UNIVERSITY OF CAPE TOWN

Faculty of Health Sciences

Teachers' Perspectives on Inclusion of Disabled Learners in Botswana

Justus Mackenzie Nthitu

Student Number: Nthjus001

A Mini Dissertation Submitted to the Faculty of Health Sciences, University of Cape Town, in Partial Fulfilment of the Requirement of the Degree, Master of Philosophy, Disability Studies

February 2011

Supervisor

A/Professor Harsha Kathard

Co-Supervisor

Amshuda Sayed

Teachers' Perspectives on Inclusion of Disabled Learners in Botswana

Justus Mackenzie Nthitu

Student Number: Nthjus001

A Mini Dissertation Submitted to the Faculty of Health Sciences, University of Cape Town, in Partial Fulfilment of the Requirement of the Degree, Master of Philosophy, Disability Studies

February 2011

Supervisor

A/Professor Harsha Kathard

Co-Supervisor

Amshuda Sayed

This mini-thesis was language edited and prepared for print by:

Simply Said and Done

54 Kloofnek Rd

Tamboerskloof

Cape Town 8001

Tel: +27-(0)21-424 3789

Email: mikki@simplysaidanddone.co.za

The text was edited using the following references:

South African Concise Oxford Dictionary (2002)

Shorter Oxford English Dictionary (2002) (fifth edition) on CD-Rom 2.0

Oxford Guide to Style (2002)

The Oxford Dictionary for Writers & Editors (2000) (second edition) and

Harvard (author-date) Referencing Guide (2007)

Academic Learning Support, Division of Teaching & Learning Services,

Central Queensland University, Rockhampton, Queensland, Australia.

Declaration

I Justus Mackenzie Nthitu declare that *Teachers' Perspectives on Inclusion of Disabled Learners in Botswana* is my own work. Every quotation from the work(s) of other people used in this dissertation is cited and accordingly referenced.

This dissertation has never been submitted to any university before with the intention of receiving a degree.

J.M. Nthitu Signed by candidate Date: 14 February 2011

Acknowledgements

God Almighty the Father of All, allow me to express my sincere gratitude to all the people that stood by me in this long journey towards wisdom. I am indebted to recognise my supervisor A/Professor Harsha Kathard, and my co-supervisor Amshuda Sayed whose constructive criticisms, guidance and support I could not have done without.

I am most grateful to my family: my wife Mary, my greatest supporter and critic, thank you for taking care of my family while I was away studying. My son Mbaki who had to without a romp while his daddy was away, thank you for your understanding. To my mother Rhoda, my brother Alex, my father-in-law Peter and my mother-in-law Harriet, your kind words kept me going.

I would like to salute my boss Billy Masebola for his support. Thank you for bending the rules to allow me to use my leave days during study blocks. I would like to thank all the therapists and rehabilitation personnel at the Cheshire Foundation of Botswana who shared my duties while I was away. All staff of the Foundation, I thank you for the different roles you played in supporting me throughout my studies.

I would like to recognise all the participants in this study for sacrificing their time to give me fruitful interviews, without you this study would not have been possible.

I am indebted to recognise my lecturers, Theresa Lorenzo, Mikki van Zyl and all the others who mentored me in Disability Studies. I am grateful to my fellow students in Disability Studies and the Occupational Therapy Masters students, thank you all, you provided me with an opportunity to grow socially and academically. To Martha Geiger, a family friend and former colleague, I duly appreciate your encouraging words and support throughout my study at the University of Cape Town.

To all the others whose names are not listed in this section, thank you for being there for me.

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

Abstract

This study investigated teachers' perspectives on inclusion of disabled learners in Botswana. The study sought specifically to understand teachers' perspectives through: (1) their conceptualisation of disability and inclusion; (2) their views on educational placement for disabled learners; and (3) their views on the types of support necessary to facilitate inclusion of disabled learners. Participants were drawn from two mainstream primary schools with special education units. Both schools were from the southern region of Botswana. Using stratified sampling technique, eight teachers, four from each school were selected to participate in the study. The aim of using this strategy was to arrive at a final sample of four special education teachers and four ordinary teachers in order to ensure diversity of opinions. In-depth semi-structured interviews are used to collect information from the teachers. The data collected is analysed according to the themes and sub-themes that emerged. The findings indicate that teachers conceptualised disability as embedded in the learner and disabled learners as a homogeneous group. Teachers were also found to lack clear understanding of inclusive education/inclusion. Neither inclusive education nor special education units were thought of as the most suitable educational placement for disabled learners. The teachers viewed the most useful support as government contribution, donations and cooperation from parents. The study recommends teacher training and development on disability and inclusive education. An evaluation of the current special education units is also recommended.

Key words

Disability; Disabled learner; Educational placement; Inclusion/Inclusive education; Perspectives; Support; Teachers

Definition of terms

Disability	Disadvantages or restrictions of activity to people with impairments caused by contemporary social organisation (Oliver 1996).
Disabled learner	Any learner with an impairment who is attending school (operational definition).
Inclusion	An effort to support disabled learners to attend school alongside their peers while receiving the necessary support they need to succeed (Florida State University Centre for Prevention and Early Intervention Policy, 2002).
Inclusive education	A practice whereby a school attempts to respond to all pupils by reconsidering its curricular organisation and provision and allocating resources to enhance equity (Sebba & Ainscow, 1996).
Mainstreaming	Placement of disabled learners in regular classes on a full-time or part-time basis with typically developing peers (Bunch et al., 2005).
Mainstream school	Any ordinary public school where formal education is being practised.
Ordinary teacher	A trained teacher who does not have qualifications in special education.
Perception	A particular understanding of something (Hawker, 2006).
Perspective	A position or a way of regarding situations or topics (Hawker, 2006).
Special education teacher	A trained teacher who also has qualifications in special education.
Special education unit(s)	Classroom(s) within a mainstream school designated for disabled learners (Angelides & Michailidou, 2007).

List of Acronyms

ADHD	Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder
AIDS	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
CRC	Central Resource Centre
HIV	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
ICIDH	International Classification of Impairments, Disability and Handicap
IEP	Individualised Education Programme
MLD	Mild Learning Disability
MoESD	Ministry of Education and Skills Development
NGO	Non-governmental Organisation
NPE	National Policy on Education
RNPE	Revised National Policy on Education
UNESCO	United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation
USAID	United States Agency for International Development

Chapter One

Introduction to the Study

This chapter provides a general introduction to the study under the following headings: (1) focus of the study; (2) statement of the problem; (3) purpose of the study; (4) aim and objectives of the study; (5) rationale behind the study; and (6) situational analysis. The chapter also includes a summary of the research methodology.

Introduction

Education and development are inseparable as the needs of the communities are identified through education and satisfied by development (Kisanji, 1999).There has been a global shift during the late 20th century in the education agenda towards more equitable and quality provision for learners identified as disabled. This has meant that countries from across the world are making adjustments to align with the anticipated changes in policy on the education of previously marginalised learners. Schools are very important places at which these changes in the education of disabled learners are happening, and teachers are the most important agents in this process.

Background statement

Since moving to Botswana from Kenya in 1998, the researcher has been working as a resident occupational therapist with the Cheshire Foundation of Botswana, a rehabilitation centre offering services to disabled children and adults with different impairments. Working as a resident therapist means that the researcher interacts mostly with children aged between 5 and 15 years old. The main rehabilitation goal has been to equip these children with adaptive skills required for transition into schools.

While working as a member of a multi-disciplinary team facilitating education placement for those children discharged from the centre, the researcher became aware of the nature of barriers to the inclusion of disabled learners into the mainstream educational system. The challenge in facilitating this transition into schools was to a large extent due to the views of teachers which presumed disabled learners were uneducable. These negative attitudes made it difficult for children from our centre to secure admission into primary schools within their localities, with the majority of them ending up staying at home despite having the skills and abilities to cope in a school situation. The children who came from villages with primary schools that have special education units usually got placed in such units irrespective of whether they could be educated in mainstream classes.

Faced with this predicament, the Cheshire Foundation of Botswana started to pilot the concept of inclusive education in one small village within its catchment area around the year 2004. The researcher then had a chance to interact with teachers as a facilitator, thus gaining some insight into the thinking of teachers and the greater school communities on the education of disabled learners. Since that time, the researcher has always had an interest in furthering his understanding of inclusive education and disabled learners from the perspectives of teachers.

1.1 Focus of the study

This study sought to gain more in-depth knowledge on disability and inclusion from the perspectives of teachers drawn from two primary schools with special education units, situated in the southern region of Botswana. Specifically, teachers' conceptualisations of disability and inclusion, views on educational placement of disabled learners and on support necessary to facilitate inclusion were examined. The study sought to understand and describe teachers' perspectives based on a whole-school approach to inclusion (how disabled learners were included at school level) rather than specifically on classroom activities (how disabled learners were included at classroom level). This is premised on the contention that inclusion is not simply a matter of placing disabled learners in mainstream schools but inclusive schools are "built on shared sense of responsibility and

a sense of belonging, a community where diversity and human relations are valued" (Yssel et al., 2007:357).

