> *I think that's the only problem I've had, is some of the teachers haven't fully read those IEPs, and so we've had a few conflicts; they don't understand, they don't know what they're dealing with* (U.S. F3) (Yssel et al., 2007:361)

However not all parents in the research conducted by Yssel et al. (2007) had perceptions that were antagonistic to those of Group 1 parents. Although comparatively fewer, they were full of praises for the general education teacher. One such parent from South Africa indicated that;

> '*The first day of school, the Grade 1 teacher said to me I mustn't worry, because she's got all the stuff on the Internet, and her husband bought her some books on inclusive education, so she was very well prepared*' (South Africa F2) (Yssel et al., 2007:361).

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At this juncture, in spite of these fairly positive teacher attitudes as suggested by parents from Group 1, it is worth noting that inclusive schools will not be achieved by transplanting special education thinking and practise in mainstream contexts. What is of essence in an inclusive pedagogy is the way teachers conceptualise the notion of difference (Ainscow and Miles, 2008). From this study, a justification for the negative perceptions especially from Group 2 and 3 parents on general education teacher's attitude on inclusion seem to stem from the inability of these teachers to manage and deal with the needs of both children with and without SN in inclusive classrooms as perceived by the parents. This researcher is of the opinion that the large class size (though not covered in-depth in this study), may have contributed towards some of the challenges faced by these teachers. On the basis of this premise, a lot still has to be done to empower general education teachers within the study area for inclusive education.

5.1.3 Parents' perception of socio-cultural considerations towards inclusion in the community

The perceptions of the 3 groups of parents on 6 of the statements addressing sociocultural factors influencing inclusion in the community were found to be significantly different. The parents' perceptions with respect to these 6 statements are presented below.

As pointed out in the results chapter, the perceptions of parents from Group 3 were significantly different from those of Groups 1 and 2 on all 6 statements. An

evaluation of their perceptions suggests a parent filled with a sense of helplessness and incapacity to challenge or change his/her circumstance or that of the SN child. Similarly, to a majority of these parents, the notion of inclusion remains a 'white elephant'. The decision not to expose their SN children to any form of formal education in part serves as a justification for their overwhelming negative perceptions about 'disability', expectations of the SN child and the systems put in place (i.e. SS or RS) to meet the needs of these children. Despite the fact that most of the parents (83.3%) had no formal education, this researcher believes the sociocultural orientations of these parents (i.e. Group 3) *vis – a – vis* 'disability' within their respective communities seemed to have had a greater influence on their perceptions on inclusion. Amongst these sociocultural factors were issues related to witchcraft, violation of traditional norms by parents, lack of unconditional acceptance of children with SN by the community as well as qualification of SN children as hopeless and helpless.

As elaborated in chapter 2, certain negative cultural practises towards 'disability' have been documented across the globe. Gaad (2004) noted with dismay, the extermination of children with SN in a cruel and inhumane way across ancient Egypt and Greece, as well as the selling of children with intellectual needs to amuse the privileged class throughout the Roman Empire. According to Hourcarde et al. (1997), different cultures attach very different meanings to the presence of disabling conditions which in turn affects the emotional and intellectual responses of parents. This is equally true for the communities within Capricorn District, Limpopo Province, (predominantly *Sepedi* speaking). Abosi and Ozoji (1994) reported that Nigerians in particular and Africans in general associate 'disability' with witchcraft and juju. This observation is consistent with the perceptions of parents from Group 3. Abosi and Ozoji (1994) argued further that, avoiding whatever is associated with evil historically affected people's attitudes towards those the victims (in this case the child with SN or the parent). Against this backdrop, the sociocultural paradigm as envisaged by parents from Group 3 tends to influence not only their expectations but those of others (children without SN, teachers and the community at large) about children with SN.