1.2 Problem statement

The greatest challenge facing the Ministry of Education and Skills Development (MoESD) has been identified as providing quality education in Botswana (Botswana Government, 2007). Government policy documents have over the years acknowledged the inadequacy of the education system to meet the educational needs of disabled learners (Botswana Government, 1977, 1994). Researchers and commentators in education have pointed to a continuous exclusion of disabled learners from mainstream schools in Botswana (Kisanji, 1991; Abosi, 2000; Dart, 2007). However, in some isolated schools, teachers as implementers of educational policies have had to deal with changes occasioned by having learners of diverse needs within the same school and indeed in the same classroom. It has often been the responsibility of the teachers to adapt the school and teaching practices in order to accommodate all learners and especially those presumed to be different. This means that teachers, through interrogation of practices, have gained experience and formed opinions on education of disabled learners.

This study focuses on understanding the perspective of teachers from primary schools with special education units. There is a gap in the knowledge on what perspectives teachers in schools with special education units hold concerning education of disabled learners. It is against this background that the present study seeks to investigate the following phenomena: (a) the teachers' conceptualisation of disability and inclusion; (b) teachers' views on educational placement of disabled learners; and (c) the types of support teachers thought would be necessary for successful inclusion of disabled learners.

1.3 Purpose of the study

The purpose of this study is to generate knowledge that would illuminate teachers' perspectives on inclusion of disabled learners in a bid to advance the impetus towards inclusive education in Botswana.

1.4 Research

1.4.1 Aim

The aim of this study is to describe the perspectives of teachers from mainstream primary schools with special education units in Botswana on inclusion of disabled learners.

1.4.2 Objectives

1. To describe teachers' conceptualisations of disability and inclusion.
2. To describe teachers' views on educational placement of disabled learners.
3. To describe teachers' views on the types of support necessary for inclusion of disabled learners.

1.4.3 Approach

The researcher employed a qualitative descriptive approach in this study. In-depth interviews were used as the primary method of collecting data. These strategies were preferred based on the nature of the phenomenon to be investigated.

1.5 Rationale for the study

1.5.1 Commitment to inclusion of disabled learners

In recent years, ripples of change towards more equity in education for disabled learners have been experienced in Botswana. The will and intention of the government to provide education for disabled learners has historically been reflected in its educational policies. The National Policy on Education (NPE), hailed as the first post-colonial education policy (Botswana Government, 1977) recommended the right for every child to have an education regardless of disability, race, ethnicity or cultural background. The second educational policy, the Revised National Policy on Education (RNPE), calls for education and training of all learners, including those with disabilities, and provision of equal opportunities for all in an integrated setting (Botswana Government, 1994). The National Development Plan 9 (NDP 9) intended to develop special education as part of the

mainstream education system to promote inclusive practices (Botswana Government, 2003).

In mandating the provision of education for all, the RNPE and the Botswana Vision 2016 (Botswana Government, 1994, 1997) provide a platform from which an inclusive education agenda can be launched. However, it has been observed that a gap exists between policy statements on provision of education to disabled learners on one hand and the actual practices on the other (Dart, 2007). Teachers' reservations on inclusive programmes have been found to stem from doubts whether disabled learners will have negative effects on the classroom (Scruggs & Mastropieri, 1996). The way in which teachers perceive disability may have an influence on their practices in teaching of disabled learners. Through a better understanding of the teacher perspectives on inclusion of disabled learners, this study is aimed to provide a lead into the interrogation of the discrepancy between policy and practice. The knowledge gained from this study anticipates creating avenues for better implementation of the education policy.

The Botswana Government is a signatory to international agreements that impact on provision for children with special needs. The adoption of the Jomtien Declaration (UNESCO, 1990) was an indication that the government recognised the commonality of educational aims for all children and the need to make education accessible to all as a basic human right. The Salamanca Statement (UNESCO, 1994), which encapsulates significant world declarations in support of the right to education for all was a major turning point towards inclusive education. The statement proclaims that learners with special educational needs must have access to regular schools and that inclusive regular schools are the most effective in combating discriminatory attitudes (UNESCO, 1994). Being a signatory to the Salamanca Statement meant that Botswana is obliged to provide education to disabled learners within mainstream schools.

The signing of the Dakar Framework for Action (UNESCO, 2000) in 2000 committed Botswana to providing education for every citizen and especially for vulnerable and disadvantaged children (Dart, 2007). The Ministry of Education and Skills Development has identified inclusive education as the way forward for development in education (Botswana Government, 2008). However, despite Botswana having shown commitment towards educational provision for disabled learners at policy level, little is known about inclusion and support. The knowledge generated in this study is aimed at informing,

contributing and supporting the national imperative towards inclusion of disabled learners.

1.5.2 Focus on teachers

Inclusive school communities are those that value and respect their members while providing a safe learning environment for all. Teachers are key role-players in ensuring success in inclusive education. Researchers have called for adjustment of teacher practices in a bid to meet the diverse needs of learners within an inclusive school culture (Carrington & Robinson, 2006). On the other hand, the importance of teachers and their practices has been propounded as central in furthering socially just effects of schooling and educational outcomes (Lingard & Mills, 2007). Among all the school factors, teacher practices have the most influence on student performance. The success of inclusive education is said to rest with teachers more than on legislation (Forlin, 2008).

In Botswana, the draft report on development in education (Botswana Government, 2008) recognised action within the schools and classes as the most crucial stage in the implementation of the curriculum and teachers' knowledge, attitudes and skills as pivotal in the implementation. In the early 1990s, the National Commission on Education in Botswana [NCE] (1993:25) stated that "it is the ordinary teacher of the class who has the utmost responsibility for the pupil and the pupil's education". Researchers have positioned teachers' knowledge and practices as significant in determining policy formulation and reformulation in the practice of inclusion (Sikes, Lawson & Parker, 2007). In Botswana, Mukhopadhyay, Molosiwa and Moswela (2009) cited teachers' lack of training as a barrier to implementation of inclusive education. Sustainability and institutionalisation of inclusion as a viable force in the nurturing of quality education for disabled learners rests heavily with teachers.

1.5.3 Inclusion of disabled learners: critical factors

Experiences in primary schooling for learners are critical in promoting interest in education and developing positive attitudes towards schooling and self-concept. Teachers and the school community as a whole need to be alert in recognising the challenges and difficulties encountered by learners if remedial actions to ensure effective learning are to succeed (Joshua, 1997). Many factors related to teaching, school

infrastructure, teacher welfare, and support for schools in Botswana have been highlighted as being the causes of the exclusion of disabled learners (Botswana Government, 2009). Researchers who have sought to understand inclusive education in Botswana have paid little attention to teachers in mainstream primary schools with special education units (Brandon, 2006; Dart, 2007; Botswana Government, 2009; Mukhopadhyay, Molosiwa & Moswela, 2009). Yet it has been found that increased interaction with disabled learners led to increased confidence and coping strategies of the teachers (Arbeiter & Hartley, 2002). The majority of these studies involved the use of quantitative or mixed methodologies of research (Brandon, 2006; Botswana Government, 2009; Mukhopadhyay, Molosiwa & Moswela, 2009). This project is aimed to gain new insights on inclusion through an in-depth study involving teachers in mainstream primary schools with special education units as they are uniquely related to the focus of the research.

The RNPE, which is still the guiding policy on education in Botswana, has outlined seven key criteria that are vital for future development of education in the country. Among the seven issues are access and equity, improvement and maintenance of quality in the education system and enhancement of performance and status of the teaching profession (Botswana Government, 1994:2). The philosophy of inclusive education espouses these issues as central in ensuring that all learners receive education that is relevant to their needs. In the quest for deeper understanding of teachers' views on educational placement of disabled learners, this study aligns itself with the criteria of access and equity. The seeking of a deeper insight into the types of support that will ensure successful inclusion of disabled learners is underpinned by the principles of a quality education system and enhanced performance by teachers. It is thus apparent that this study is founded on tenets promulgated by the RNPE as it strives to advance knowledge in the education of disabled learners.

Researchers have highlighted a lack of resources and inaccessible school environments as barriers contributing to the exclusion of disabled learners in Botswana (Mukhopadhyay, Molosiwa & Moswela, 2009). Teachers from schools with special education units that have traditionally engaged in the practices of educating disabled learners hold critical knowledge that can aid future planning. As implementers of educational policies, these teachers hold views and opinions concerning the education of

disabled learners that cannot be ignored when judging the success of inclusive education. Successful planning and implementation of inclusive education can thus only be carried out against the background of a clear understanding of teachers' views on disability and inclusion, educational placement of disabled learners and on the types of support that are needed in implementing inclusion. The perspectives of teachers from schools with special education units denote their rich experiences in those schools as they continuously interact with learners of diverse needs. These perspectives can be informative in guiding future initiatives in the education of disabled learners. Interrogating teachers from primary schools with special education units places this study at a vantage point in understanding inclusion of disabled learners in Botswana.