The above observations are in sharp contrast to Lev Vygotskys' social constructionist view on 'disability' (Vygotsky, 1993; Stetsenko, 2005; Rodina, 2006; Yankun, 2006). According to Vygotsky, social constructionism is characterised by a realistic epistemology. His theories on *Dysontogenesis* (TD) and *Cultural Historical Activity* (CHAT) addressed the characteristics and peculiarities of infant psychological development, the ZPD, the sociocultural origin of origin of 'disability' and application of a dynamic approach to 'disability' and inclusion. Central to these theories is the concept of mediation, geared towards creating methods by which schools and members of the community construct learning environments, tasks, identities and contexts suitable for a more inclusive society (Thorne, 2006). The personality of children with special needs is not determined by their 'disability', but rather by their social environment and its dialectical interaction with the child. Thus, the social aspect is crucial in the upbringing of children with special needs. In the collective, the child 'finds the material to build the inner functions which are realized during the process of compensatory [collective] development' (Vygotsky 1993:127).

In summary, Vygotsky acknowledged that the personality of children with SN is not determined by their 'disability', but rather by their social environment and its dialectical interaction with the child. Thus, the social aspect is crucial in the upbringing of children with special needs. In the collective, the child *'finds the material to build the inner functions which are realized during the process of compensatory [collective] development'* (Vygotsky, 1993:127).

5.2   Conclusions

The aim of this study was to compare the perceptions of 3 groups of parents on inclusion with regards to; inclusion in regular schools, general education teachers' attitudes towards inclusion and influence of sociocultural factors on inclusion in the community. A causal comparative and quantitative design as well as administration of structured questionnaire was adopted for this study. From the data analyses and interpretations, it was observed that despite certain concerns the perceptions of parents' with SN children in RS (Group 1) were largely in favour of inclusion as opposed to parents with SN children in SS (Group 2) and parents with SN children not enrolled in either RS or SS (Group 3). There was a general consensus by all 3

groups of parents on the negative effects of general education teacher's attitudes on inclusion.

The impact of sociocultural considerations on parent's perception of inclusion was more pronounced amongst parents from Group 3. A justification for most if not all of their perceptions seemed to be rooted in their everyday experiences of culturally related challenges within their communities. The absence of unconditional acceptance from members of the communities, issues related to witchcraft, the categorisation of SN children as helpless and hopeless, with no potentials of becoming successful in life were among some of the factors identified by the researcher as being detrimental to the acceptance of the inclusive movement by Group 3 parents. In conclusion, the decisions made by all 3 groups of parents in relation to why and where to educate their SN children are in accordance with their perceptions on inclusions.   .

5.3   Limitations of the study

Some of the limitations in relation to this study are;

- This study was limited to parents' perceptions of inclusion with regards to; inclusion in regular schools, general education teachers' attitudes towards inclusion and influence of sociocultural factors on inclusion in the community. Other determining factors such as type and severity of child's need, financial viability of the parent and availability or proximity to inclusive education settings as well as class size were not incorporated in this study.

- Given that this study was conducted in Capricorn District, Limpopo Province, findings with respect to parental perceptions may only be generalised for the Province.

5.4   Recommendations

From the results of this study the following recommendations have been put forward;

- Given that sociocultural considerations stood out as a major threat to the inclusive movement, an in-depth study on the influence of culture on inclusion for the entire Limpopo Province and subsequently other provinces in South Africa is recommended.

- Sensitization campaigns on the educational and emotional benefits of inclusion targeting especially parents whose SN children are not enrolled in any formal educational system should be carried out by the Department of Education at both national and provincial levels.

- The Department of Education should ensure that inclusive classrooms contain reasonable numbers of students/pupils such that teachers can easily interact with all of them.

- The Department should ensure that there is enough funds to cater for SN children in regular schools.

- Despite some of the positive responses by parents with SN children in RS on general education teachers attitudes, there is need for capacity building (in the form of in-service training) of these teachers.

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Appendix A: Letter seeking consent from the Department of Education, Limpopo Province.

UNIVERSITY OF LIMPOPO
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FACULTY OF HUMANITIES
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TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

This is to certify that **Ms SIEWE CN**. Student Number **201008168** is a M.Ed student at the Department of Educational Studies, School of Education in the University of Limpopo. Kindly help her with access to schools where she wants to conduct a research on:Parents perception of inclusion, Capricorn district, Limpopo Province, SA.

Please do not hesitate to come back to me in case of any uncertainties.