It has been well documented that contemporary teaching instructions are largely based on content as opposed to the outcome-based education promoted in inclusive education. Faced with the new challenge of teaching diverse classrooms, teachers need support to embrace the diverse needs of learners and to adjust their methods of instruction to meet everyone's abilities (Camper, 1997; Calitz, 2002). Obtaining teachers' views on the types of support they need to succeed in including disabled learners would serve as a yardstick in understanding the nature of assistance to be promulgated.

1.6 Inclusion of disabled learners in Botswana

Alongside observed global exclusion of disabled learners (Baine, 1993; Mittler, 1993; Ainscow, Jangira, & Ahuja, 1995; Kisanji, 1998; USAID, 2005), Botswana is not an exception. Formal education for disabled learners in Botswana began with categorised segregated provisions sponsored by religious and Non-governmental organisations (NGOs). These can be traced back to the opening of a school for the visually impaired by the Dutch Reformed Church in 1969, the school for the hearing impaired by the Lutheran Church and a boarding school for children with mental and physical impairments by the Camphill Trust in 1971. The government responded three years later with the setting up of a Special Education Unit within the Ministry of Education in 1974 (Dart, 2007). Up until the mid-1980s, education for those identified as having disabilities was mainly the responsibility of NGOs and church groups. Educational provision was mainly offered in special school settings.

By 1993, the growth of special schools had stagnated with the new emphasis shifting towards the creation of special education units within mainstream schools (Kisanji, 1993). Disabled learners were to receive education within these special education units situated in mainstream schools as opposed to special schools (Botswana Government, 1994). This system had gained popularity in the years between the mid-1980s and the late 1990s (Hopkin, 2004). These special education units are still preferred by the education system for those learners identified and categorised as having special educational needs. The process of identification through assessment and placement is coordinated by a team of professionals from the Central Resource Centre (CRC) under the Division of Special Education in the Ministry of Education. This Centre is said to be woefully overstretched and dismally under-resourced as it carries out its activities over the whole country, providing assessment and support (Dart, 2007).

By the year 2000, it was estimated that there were less than twenty primary schools with special education units out of an estimated total of seven hundred and eighty primary schools in the country (Abosi, 2000). The majority of disabled learners are clustered in these units despite an observation that if more disabled learners were included in mainstream classrooms, these special education units could be left for those with severe disabilities (Kisanji, 1993). This situation has resulted in overcrowding of disabled learners in the units (Hopkin, 2004). With the special education units concentrated only in major towns and villages, a major part of the country lacks access to such services. The majority of disabled learners from remoter areas are excluded from school or receive education from boarding institutions run by NGOs, usually far away from home (Procek, Malokongwa & Mudariki, 1994).

In Botswana, literature from the early 1990s up to 2008 suggests serious exclusion of disabled learners from the education system. In 1991 it was estimated that out of more than 60 000 disabled children, 37 373, required special education (Kisanji, 1991). Nine years later, a shortage of resources in schools to accommodate more than 37 000 children in need of special education still existed (Abosi, 2000). In 2004, only 919 disabled learners out of 334 932 learners were registered in primary schools (Dart, 2007). According to the Central Statistic Office (2001), the 2001 population and housing census indicated that there were 38 595 disabled children of school-going age. It is estimated

that up to 95% of disabled learners may be excluded from schools (Botswana Government 2008).

Despite a lack of coherent statistical data on the exact number of disabled learners excluded from schools, an analysis of the literature calls for an interrogation of practices, systems and structures that produce exclusion or perhaps facilitate inclusion of disabled learners, hence the need for this study.

1.6.1 Special education units at a glance

According to the Central Statistics Office [CSO] (2004), there were 776 primary schools in Botswana with a total of 328 692 pupils. The average teacher–pupil ratio was projected at 1:26. Educational provision for disabled learners is usually advanced through special education units attached to mainstream schools (Dart, 2007). Learners thought to have disabilities are placed in these units while their non-disabled peers receive education in the mainstream classes.

While in the special education units, the learners receive educational instructions from special education teachers and/or ordinary teachers as directed by the school authorities. Disabled learners that are deemed academically able through assessment by specialists are transferred to the mainstream classes where they are taught alongside their non-disabled peers by ordinary teachers who do not have any training in special education. The minimum qualification for primary school teachers is a three year diploma in education offered at colleges of education across the country. To qualify to be a special education teacher, one has to complete a three year pre-service course or a one year post-graduate diploma (Botswana Government, 1994).

With barely twenty primary schools in the whole country (Abosi, 2000) having these special education units, learners have to travel long distances to access them. There has been an observation of overcrowding in these units (Hopkin, 2004). The teacher pupil ratio in the units has generally been higher than the 1:8 specified in the RNPE with some schools recording up to thirty disabled learners per teacher (Abosi, 2000).

In the next chapter, the conceptual framework and literature review is presented.

Chapter Two

Conceptual Framework and Literature Review

Introduction

The first part of this chapter presents the concepts and theories related to inclusive education and disability. It positions inclusion and/or inclusive education as the central theme and as a human rights issue while illuminating the importance of teachers in determining its success. A theoretical argument for the significance of teachers' views on: (1) disability and inclusion; (2) educational placement of disabled learners; and (3) types of support necessary for inclusion is presented.

The second part of the chapter offers a review of literature from international and national studies. The review is organised to begin with a broader view of the studies from the international arena narrowing down to national studies. It makes visible the assumptions and attitudes towards disability and the frameworks within which they are positioned and the implication of these on the education of disabled learners. Like the conceptual framework, the literature review will be aligned to the objectives of the study.

2.1 Part one: Conceptual framework

2.1.1 Inclusion and disabled learners

The views held about disability may influence the choices of educational placement available to disabled learners. Conceptualisation of disabled learners as an oppressed group may shed light in understanding their marginality within the education system. Literature has postulated that analysis of "oppression of disabled people involves

pointing to the essential differences between their lives and those of other sections of the society" (Abberley, 1987:7). Exclusion of disabled learners from the mainstream education system has continually placed them in an inferior position to their peers. This disadvantage has been underpinned by ideologies that have tended to view disabled learners as passive and incapable objects of pity and aid (Shakespeare, 1994).

The historical developments in education for disabled learners dates back from the times of: (1) denial of disability which perpetuated exclusion; (2) acceptance of disability which led to creation of charitable segregated institutions; (3) the understanding of disability leading to special needs education and integration; to (4) the rights-based education for all momentum, that led to the concept of inclusive education (Ainscow, 2000; UNESCO, 2005).

Denial and exclusion of disabled people

Historically, the period of denial and exclusion of disabled children from education can be approximated to the pre-industrial era before the 18th century. This is described as the most pathetic and tragic historical period for disability. The ancient Greeks did not value the weak and disabled children as candidates for education. Such children were not allowed to live; they were abandoned to die or thrown off cliffs. The Romans were said to cast the visually—, the hearing— and the intellectually impaired into the River Tiber to die (Khatoon, 2003). These practices were later criticised as inhuman leading to the emergence of segregated institutions where disabled people were to be kept.

Charitable and segregated institutions

The rapid industrial growth between the early 18th century and early 20th century in western countries also witnessed a proliferation of institutions for educating disabled children who would in turn provide cheap labour. The development of workhouses in the United Kingdom exemplifies these developments (Armstrong, 2002). Formal education for disabled children is however traceable to the late 19th century up to mid 20th century. Commenting on England and France, Armstrong (2002) described this period as characterised with an increase in categorised and segregated institutions for disabled children. Armstrong associated this development with growth in expertise in medicine that facilitated identification, categorisation and placement of disabled children. This type of educational provision for disabled learners was criticised for furthering the

interests of professionals who sought to advance their powers rather than having tangible benefits to disabled learners. The institutions were legally challenged for their inhuman treatment and isolation of disabled people from the society leading to their mass closure (Khatoon, 2003).

Integration

Integration is described as the process of bringing disabled children into mainstream schools with the understanding that they would adapt to the existing system (Stubbs, 1997). The integration concept, prevalent between the 1960s and 1980s (Vislie, 2003; Khatoon, 2003) was seen as a big milestone in placement of disabled children, changing from the segregated institutions to ordinary schools. It was a process of normalisation that focused on de-institutionalisation of disabled people. In the western countries, integration was said to have focused on advancing the right to schooling and the right to education in local schools for disabled children. It also sought systemic reorganisation of special education based on the process of identification, financing and internal local school organisation (Vislie, 2003). Although the concept of integration is said to have resulted in an increase in the number of disabled children in schools and the growth of special education as a professional field, it is criticised for its failure to focus on the actual teaching and learning in integrated settings. The assumption of homogeneity among disabled learners was also rife in the practice of integration as exemplified in the categorisation of learners according to levels of disability. This lack of focus led to poor quality education for disabled learners (Vislie, 2003).

Inclusion

As a human rights based agenda, inclusive education took precedence from the early 1990s (Vislie, 2003) culminating in the proclamation of the Salamanca Statement by delegates from 92 governments and 25 international organisations (UNESCO, 1994). The Salamanca Statement which encapsulates significant world declarations in support of the right to education for all was undeniably a major turning point towards the concept of inclusion. The statement proclaimed among others that learners with special educational needs must have access to regular schools and that inclusive regular schools were the most effective in combating discriminatory attitudes (UNESCO, 1994). The impetus created by the Salamanca Statement created a surge in the international trends towards

inclusion (Booth & Ainscow, 1998; Tilstone, Florian & Rose, 1998). However, the majority of disabled people are still excluded from schools and work opportunities predisposing them to extreme poverty. The Statement further sought to position education as a fundamental right for every child while arguing for educational systems that would account for the unique learning needs of every learner as an individual.

Mel Ainscow, a renowned commentator in special education has attempted to credit the historical developments in education to special educators whom he claims have argued for and helped to fuel the changes (Ainscow, 2000). In contrast, Diane Richler, the president of Inclusion International, associates developments leading to inclusion with the impetus created by pressure from human rights movements sponsored by disabled people among others (Richler, n.d.) The practice of special education by special educators has on the other hand been castigated for furthering exclusion of disabled learners (Florian, 2008). While major decisions on education for disabled learners have emerged from conferences sponsored under a lexicon related to *Special Needs Education* (e.g. the Salamanca Statement, UNESCO, 1994), credit cannot be solely attributed to the participants of these conferences. On the obverse, contributions made from such conferences may be regarded as reactive responses to align with eminent inevitable changes resulting from external pressure. While the claims posited by Ainscow are both credible and valid, it is imperative to make visible other forces that have acted to create the impetus for the developments from exclusion towards inclusion of disabled learners.

Comparing special, integrative and inclusive education

In her article interrogating future trends in education in the UK, Florian (2008:204), contrasts inclusive education and special needs education while arguing for the former. She concludes that "while there are differences between learners, the most salient educational differences are found in the learners' response to tasks and activities rather than in the medical diagnostic criteria that have been used to categorise them in order to determine their eligibility for additional support". Special education has been criticised for its reliance on diagnostic categorisation in providing for disabled learners. It pivots on the need to change the learner in order for him/her to make educational progress. In contrast, the main focus of inclusion is to produce effects at the level of the learner.

Special education has contributed to the exclusion of disabled learners through identifying them as failures in mainstream education (King, 2003). Further criticism of special needs education is that it tends to deflect attention from the barriers that exist in all aspects of the education system by attributing educational difficulties to learner deficits (Booth, 1999). These comments seem to build a consensus on the causal relationship between the way disability is conceptualised and the specific educational placement that will be available to the disabled learners. Further support to this claim is presented by Florian et al. (2006:37) with their assertion that "for children who are the recipients of special education, classification can have a material consequence in terms of where and how they are educated".

Furthermore, while special needs education focuses on the limitations inherent in the disabled learner's impaired body, inclusive education attempts to make visible all the barriers that may work in chorus with impairments to produce exclusion. However, it has been observed that while past measures of school success focused on the overall average achievement, contemporary educators are looking at improving outcomes for all learners including those who are disabled (McDougall & Goldenberg, 2007). This could be hailed as a shift towards inclusive practices.

In recent years, inclusive education has gained popularity among researchers in education across the world. Unlike integration which focuses on normalising a learner to fit into an unchanged school environment (Stubbs, 1997), inclusive education demands transformation of the learning environment to meet the needs of all learners (Mittler, 1995). It calls for the reform of practices that exclude and segregate disabled learners (Lo, 2007) and the creation of an accommodating environment where all learners irrespective of their status belong to one learning community (Avramidis, Bayliss & Burden, 2000).

Inclusive education seeks deconstruction of 'special educational needs' and reorganisation of each mainstream school to identify and remove all barriers to participation. It demands effective teacher interaction with learners of diverse backgrounds (Zoniou-Sideri & Vlachou, 2006).It is a system that is structured to include all learners while meeting their individual needs (Stainback, Stainback & Jackson, 1992). The philosophy of inclusive education not only seeks to place disabled learners in mainstream schools but demands the creation of conditions to ensure effective

education for all (Barton, 1997). It is through an inclusive approach to education that explicitly seeks to address all barriers to participation for all learners (UNESCO, 2001) that meaningful and good quality education for all can be realised.

2.1.2 Inclusive education as a human rights issue: International policy context

The right to education should be given to every child to help him or her develop his or her abilities and talents and to teach him or her to maintain peace through respecting other people and protecting the environment (United Nations, 1989). Several international human rights instruments are unanimous in their support of the right to education beginning with the Universal Declaration of Human Rights in 1948 which advocated for free and compulsory elementary education for everyone (United Nations, 1948). In 1960, the United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) adopted the Convention Against Discrimination in Education which placed an obligation on the signatories to eliminate all forms of discrimination in education. States were further obliged to ensure that educational institutions adhered to non-discrimination in their admissions and were open to changing practices to ensure equality of treatment for all learners (Marks, 1978). Articles 28 and 29 of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) highlight the need for states to recognise the right to education for every child irrespective of creed or origin. They proposed an education that took into cognisance the holistic development of the child's talents and abilities to the fullest potential based on their individual needs (United Nations, 1989).

Recent international policies; the United Nations Standard Rules on Equalisation of Opportunities for Persons with Disabilities and the United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities are founded on the seminal foundation created earlier on advocating for the right to education for disabled learners. Rule six of the United Nations Standard Rules on Equalisation of Opportunities for Persons with Disabilities called for integration of disabled learners in mainstream education systems. It advocated for equalisation of opportunities for disabled learners at all levels of education with involvement of other stakeholders and provision of support to ensure success (United Nations, 1994).The most recent policy document; the United Nations Convention on the

Rights of Persons with Disabilities, obliges signatories to ensure inclusion of disabled learners in mainstream educational systems. It further recognises education as a right and that it should lead to full development of human potential in strengthening the respect for human rights, diversity and other fundamental freedoms (United Nations, 2006).

The concept of inclusive education is founded on the basic right to education as it promotes transformation of all contents, process, structures and policies that impede access to education by every deserving learner. The Dakar Framework for Action on Education reaffirmed education as a fundamental human right while calling on states and governments to employ rights-based action in implementing education for all (UNESCO, 2000). At the core of human rights provision is an educational system that fully promotes, protects and fosters the standards of human rights both in content and in process (Sandkull, 2005). These principles are commensurable with the core tenets of inclusive education: equitable, quality and accessible education for all. The struggle for inclusion of disabled learners has over time led to increased enrolment; what has remained problematic is the uncertain completion with high drop-out rates. Governments should therefore place more emphasis on the children that are missing in schools as well as those that are present but unable to succeed (UNESCO, 2004).

The right to education is a fundamental human right without which access to all other human rights is doomed. Education in its entirety is both a goal and a means to achieving all other human rights (UNESCO, 2003). As a conceptual, analytical and methodological framework, the process of inclusive education adheres to advancement of human rights through guiding all activities in the development of education. Its activities contribute towards capacity building of the duty bearers to deliver on their obligation and the rights holders to claim their rights. These qualities are identical to a human rights-based approach to development as per the argument of Sandkull (2005). It can thus be concluded that inclusive education is a human rights-based approach that is geared towards achieving education for all.

However, it must be acknowledged that despite a wide promulgation of the right to education in international policy documents and concepts, many developing countries are yet to domesticate these documents and translate the concepts into actions. This is evidenced by the widespread exclusion of disabled learners from meaningful and good

quality education in developing countries (Baine, 1993; Mittler, 1993; Ainscow, Jangira & Ahuja, 1995; Kisanji, 1998). Such extensive exclusion demands for a continuous interrogation of the processes and the practices that may be implicated in reinforcing, reproducing and maintaining inequitable provision of education.

2.1.3 Conceptualising disabled learners and inclusion

In the previous sections an argument has been put forward for human rights-based inclusive education as a more promising concept in the advancement and realisation of the most meaningful education to disabled learners. This section presents an account of theories that pit the understanding of disability against or for the principles of inclusive education.