28/9/11

Prof M.J. Themane   Date
HOD: Educational Studies

Appendix B: Letter of approval; Department of Education, Limpopo Province

LIMPOPO
PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT
REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA

DEPARTMENT OF
EDUCATION

Enquires: Mnisi V   Telephone: 015 290 7680   Fax: 015 290 9416   Date: 04 October 2011

Ms Siewe CN

University of Limpopo

Private Bag X 1106

SOVENGA

South Arica

Dear Madam   Tel NO: 015 268 3149

                                                 Fax: 015 268 2965

                                                 Email: dollyr@ul.ac.za

Regarding: Request to conduct research on Parents perception of inclusion, Capricorn district, Limpopo Province, SA
_____

1. The above matter refers:

2. The Limpopo Department of education acknowledges receipt of your letter.

3. We therefore grant you a permission to conduct research on Parents Perception of inclusion Capricorn district, Limpopo Province, SA.

4. After the completion of the study, we will appreciate a copy of your research which will serve as a resource for the Department.

Regards,

------------------------------   2011/10/54
MJ Thamaga   Date
Head of Department

                                                                                              1

Cnr. 113 Biccard & 24 Excelsior Street, POLOKWANE, 0700, Private Bag X9489, POLOKWANE, 0700
Tel: 015 290 7600, Fax: 015 297 6920/4220/4494

The heartland of southern Africa - development is about people!

Appendix C: Questionnaire (English version)

Questionnaire

Dear parent,

I am **Siewe Cynthia**, a Masters student in the Department of Educational Studies, University of Limpopo, South Africa. I am carrying out a comparative study on parents' perception of inclusion in South West Region, Cameroon and Limpopo Province, South Africa. I would like to know your opinion on the inclusion of your child in a regular school and their integration in the community. Your participation in this study is voluntary and your responses will be confidential and used for academic purposes only.

Thank you for your assistance.

Siewe C.N.

Part 1: Parents' Demographic Information

Parents code name _____

Gender _____

Formal education: Yes [ ]   No [ ]   (Indicate by using an '**X**')

If Yes, what is your highest qualification?_____

Childs Age _____

Type of special need _____

Part 2: Statements Evaluating Parents' Perception

This part is divided into three sections (A, B & C). Please indicate your level of AGREEMENT or DISAGREEMENT with the following statements on a scale of 1 to 5; where 1= Strongly disagree, 2= Disagree, 3= Not sure, 4= Agree and 5= Strongly agree. Cross (**X**) one number that best represents your opinion.

SECTION A: Parents' Perception of Inclusion in Regular Schools.

Statement	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Not sure	Agree	Strongly agree
1) Inclusion is the best way to meet the needs of all students.	1	2	3	4	5
2) Inclusion causes more problems in regular schools.	1	2	3	4	5
3) Regular schools support full integration of special needs children in classrooms.	1	2	3	4	5
4) The more time special needs children spend in a regular classroom, the more likely that the quality of their education will drop.	1	2	3	4	5
5) Leadership of the principal is necessary for inclusion to work.	1	2	3	4	5
6) When students with severe disabilities are enrolled in regular education classrooms, the negative benefits to the regular education students outweigh the positive benefits.	1	2	3	4	5
7) The more time special needs children spend in a regular classroom, the more likely that they would end up feeling content	1	2	3	4	5
8) If special needs children were to spend a lot of time in regular classrooms, they would end up not getting the extra help they need.	1	2	3	4	5
9) It is possible to modify most lessons in a regular classroom to meet the demands of special needs children.	1	2	3	4	5
10) The more time special needs children spend in a regular classroom, the more likely that they will be ill-treated by children without special need.	1	2	3	4	5
11) The more time special needs children spend in					

a regular classroom, the more likely that the quality of their education will improve.	1	2	3	4	5
12) The more time special needs children spend in a regular classroom, the more likely that they would end up feeling lonely.	1	2	3	4	5
13) When students with severe disabilities are enrolled in regular education classrooms, the positive benefits to the regular education students outweigh any possible problems that this practice may present.	1	2	3	4	5
14) If special needs children were to spend much of the day in a regular classroom, they would end up not getting all the necessary special services that would be provided in special education classrooms.	1	2	3	4	5
15) The quality of regular education students' education is enriched when students with special needs participate in their classes.	1	2	3	4	5
16) Regular education classrooms provide lesser opportunities for special needs children to learn compared to special education classrooms.	1	2	3	4	5
17) If special needs children were to spend much time in a regular classroom, they would end up becoming friends with children without special needs.	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION B: Parents' Perception of General Education Teachers Attitude towards Inclusion.

Statement	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Not sure	Agree	Strongly agree
18) Inclusion causes more problems to teachers in regular schools.	1	2	3	4	5
19) General education teachers are willing to accept a philosophy of full inclusion.	1	2	3	4	5
20) General education teachers do not put in enough time to meet the needs of all students.	1	2	3	4	5
21) General education teachers are concerned about teaching children with a wide range of needs in one class.	1	2	3	4	5
22) General education teachers believe having special needs children in regular schools would negatively influence class standards.	1	2	3	4	5
23) General education teachers have been trained to work with increasingly diverse student needs.	1	2	3	4	5
24) General education teachers believe all students would not be adequately taught.	1	2	3	4	5
25) General education teachers are willing to teach children with special needs.	1	2	3	4	5
26) General education teachers believe it would be difficult to maintain discipline in class.	1	2	3	4	5
27) Most general education teachers have the skill to teach special needs children.	1	2	3	4	5
28) General education teachers would not be able to individualize instructions.	1	2	3	4	5
29) General education teachers expect excellent	1	2	3	4	5

Statement					
performances from a child with special need.					
30) Inadequate support are not to blame for general education teachers negative attitude towards inclusion.	1	2	3	4	5
31) General education teachers are not influenced by the 'stigma' associated with special needs.	1	2	3	4	5
32) General education teachers are ignorant about the challenges facing children with special needs.	1	2	3	4	5
33) Adequate support system positively influences effective teaching of children with special needs.	1	2	3	4	5
34) Evaluating the work of diverse students would be challenging.	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION C: Parents' Perception of Socio-Cultural Considerations towards Inclusion in the Community.

Statement	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Not sure	Agree	Strongly agree
35) Inclusion causes more problems in the community.	1	2	3	4	5
36) Certain cultures consider a special needs child as having sacred powers.	1	2	3	4	5
37) There is nothing that can be done to a special needs child.	1	2	3	4	5
38) Special needs children are expected to live a normal life.	1	2	3	4	5
39) Parents with special needs children believe they have been bewitched out of envy by their contemporaries.	1	2	3	4	5
40) If a child has special needs then that is					

his/her fate.	1	2	3	4	5
41) Children with special needs can become successful in life	1	2	3	4	5
42) Parents of children with special needs are believed to have violated certain traditional norms.	1	2	3	4	5
43) Association with a special need child is seen as partaking in the wrath of the gods.	1	2	3	4	5
44) African cultures still considers the special needs child as hopeless.	1	2	3	4	5
45) Children with special needs are considered as a blessing within traditional African societies.	1	2	3	4	5
46) African cultures still considers the special needs child as helpless.	1	2	3	4	5
47) Unconditional acceptance by communities contributes towards overall development of the child with special needs.	1	2	3	4	5

MOTSWADI YO A RATEGAGO

Kenna **Siewe Cynthia**, moithuti Yunibesithing ya Limpopo ka Afrika Borwa. Ke ithutela mangwalo a godimo a lefapha la tša thuto (boMastara).Ke šomana le thuto ya kaparetšo malebana le maikutlo a batswadi ka ga kakaretšo, dinageng tša regini ya Borwa Bodikela (Cameroon) le Profense ya Limpopo ka Afrika Borwa. Ke rata go tseba maikutlo a lena mabapi le bana ba lena bao ba lego dikolong tša go tlwealega le togagano ya bona gareng ga setšhaba.Botšeakarolo bja lena ke boithaopo gape le diphetolo tša lena di tla se phatlalatšwe goba gona go botšwa ba bangwe.Di tla ba sephiri gomme tša šomišwa mabakeng a thuto fela.

Ke leboga thušo ya lena

Siewe C.N

Karolo ya Pele: Tshedimošo ya Motswadi

Leina la molao la motswadi ………………………

Bong ……………………

Thuto ya semmušo: Ee ☐ Aowa ☐ (laetša ka go šomiša leswao '**X**')

Ge ore Ee, naa   mangwalo a gago a godimo ke

afe?.............................