The way in which knowledge about disability is constructed may have an impact on the inclusion of disabled learners. It has been argued that the discourse and language guiding societal construction of knowledge has the potential to cause damage to the world (Adams St Pierre, 2000; Carrington, 1999). Alloway (1995:9) contends that "we are all spoken into existence and speak ourselves into existence in particular ways". The product of discourse and language in a society may manifest as pedagogy of exclusion that treats disabled learners as lesser participants in mainstream education. As teachers go about their daily practices, they are constantly involved in a trade-off of discourses (Nayler & Keddie, 2007). This positions teachers as central actors in driving the change in favour of or against equitable and socially just education. Furthermore, it has been argued that acceptance of disabled learners within schools heavily depends on accurate knowledge and positive realistic expectations by teachers (Gilmore, Campbell & Cuskelly, 2003). Positive attitudes towards inclusion have also been said to stem from a good knowledge about disabilities and inclusive education (Leyser, Kapperman & Keller, 1994). It is thus essential for teacher preparation and development to ensure that teachers acquire the competencies required to meet the needs of learners in a diverse classroom (Forlin et al., 2009).

The characteristics of day to day educational practices are founded on inarticulate assumptions that are often ignored (Zoniou-Sideri & Vlachou, 2006). The success of inclusive education rests on positive attitudes from the teachers (Bender, Vial & Scott, 1995; Buell et al., 1999). Demands of inclusion are often in conflict with the beliefs and

value systems of teachers, compelling them to attend to the individual needs of a diverse group of learners (King, 2003; Vandeyar, 2010). Successful inclusive education can only be realised if those most responsible subscribe to its principles, values and demands (Avramidis, Bayliss & Burden, 2000). It must however be noted that teachers are members of a larger society and subscribe to the discourses that guide the construction of knowledge around disability.

Historically, two schools of thought that presented different conceptualisations of disability in an early venture into the definition of disability are known to have capitalised on bodily ability as the determinant for social inclusivity. In his disablement theory, Nagi (1965) located disability within the frailty of a body, either physical or mental, the consequence of which was a failure to meet the demands of the social and the physical environments. Similarly, the World Health Organisation (WHO) (1980) with the International Classification of Impairments, Disability and Handicaps (ICIDH) stressed body limitation as the absolute descriptor of inability and/or ability.

These fundamentals however attracted intense criticism and ultimate rejection by the disabled community. Driven by disabled people, the social model of disability views disability as a social state rather than a medical condition and locates disability within the society (Oliver, 1990). Disabled people, as members of a diverse society demand the upholding of their rights to opportunities in education, housing, transport and other facilities as much as anyone else's rights. There are major differences between the medical and the social models of disability. While the former sees the major barrier to participation in societal activities as embedded in the impaired body, the latter places the responsibility on the society which is not constructed to embrace diversity. Under the medical model, response towards disability is geared towards compensating people for their impairments by advancing welfare benefits and providing segregated special services. On the obverse, the reasoning behind the social model is to remove all barriers to participation existing in the society (Shakespeare & Watson, 2002).

Notwithstanding the efforts by the disability movements, the schools of thought that defined disability as a bodily inadequacy or as founded on the impaired body have had an enormous influence on the understanding of disability and inclusion. Exclusion of disabled people from the social sphere has been said to result not from their limitations but from the assumptions of the greater society about their abilities (Swartz & Schneider,

2006). Teachers' conceptualisation of disability and inclusion may rely heavily on the early definitions which focused on the disabled individual as an invalid, incapable and in need of transformation in order to fit into mainstream society. Viewed through this lens, a disabled learner may be seen as a potential failure in mainstream education and in need of an alternative educational intervention.

In an essay on the models and morals underpinning the scientific study of special educational needs, Howe (1999) discussed four common approaches in the study of special educational needs: (1) the difference model; (2) the developmental model; (3) the ecological model; and (4) the discursive model. The main feature of the difference model was the establishing of differences between disabled and non-disabled learners. This resulted in labelling and homogeneous categorisations based on standardised tests (p. 12). The developmental model, though appreciative of the child's unique learning characteristics dwelled too much on the importance of mediation in terms of therapeutic and other special interventions (p. 14). The ecological model on the other hand appreciates the importance of the context and learning "as a joint function of environmental influences" (p. 16). It shifts the focus from blaming the child to "understanding the wider contextual causes" (p. 18). Lastly, the discursive model propounds the role of jointly constructed discourses within a socio-cultural group and recognises the power relationships within the context of special educational needs. Howe concluded that that the thinking surrounding study in special educational needs is often confined to the difference and the developmental models which tend to situate deficits within the individual. Her argument is in favour of the multiple approaches, such as the ecological and discursive paradigms which take cognisance of the broader context within which individuals act, as better options in answering the broader questions in special educational needs.

The ecological and discursive models described by Howe raise critical questions about contextual influences on learning and the power relationships within education systems. These key issues are also espoused in the concept of inclusive education in its attempt to shift focus from the inadequacies of the individual disabled learner to the shortcomings of the broader context within which learning takes place. Educational approaches that cater for the needs of all learners can only be realised through

challenging the logic of having education systems which presume exclusion rather than thinking about how to bring disabled learners to school (Wendell, 1995).

2.1.4 Educational placement for disabled learners

This section provides a discussion of the theories underpinning teachers' views on educational placement of disabled learners. The theories are organised according to how they align with or negate the principles of inclusive education.

As discussed earlier, the historical development in special education has progressed from the time of segregation to the current concept of inclusion (Ainscow, 2000; UNESCO, 2005). It must however be borne in mind that, as Dyson (2001:25) cautioned, the history of special education is "neither a story of uninterrupted progress nor a doomed struggle against overwhelming odds, it is a product of the contradictory tendencies within the education system's response to the diversity and of the resolutions of the dilemma of difference to which those tendencies give rise". Armstrong (2002:441) likened the political struggles in the developments of special education to a "profusion of entangled events".

Teachers are faced with competing interests and assumptions about learning which they embody when conceptualising educational placement for disabled learners. Emotional and other subjective experiences within certain inhabited contexts influence people's understandings and actions (Sikes, Lawson & Parker, 2007). Teachers' opinions on educational placement of disabled learners have been found to differ with what is arguably the common understanding of inclusion (Coates, 1989). Teachers act in different ways to foster learning based on their implicit theories of teaching and learning (Palinscar, Stevens & Gavelek, 1989; Prawat, 1992). Pessimistic views based on inaccurate knowledge and misconception about disability may undermine successful placement of disabled learners (Lee & Rodda, 1994).

Commenting on integration of students with severe disabilities in Finland, Jahnukainen and Korhonen (2003) observed that physical integration was more readily acceptable among teachers as compared to functional integration. The authors described physical integration as decreasing the actual physical distance by having both disabled and non-disabled learners within the same school compound, and functional integration as educating all the learners in the same classroom for the same subjects. Although

disabled learners in a mainstream school environment have been said to fare better in making social contacts with their classmates than did their counterparts in separate special education (Hunt et al., 1994; Kennedy, Shukla & Fryxell, 1997; Jahnukainen & Korhonen, 2003), such physical integration is neither tantamount to nor a sufficient condition for functional integration (Jahnukainen & Korhonen, 2003). Establishing physical proximity by having different groups of learners in the same school or class does not directly lead to quality teacher–learner contacts that respond to the needs of all learners.

Scruggs and Mastropieri (1996) reviewed 28 different investigations related to inclusive education; they concluded that teachers were not in favour of regular classrooms as the best educational option for disabled learners despite the support they lend to the concept of inclusive education. Challenges that sustain the gap between the rhetoric and reality in school reforms have been attributed to competing interests from within and without the school. The competing interests include the questions of whether to promote excellence at the expense of equity or segregated, as opposed to inclusive programmes (McDougall & Goldenberg, 2007:1) This dichotomy of competing interests has more potential to further exclusion rather than promote inclusion of disabled learners.

Education systems have been constructed to include some children but not others (Carrington, 1999). Of particular concern is the quest by schools to compete for the most desirable pupils depending on academic excellence, a practice which is incompatible with the principles of inclusive education. This market-driven practice has manifested itself through administration of standardised examinations and tests to determine the suitability of learners before admission into schools. External to the schools, institutionalised values embedded in the national policies and the local communities' reaction towards disability may determine success or failure of an educational placement for disabled learners (Jha, 2002). The resistance to change is exhibited in school practices that seek to further the dominant culture by imparting knowledge through structured curricula rather than attempting to meet the needs of individual learners (Carrington, 1999). These practices perpetuate the promotion of exclusion as schools struggle to maintain stability and to align with the national and the local agenda.

Systems and individuals embody assumptions about learning that do not embrace diversity and are counteractive to the provisions of the inclusive education agenda. Common assumptions presume homogeneity in the way learning should occur for every learner and schools are seen as sole custodians and dispensers of learning. Learners who fall beyond the margins of this norm are conceived as deficient (Senge, 2000). These assumptions depict a monolinear direction of thinking in the provision of education. Thinking in this orientation disregards personal differences and other external forces that may influence the way learners conform to a set system. Commenting on South Africa, Sayed (2001) observed that the attitudes of teachers and students, institutional arrangements, school ethos and policies operated together to determine the success of educational placement.

The tendency to prefer and/or reject a certain educational placement depends on teachers' judgements based on their own personal interests, those of the school and the community, and on the assumptions that they embody about learning. Teachers tend to prefer other forms of educational placement for disabled learners as opposed to inclusion. In Iowa, USA, Coates (1989) pointed to the preference of resource rooms and pull-out programmes, while in Sweden, Brodin and Ljusberg (2008) found that teachers were in favour of remedial classes for disabled learners. Systemic factors such as ambiguous policies (Alur, 2000), community and school attitudes, beliefs and practices (Carrington, 1999) have been cited as influential in determining educational placement for disabled learners. Social transformative politics targeting the education system (Girloux, 2003) and teachers' interrogation of identities, beliefs and practices (Nayler & Keddie, 2007) are crucial in realising social justice in education.

2.1.5 Types of support useful for inclusion of disabled learners

In this section, theories related to the types of support that are thought to be crucial in creating inclusive school environments are presented.

Inclusive education adherents recommend that disabled learners receive education from a neighbourhood school with the necessary support as needed (Bishop, Swain & Bines, 1999). The level of support accorded teachers and their working conditions determine the length of time they will serve as teachers of disabled learners (Mittler, 1995). Elements of useful support for inclusion of disabled learners that have surfaced in

a plethora of literature (Sanacore, 1996; Carrington, 1999; Jackson, Ryndak & Billingsley, 2000; Dockrell & Lindsay, 2001; King, 2003) can be narrowed down to: collaboration between stakeholders; teacher knowledge and skills development; inclusive policy; inclusive school curricula; adequate resources and a supportive school administration. Other identified elements of support include specialist training for teachers and favourable working conditions (Ware, Julian & McGee, 2005).

In the literature, collaboration between stakeholders is the most widely promulgated element of useful support for inclusion of disabled learners. Jackson, Ryndak and Billingsley (2000) proposed a good working relationship between special education and ordinary teachers with a motif of creating a unified schools culture, a shared vision and harmonising power roles within the school as a form of useful support in the inclusion of disabled learners. The authors further posited meaningful family involvement, peer to peer learning and contributions from other service providers as important in facilitating inclusion of disabled learners. Another form of collaboration discussed in the literature is that of adult–child joint action (Bishop, Swain & Bines, 1999). The authors refer to the process as "scaffolding" (p. 175) which involves provision of opportunities, challenges and resources by the adult while the child seizes these opportunities to participate in learning. Carrington (1999) introduces yet another form of collaborative support in the form of bench-marking. According to Carrington, teachers faced with the challenges of inclusive education can work in collaboration with those that have succeeded with inclusion to observe how curricula are adapted and classes organised to meet the needs of all learners.

Other elements of useful support that are evident in the literature include professional skills development to enable teachers to understand and deal effectively with the diverse needs of learners. Availability of relevant resources is also seen as an important form of support that can facilitate inclusion of disabled learners (Dockrell & Lindsay, 2001). Commentators on inclusive education have broadly posited resources in education to include personnel, adapted infrastructure and materials such as laptops and books (Sanacore, 1996; Pivik, McComas & Laflamme, 2002). Concerning other elements of useful support, Pavri and Monda-Amaya (2001:391) argued for social support, "the process by which the individual feels valued, cared for and connected to a group of people", as critical in the inclusion of disabled learners. A supportive educational system

that takes into account individual student learning needs through adopting curricula that support and develop diverse skills of learners is seen as indispensable if inclusive education is to succeed (Sanacore, 1996; King, 2003).

At a larger and probably more important scale, useful support for the inclusion of disabled learners needs to stem from a national level through mainstreaming of inclusive education in the legislative structures and educational policies. A policy could be seen as representing a wider framework of interwoven ideologies of socio-cultural, religious, historical and political orientation (Alur, 2002). Support which is initiated at a national policy level is likely to produce more positive effects in fostering inclusive education. As regions, communities, parents, schools, and teachers position themselves to align with national policies, more desirable outcomes of inclusion are likely to be realised. In conceptualising the types of support that would advance the best results in the inclusion of disabled learners, the fundamental question should be, *to what extent are those issues accorded value at a national educational policy and legislative level?* Teachers faced with shortage of facilities may feel isolated from other educational personnel. More inclusive school communities can be developed through collaboration and cooperation with parents and communities, recognising the disabled learners' rights to education and supporting teachers' engagement with inclusive ideas and practices (Carrington & Robinson, 2006). Support should thus be viewed as systemic and multilayered; and cannot be reduced into fragmented items.

2.2 Part two: Literature review

Under the following sub-headings, studies are presented to provide a strong case for each of the subjects under review. These subjects are organised according to the objectives of the current study. The studies presented under each subject are organised contextually from an international to a national perspective.

2.2.1 Teachers' understanding of disability and inclusion

Teachers' assumptions about disabled learners as intellectually inferior has led to exclusion of many learners from the mainstream education system, including those learners who experience educational difficulties differently (Booth, 1999). Acceptance of

disabled individuals within their schools and communities depends on accurate knowledge and positive realistic expectation from the school and the community at large (Gilmore, Campbell & Cuskelly, 2003). Similarly, embracing inclusion by treating disabled learners equally in mainstream schools without having realistic expectations of such learners has been linked to exclusion (Vaughn & Schumm, 1996).

In their study of barriers and facilitators of inclusive education in Canada, Pivik, McComas and Laflamme (2002) found that disabled students were more concerned with teachers' failure to understand their disabilities than any other barrier they faced at school. The students complained about being given inappropriate substitute work instead of the curriculum being adapted to suit their needs and being assigned as teacher's helper in physical education classes.

In the United States of America, Zollers, Ramanathan and Yu (1999) studied the culture in a school that had succeeded in sustaining inclusion. They concluded that successful inclusive practices depended on the attitudes and actions of the principal, a supportive school community and shared values and language. These practices created an inclusive school culture that viewed disabled learners as already belonging to the school and not "intruders" waiting to be "integrated" (p. 172). This ethnographic study involved multiple methods of data collection targeting the principal of the school, parents and teachers. However, since the study was only based in one school, the findings have the potential of being uniquely related to the context hence lacking a broader representation. The current study is carried out in a developing country, a context characterised by scarcity of resources, both human and material. Multiple barriers to inclusion that exist in developing countries may not be visible through the lens of a developed country.

Other studies tend to implicate lack of knowledge on inclusive education and experience with disabled learners as impeding progress in creating inclusive schools. In South Africa, Hay, Smit and Paulsen (2001) did a study on teacher preparedness for inclusive education. They attributed exclusion of disabled learners to teachers' lack of knowledge in dealing with such learners. This quantitative study sought to understand teachers' preparedness focusing on four areas: (1) educational milieu (setting, experience etc); (2) knowledge on concepts related to inclusive education; (3) previous experience; and (4) support received and referrals. Given that the majority of the participants in this

study had no experience in teaching disabled learners, their responses through the highly structured questionnaire lacked sufficient in-depth interrogation of teachers' understanding of inclusion of disabled learners.

In their study linked to conceptualisation of disability and inclusion done in Sweden, Brodin and Ljusberg (2008) sought to understand mainstream teachers' and parents' views on the education of children with Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorders (ADHD) in remedial classes. The researchers utilised qualitative methods to collect data from both the teachers and parents of learners with ADHD. The findings of the study suggested that teachers had low opinions of the academic achievement of the learners, hence their recommendations for remedial classes. Most of the learners with ADHD were transferred to the remedial class because they exhibited behaviours that teachers could not handle. The researchers concluded that the special solution adopted in the form of remedial classes for such learners acted to isolate and segregate them. Only a few of the learners were transferable back to the regular classes as they tended to lose much of their prior academic gain while in these remedial classes. The question posed then was whether the remedial classes served the needs of the teachers or those of the learners. Corresponding arguments have pointed to the repeated use of special education by those with interests to maintain the *status quo* irrespective of the damage caused to those whose interests they claim to further (Tomlinson, 1985). The study by Brodin and Ljusberg revealed a relationship between teachers' views on disability and inclusion of disabled learners. The major limitation of the study in contributing to the phenomenon of inclusive education was that it focused only on one type of disability, ADHD. It would be interesting to know how teachers would react to learners with other types of disabilities in relation to inclusion.