Mengwaga ya ngwana……………………………

Mohuta wa tlhotlo ye e kgethegilego………………………………

Karolo ya Bobedi: Setatamente sa go Lekanyetša Temogo ya Motswadi

Karolo ye e arogantšwe ka dikgaolo tše tharo (A,B le C).Ka kgopelo bontšha tekanyetšo ya tumelo goba kganetšo ka ditatamente tše di latelago tšeo di lego godimo ga sekala sa 1 go fihla go 5,moo elego gore **1** e ra gore **Go ganetša ka maatla**,**2** e ra gore **Go ganetša**,**3** e ra gore **Go se be le bonnete**,**4** e ra gore **Go dumela** gomme **5** e ra gore **Go dumela ka maatla**.Thala sefapano nomorong ya go emela maikutlo/temogo a gago ga tee.

KGAOLO YA A: Maikutlo a Batswadi Dikolong tša go tlwaelega mabapi le Kakaretšo

setatamente	Go ganetša ka maatla	Go ganetša	Go se be le bonnete	Go dumela	Go dumela ka maatla
1) Kakaretšo ke mokgwa wo mebotse wa go fihlelela dinyakwa tša barutwana.	1	2	3	4	5
2) Kakaretšo e hlola mathata a mantši dikolong tša go tlwaelega.	1	2	3	4	5
3) Dikolo tša go tlwaelega di thekga togagano ka botlalo ya barutwana ba go ba le ditlhotlo tše di kgethegilego ka phaphošing.	1	2	3	4	5
4) Ge bana ba go ba le ditlhotlo tše di kgethegilego ba tšea nako ye ntši ba le ka phaphošing ya tlwaelego,go na le kgonagala ye kgolo ya gore dithuto tša bona di be maemong a fase.	1	2	3	4	5
5) Boetapele bja hlogo ya sekolo boa hlokagala mabapi le kakaretšo ya mošomo	1	2	3	4	5
6) Ge bana ba go ba le ditlhotlo tše di kgethegilego ba ngwadišwa dikolong tša tlwaelo,ditlamorago tše mpe go thuto ya bana ba go hloka ditlhotlo difeta tše botse.	1	2	3	4	5
7) Ge bana ba go ba le ditlhotlo tše di kgethegilego ba tšea nako ye ntši ba le ka phaphošing ya ba go hloka ditlhotlo,ke moo ba ikhwetšago ba amogelega.	1	2	3	4	5
8) Ge eba bana ba go ba le ditlhotlo tše di kgethegilego ba ka tšea nako ye ntši ba le diphaphošing tša dikolong tša tlwaelo,ba ka feleletša ba sa hwetše thušo yeo ba e hlokago.	1	2	3	4	5

9) Go a kgonagala go kaonafatša bontši bja dithutwana ka phaphošing go fihlelela dinyakwa tša bana ba go ba le ditlhotlo tše di kgethegilego.	1	2	3	4	5
10) Ge bana ba go ba le ditlhotlo tše di kgethegilego ba tšea nako ye ntši ba le ka phaphošing ya tlwaelo,go na le kgonagala ya gore bana ba go hloka ditlhotlo ba ba tlaiše.	1	2	3	4	5
11) Ge bana ba go ba le ditlhotlo tše di kgethegilego ba tšea nako ye ntši ba le ka phaphošing ya tlwaelo,go na le kgonagala ya gore dithuto tša bona di tšee maemo a godimo.	1	2	3	4	5
12) Ge bana ba go ba le ditlhotlo tše di kgethegilego ba tšea bontši bja nako ba le ka phaphošing ya tlwaelo,go ka diragala gantši gore ba ikhwetše ba le bodutwana.	1	2	3	4	5
13) Ge barutwana ba go ba le ditlhotlo tše di kgethegilego tša go tsenelelo ba ngwadišwa dikolong tša tlwaelo,meputso ye mebotse go bana ba go hloka ditlhotlo di feta mathata a mangwe le a mangwe ao a ka tšwelelago ge se se diragala.	1	2	3	4	5
14) Ge bana ba go ba le ditlhotlo tše di kgethegolego ba fetša nako ye ntši ba le ka phaphošing ya tlwealo,ba ka feleletša ba ba sa hwetše ditshwanelo ka moka tšeo di abjago dikolong tše di kgethegilego.	1	2	3	4	5
15) Maemo a thuto go barutwana ba go hloka ditlhotlo a a nontšhwa ge barutwana ba go ba le ditlhotlo tše di kgethegilego ba tšea karolo ka diphaphošing tša bona.	1	2	3	4	5

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16) Dikolo tša tlwaelo di tšweletša menyetla ya fase ya thuto go bana ba go ba le ditlhotlo tše di kgethegilego ge di bapetšwa le tša go ikgetha.	1	2	3	4	5
17) Ge bana ba go ba le ditlhotlo tše di kgethegilego ba fetša bontši bja nako ba le ka phaphošing ya tlwaelo,ba ka feleletša ba gwerana le ba go hloka ditlhotlo.	1	2	3	4	5

KGAOLO YA B: Maikutlo a Batswadi mabapi Maitshwaro a Barutiši/gadi ka ga kakaretšo.

Setatamente	Go ganetša ka maatla	Go ganetša	Go se be le bonnete	Go dumela	Go dumela ka maatla
18) Kakaretšo e hlola mathata a mantši go barutiši/gadi dikolong tša tlwealego.	1	2	3	4	5
19) Barutiši/gadi ba dikolo tša tlwaelo ba ikemišeditše go amogela filosofi ya kakaretšo.	1	2	3	4	5
20) Barutiši/gadi ba dikolo tša tlwaelo ga ba tšee maitapišo ao a lekanego go fihlelela dinyakwa tša barutwana ka moka.	1	2	3	4	5
21) Barutiši/gadi ba dikolo tša tlwaelo ba tshwenyegile ka go ruta bana ba go ba le ditlhotlo tše di kgethegilego tša go fapapafapana.	1	2	3	4	5
22) Barutiši/gadi ba dikolo tša tlwaelo ba dumela gore go ba le bana ba ditlhotlo tše di kgethegilego ka phaphošing go ka dira gore maemo a thuto a se be a mebotse.	1	2	3	4	5
23) Barutiši/gadi ba hlahlilwe go šoma le barutwana ba go fapanafapana go ya ka dinyakwa tša bona.	1	2	3	4	5

24) Barutiši/gadi ba dumela gore barutwana ka moka ba ka se hwetše thuto ya maleba.	1	2	3	4	5
25) Barutiši/gadi ba ikemišeditše go ruta bana ba go ba le ditlhotlo tše di kgethegilego.	1	2	3	4	5
26) Barutiši/gadi ba dumela gore go ka ba bothata go laola phaphoši.	1	2	3	4	5
27) Barutiši/gadi ba bantši ba na le mabokgoni a go ruta bana ba go ba le ditlhotlo tše di kgethegilego.	1	2	3	4	5
28) Barutiši/gadi ba ka se kgone go kgethologanya ditaelo.	1	2	3	4	5
29) Barutiši/gadi ba nyaka tšwelelo ya maemo a godimo go bana ba go ba le ditlhotlo tše di kgethegilego dithutong tša bona.	1	2	3	4	5
30) Go hloka thekgo ga wa swanelwa go solwa go barutiši/gadi ka ga tshwaro mpe ya bona mabapi le kakaretšo.	1	2	3	4	5
31) Barutiši/gadi ga ba huetšwe ke taba yeo e tswalantšhwago le dinyakwa tše di itšego.	1	2	3	4	5
32) Barutiši/gadi ga ba ele hloko mathata ao a lebaganego le bana ba go ba le ditlhotlo tše di kgethegilego.	1	2	3	4	5
33) Thekgo ya maleba e huetša moya wo mobotse wa thuto go bana ba go ba le ditlhotlo tše di kgethegilego.	1	2	3	4	5
34) Go ela mošomo wa barutwana ba go fapanafapana go ya ka dinyakwa tša bona, go ka ba boimanyana.	1	2	3	4	5

KGAOLO YA C: Maikutlo a Batswadi mabapi le Maitshwaro a Setšhaba go Bana ba bona.