Locally in Botswana, Mukhopadhyay, Molosiwa and Moswela (2009) did a baseline study on inclusion of disabled learners. They identified lack of knowledge in teaching disabled learners as impeding inclusion. This study relied on mixed methods to collect and analyse data. Among the participants were teachers, parents, students, personnel from NGOs and members of community organisations. Although the findings of this study yielded information that can lead to a better understanding of inclusion of disabled learners, it is not certain to what extent these results reflected the views of teachers.

Furthermore the study did not target teachers who had experience in teaching disabled learners. The opinions expressed could thus be described as speculative.

Additionally, Brandon (2006) studied the attitudes of teachers from secondary schools in five geographical regions in Botswana. She concluded that they were generally negative towards inclusion of disabled learners. Brandon used a five point Likert-type scale to measure attitudes on 4 dimensions: perceived ability to teach disabled learners; classroom behaviour of disabled learners; classroom management of disabled learners; and academic and social growth of disabled learners. Although this study highlighted the need for education and training of teachers to improve their confidence in teaching disabled learners, its reliance on quantitative data could not allow for adequate identification of the deeper views on inclusion of disabled learners that could guide planning of such teacher education and training. Contextualised and naturalistic analyses of the findings could not be carried out in a study of this nature. Furthermore, the study relied on a random sample of teachers from secondary schools that did not traditionally have a programme to admit disabled learners. The opinions expressed by teachers in this study could similarly be described as speculative as they lacked significant experience with disabled learners.

However, the in-depth exploration of the subject matter sought in this study lacked sufficient supporting literature from the studies that have targeted inclusion of disabled learners. Paucity in information on teachers' conceptualisation of disability and how this would affect their view of the education of disabled learners was noted.

2.2.2 Educational placement

Decisions about the educational placement of disabled learners have been blamed for advancing exclusion of such learners from the mainstream education (Biklen, 1988). In his discursive exposition on educational placement of disabled learners and clinical judgments, the author seemed to relate exclusion with over-reliance on professional opinions where such placement is based on their diagnoses and recommendations. Successful and most promising placement may be undermined by pessimistic views about capabilities of disabled learners and the presumed extent of their achievements in mainstream educational settings (Lee & Rodda, 1994).

The literature suggests that teachers are more inclined to recommend other forms of educational placement for disabled learners despite their overall support for the concept of inclusion. Gilmore, Campbell and Cuskelly (2003) studied teacher and community views of Down syndrome in Australia. They concluded that despite the participants having positive views about the benefits of inclusion, they believed that the needs of students with Down syndrome could be best met in a segregated setting. In Uganda, Arbeiter and Hartley, (2002) found that despite teachers acknowledging the social benefits of educating disabled learners in mainstream schools, they were concerned about the standards of such schools and preferred other forms of placement that they thought would respond better to the disabled learners' needs. Coates (1989) sought opinions of classroom teachers on inclusive education from the state of Iowa, in the United States. Contrary to the basic tenets of inclusion, the researcher found that most teachers were of the opinion that resource rooms needed to be expanded and that learners with mild disabilities could not entirely be educated within the regular class. Despite the gains in the rhetoric of inclusive education, the researcher observed that the views of teachers were largely unknown and seldom taken into account, prompting questions about the feasibility of implementing inclusive education.

Persson (1998) investigated the knowledge and awareness of school personnel in Sweden on the process of identifying learners for special education. The researcher interviewed special educators, classroom teachers and school principals and analysed information gathered from school documents. The findings indicated that the dominant view likened special education to training in cognitive and social skills for a small number of pupils at a slower pace. The participants referred to special education that was generally conducted in a resource room or a pull-out clinic by a specialist outside the general classroom. They cited learning disabilities and socio-emotional disturbances as the common reasons for referring pupils to the resource rooms and clinics. In conclusion, the researcher questioned the effectiveness of such interventions if building 'schools for all' was the ultimate goal. The researcher further commented that the implicit sorting of learners based on their 'normality' was in itself stigmatising; it thus did not matter whether the pupil was taken out of the classroom or received assistance while there. The findings of this study correlate with what has been posited as the common view of disabled learners – that they are intellectually inferior (Booth, 1999). However, it would

be of interest to find out about teachers' views from a developing country, hence the need for the current study.

Other forms of educational placement for disabled learners have been found lacking in providing quality education. In Cyprus, special units are run in mainstream schools for learners found to have serious problems which warrant removal from the mainstream classes. In their case study to investigate how the special units functioned in one selected school, Angelides and Michailidou (2007) concluded that the mere "existence of those units and they way they functioned created a problematic situation and acted as marginalisation factors" (p. 95). The authors described a special unit as "a class that functions in a mainstream school in which certain children [were] categorised as having special needs study" (p. 87). Using qualitative methodologies, the researchers conducted participant observation in a class that integrated disabled learners and interviewed teachers and both disabled and non-disabled learners. Analysed data revealed that marginalisation of disabled learners was fostered through: (1) the mere existence of the unit as a separate labelled classroom; (2) placement of disabled learners not in their neighbourhood schools but in the closest school with a unit; (3) inaccessible curriculum and teaching methods; (4) lack of collaboration between teachers in planning lessons; and by (5) non-disabled peers who resented them. The findings of this study support the quest for more desirable educational placement for disabled learners. However, because the study only focused on practices in a single school, the results may not have a broader representation.

Jordan and Stanovich, (2001) added another dimension to the argument with their study on teacher–student interaction and its correlate with student self-concept in six schools in Canada. Their focus was on the interaction of teachers with students who had been identified as having special educational needs in mainstream classes. The researchers analysed student self-concept based on the teachers' beliefs categorised as either *pathognomonic* (believed that disabled learners were unable to keep up with the rest of the class and needed specialised teachers) or *interventionist* (saw themselves as instrumental in the success of the disabled learners within their classrooms).The researchers interviewed teachers and conducted a self-concept report scale with the students. They also observed and analysed student–teacher interaction during lessons. The results indicated that *pathognomonic* teachers viewed assessments as important in

confriming that disability was embedded in the student. They viewed accommodation in teaching methods as the responsibility of the special education teachers during pull-out programmes. On the other hand, the *interventionist* teachers viewed assessment as a way of identifying the level of performance of the students to aid in devising accommodation strategies. They were also found to use a variety of instructional accommodation during lessons. The study found that learners from the *pathognomonic* group had lower Self-concept Total Scale Scores compared to the learners from the *interventionist* group. Their conclusion was that the success of disabled learners in an inclusive set-up depends in part on teaching factors and that "more complex analysis of conditions in the classroom other than placement alone was imperative in answering the question of efficacy in inclusion" (p. 47). This study was important in highlighting the role played by teachers in determining success or failure of an educational placement. The results lend support to an argument that educational placement alone is not sufficient to produce desirable outcomes for disabled learners (Persson, 1998). However, its ability to identify other factors in the schools that would influence placement was obscured by its concentration on comparing categorised teachers.

Other studies have supported placement of disabled learners in mainstream school environments as it is thought to produce more positive outcomes for the learners than in segregated schools. In their investigation of the implication of integration of deaf and hard hearing learners in one school in Cyprus, Angelides and Aravi (2007) concluded that it had an impact on the development of inclusive practices. The researchers used a qualitative methodology to collect and analyse data. They conducted interviews with teachers who taught classes with deaf and hard hearing learners and made observations in classes during lessons. Faced with the deaf and hard hearing learners in class, teachers were obliged to adapt their methods of instruction to accommodate such learners. Teachers were also found to exchange ideas and material with a view to improving their practices. Overall, these practices produced desirable outcomes not only for the deaf and hard hearing, but for all learners in their classes. The major limitation of this study is that it only focused on a single disability and that the findings may only be uniquely related to the context studied.

Recent research on inclusive education in Botswana (Brandon, 2006; Mukhopadhyay, Molosiwa & Moswela, 2009; Botswana Government, 2009) is silent on

the importance of educational placement of disabled learners in fostering inclusive practices. Judging from the studies cited above, it is apparent that there is a pervasive global exclusion of disabled learners from mainstream education. Inclusion of disabled learners thus remains an international challenge.

2.2.3 Types of support necessary to facilitate inclusion

Support is necessary for inclusion of disabled learners and needs to form part of ordinary teaching and learning in an attempt to minimise the difficulties encountered. It is important that the support is well-planned and takes into account the concerns of teachers (Booth, 1999; Forlin, Keen & Barrett, 2008).The type of support given to teachers has a significant role in determining their attitudes towards any changes in the education system (Charema & Peresuh, 1999; Evans, 1999; Miles, 1999). Collaboration between different stakeholders at different levels, a supportive school leadership and a policy for staff development have been cited as critical elements that characterise an inclusive education system (Ainscow, Jangira & Ahuja, 1995). Participation of various stakeholders within the community is an important factor in facilitating flexible time, space and content-bound learning (Kisanji, 1999). Without experience on the aspects of inclusion that provide support programmes, teachers are likely to view inclusive education negatively (Vaughn & Schumm 1996).