Setatamente	Go ganetša ka maatla	Go ganetša	Go se be le bonnete	Go dumela	Go dumela ka maatla
35) Kakaretšo a hlola mathata a mantši setšhabeng.	1	2	3	4	5
36) Ditšo tše dingwe di dumela gore bana ba go ba le ditlhotlo tše di kgethegilego ba na le maatla a magolo go tšwa go Modimo.	1	2	3	4	5
37) Ga go se se ka dirwago go ngwana wa go ba le ditlhotlo tše di kgethegilego.	1	2	3	4	5
38) Bana ba go ba le ditlhotlo tše di kgethegilego ba swanetše go phela bophelo bja go swana le bja mang le mang bja tlwaelo.	1	2	3	4	5
39) Batswadi ba bana ba go ba le ditlhotlo tše di kgethegilego ba dumela gore ba loilwe ke bao ba ba hloilego.	1	2	3	4	5
40) Ge e ba ngwana o na le ditlhotlo tše di kgethegilego,seo se ra gore ke ka mokgwa woo Modimo a ratilego ka gona.	1	2	3	4	5
41) Bana ba go ba le ditlhotlo tše di kgethegilego ba ka tšwelela ka katlego maphelong a bona.	1	2	3	4	5
42) Batswadi ba bana ba go ba le ditlhotlo tše di kgethegilego ba dumela gore ba tshetše ye mengwe ya melao ya setšo.	1	2	3	4	5
43) Go ikamanya le ngwana wa go ba le ditlhotlo tše dikgethegilego go ka dira gore o lebelelege bjalo ka motho wa go nyaka go befediša badimo.	1	2	3	4	5

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44) Ditšo tša se Afrika di sa tšea ngwana wa go ba le ditlhotlo tše di kgethegilego bjalo ka motho wa go hloka kholofelo.	1	2	3	4	5
45) Bana ba go ba le ditlhotlo tše di kgethegilego ba tšewa bjalo ka hlonolofatšo ka gare ga ditšo tša se Afrika.	1	2	3	4	5
46) Ditšo tša se Afrika di sa tšea bana ba go ba le ditlhotlo tše di kgethegilego bjalo batho ba go hloka mohola.	1	2	3	4	5
47) Kamogelo ya go se kgethe go tšwa setšhabeng,e tšea karolo ye bohlokwa tšwelelong ya bana ba go ba le ditlhotlo tše di kgethegilego.	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix E: Determination of test re-test reliability of questionnaire

| Statement | Responses of parent A | |
	Test 1	Test 2
1	3	3
2	2	2
3	3	3
4	4	4
5	3	5
6	4	4
7	4	3
8	4	3
9	3	3
10	4	3
11	3	3
12	4	4
13	4	4
14	4	3
15	3	3
16	3	3
17	3	3
18	4	4
19	4	4
20	2	2
21	2	2
22	1	2
23	3	4
24	3	3
25	5	5
26	5	5
27	2	2
28	4	2
29	3	4
30	3	3
31	2	2
32	4	4
33	3	3
34	2	2
35	2	2
36	4	4
37	4	4
38	4	3
39	2	2

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40	4	4
41	2	2
42	4	4
43	2	2
44	4	4
45	3	3
46	3	3
47	3	2

Reliability coefficient for parent A

		Test1	Test2
Test1	Pearson Correlation	1	.778**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	47	47
Test2	Pearson Correlation	.778**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	47	47

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed); the test re-test reliability Coefficient is 0.78

	Responses of parent B	
Statement	Test 1	Test 2
1	5	5
2	4	4
3	1	2
4	1	2
5	4	3
6	5	4
7	3	3
8	5	5
9	1	1
10	4	4
11	3	3
12	2	2
13	3	3
14	1	1
15	3	3
16	4	4
17	4	4
18	4	4
19	3	2

20	4	4
21	3	3
22	3	3
23	1	2
24	2	2
25	3	3
26	3	1
27	1	3
28	3	5
29	5	5
30	5	5
31	2	2
32	5	5
33	3	3
34	5	5
35	5	5
36	4	3
37	2	2
38	4	4
39	4	4
40	2	2
41	4	4
42	3	3
43	1	1
44	2	2
45	2	2
46	5	5
47	4	4

Reliability coefficient for parent B

		Test1	Test2
Test1	Pearson Correlation	1	.878**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	47	47
Test2	Pearson Correlation	.878**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	47	47

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2 tailed).

The test re-test reliability Coefficient is 0.88