Forlin, Hattie and Douglas (1996) studied the stressful effects of inclusion on teachers in Australia. They suggested that the major concerns raised by teachers could be grouped into three main clusters: administration, classroom-based and personal. The researchers described administration issues as comprising of work load, extra time to modify the programme and curriculum, developing teaching materials and engaging with support staff. The classroom-based issues were mainly related to management of behavioural problems, availability of resources and funding, while personal issues related to teachers' own perception of efficacy in dealing with disabled learners. Their arguments have been espoused in a number of studies that have attempted to evaluate teachers' perceived needs and concerns with the inclusion of disabled learners in mainstream classrooms.

In Western Australia, Forlin, Keen and Barrett (2008) conducted a study to investigate the concerns of teachers in mainstream schools where inclusion was being

practised. The researchers used a quantitative methodology to collect and interpret data from 228 teachers who had disabled learners within their classrooms. They found that teachers were worried about their efficacy and knowledge base if they were to cope with the needs of disabled learners in mainstream schools. The teachers indicated that they had insufficient pre-service training to cope with learners with intellectual disability in their classrooms. The researchers concluded that support in the form of professional development for the teachers was essential in developing and sustaining inclusivity in schools. Their recommendation was that professional development needed to focus on the explicit concerns of the teachers. Whole school support that would allow collegial collaboration was also propounded as a critical practice in building inclusive schools. Although this study highlighted some critical elements of support, its reliance on quantitative methodology lent it void of in-depth knowledge into the types of support that would be useful in the inclusion of disabled learners. Furthermore, the western context within which the study was conducted is significantly different from what one would expect from developing countries. It is therefore important to investigate in-depth what teachers would view as useful types of support in the inclusion of disabled learners from a southern context.

In Cyprus, Koutrouba, Vamvakari and Steliou, (2006) studied the opinions and attitudes of secondary education teachers and the specific factors that influence positive or negative attitudes towards inclusive education. This quantitative study utilised closed-ended questionnaires to collect data from a sample of 245 teachers. The majority of the sampled teachers had encountered a disabled learner within their classrooms. The study findings indicated that despite the teachers' overwhelming support for inclusive education, shortage of equipment, unsuitable infrastructure and teachers' lack of knowledge, skills and self confidence undermined inclusion. The researchers concluded that there was need for teacher professional development, provision of adapted curricula and material resources if inclusive education was to succeed. Although this study contributed significantly to the literature on the useful types of support needed for inclusion, it lacked a more in-depth interrogation of the teachers' opinions due to the limitations of the methodology used.

In their study to examine the views of teachers about their need for training and support in teaching disabled learners in Uganda, Arbeiter and Hartley (2002:63)

described support as "a range of measures and provisions that assist teachers to respond to the needs of children with disabilities in school". They identified these measures and provisions as comprising of relevant training, parental and community participation, professional advice and referral services, participation of disabled people, availability of teacher aides and volunteers, financial support, recognition and acknowledgement, effective supervision and leadership, assistance with curricular adaptations and government or legal support. This study was confined to three schools conveniently sampled by the researchers. Two schools were government owned and had special education units for the hearing impaired learners while one school was privately owned but had committed to admitting disabled learners. The researchers utilised qualitative methodologies in the form of individual interviews, focus group discussions, observations and log book recordings. The study found that teachers' needs included material support such as teaching aids, text books and classrooms; financial support in terms of teacher salaries and incentives and whole school financing (government support and donations); and training support in the form of short courses and seminars. The study however targeted only teachers from mainstream classes hence yielded a limited diversity of opinions.

Other studies that have posited support as an essential element in ensuring successful inclusion comprise of Hornby and Kidd (2001) in Yorkshire and Ware, Julian and McGee (2005) in Ireland. Hornby and Kidd (2001) investigated the outcome of inclusion through quality of life experience by 24 young people who had earlier on been transferred from a special school for pupils with Mild Learning Disability (MLD) to mainstream schools. Their study found that the majority of these people were unemployed prompting the conclusion that "if [a] student with MLD were to be included in the mainstream schools, then the schools needed to develop the ethos and procedures ... including specialised teachers and curricula" (p. 15). Ware, Julian and McGee (2005) studied the factors that influenced teachers' decision to teach severely and profound learning disabilities. The researchers interviewed a total of 20 teachers including 10 who were currently teaching learners with severe and profound learning disabilities and 10 who had left such a job. Among the dominant elements of support that determined whether the teachers stayed or left the job were: availability of resources including teaching space and support personnel; collaboration with fellow teachers and other

professionals; a supportive school principal; teacher induction courses; existence of support groups; and clear curriculum guidelines. These findings resonate with findings from the studies already discussed that have attempted to understand the types of support that are necessary in the inclusion of disabled learners.

Locally in Botswana, Mukhopadhyay, Molosiwa and Moswela (2009) highlighted lack of teaching and learning resources, poor collaboration and inaccessible school infrastructure as challenges to inclusion. This study covered 4 districts with a total of 12 schools selected. The researchers utilised mixed methods of data collection including questionnaires, focus groups, interviews, document reviews and an access audit. Focus groups was the most extensive method of extracting information from the teachers. Open-ended interviews were conducted with the head teachers of the selected schools. Although the study yielded information that could lead to a better understanding of the types of support needed to for inclusion, lack of more focused in-depth means of collecting information from teachers experienced in teaching disabled learners may render the findings devoid of rich and good quality knowledge. The study also lacked adequate explanations of the teachers' views on the types of support that they perceived as useful in implementing inclusive education.

There is enough evidence to suggest that among others, teachers place value on their own professional development, collaboration between different stakeholders, inclusive curricula, availability of resources and inclusive infrastructure when conceptualising support and inclusion. The current study is anticipated to contribute uniquely to this body of knowledge due to: (1) the context of the study; and (2) the unique complement of participants.

In the next chapter the research methodology utilised for this study is reviewed.

Chapter Three

Research Methodology

Introduction

This chapter consists of an exposition of the research methodology, describing the design and sampling rationale for school and participant selection. It also describes the data collection and analysis, concluding with a review of the rigour and trustworthiness of the process, and the ethical considerations for this research.

3.1 Research design

A qualitative descriptive approach was used in this study. Individual in-depth interviews were the method of data collection with teachers being the sources of data. A qualitative approach was preferred because of its suitability in gathering non-numerical data that would help in understanding and describing teacher perspectives on inclusion of disabled learners. The contention by Strauss and Corbin (1990:235) that "qualitative research is useful in understanding variables that are difficult to quantify" lend support to the choice of the methodology in this study. Similarly, Patton (1990:39) suggested that researchers have the option of "seeking methodological appropriateness" to allow for a "situational responsiveness". This methodology is more useful in this study as it allows in-depth probing of the participants' responses.

Qualitative enquiries are sources of data that reflect acceptance of the intricate and ever-changing social world (Hoepfl, 1997). Strauss and Corbin (1990) further suggest that qualitative studies can be used when seeking to better understand a phenomenon about which little is known. In the previous chapter, it has been demonstrated that in Botswana, little is known about the perspectives of teachers from primary schools with

special education units. The choice of a qualitative approach is necessary in this study which aims at gaining a better understanding of the phenomenon.

Qualitative descriptive studies are described as a comprehensive summary of events where researchers stay close to the data and to the surface of words and events (Sandelowski, 2000). These studies have been used to obtain information on people's thoughts, views, feelings, attitudes and actions – see Von Koch et al. (2000) in Sweden, and Marwaha and Johnson (2005), Mackintosh (2006) and Cranney et al. (2001) in the United Kingdom. In seeking to determine teachers' perspectives, a descriptive study is thus relevant in this study.

Descriptive studies draw from the general tenets of naturalistic inquiry (Sandelowski, 2000). Lincoln and Guba (1985:187) state that "naturalistic inquiry is always carried out, logically enough in a natural setting since the context is so heavily implicated in the meaning". Sandelowski (2000:336) further asserts that "the description in qualitative descriptive studies entails the presentation of facts of the case in everyday language". The use of in-depth interviews to obtain and describe information from teachers in this study is highly informed by these views.

Kaplan and Maxwell (1994:132) contend that "the goal of understanding a phenomenon from the point of view of participants and its particular social and institutional context is largely lost when textual data are quantified". This research methodology was designed to help the researcher to better understand the teacher perspectives on inclusion of disabled learners in relation to the social and cultural contexts within which they work and live. In this regard, the researcher had access to more valid and reliable data in relation to the phenomenon under review.

3.2 Procedure for selecting schools

The process of identifying mainstream primary schools with special education units located in the southern region of Botswana was done through the study of official documents and research reports (e.g. Abosi, 2000). Schools that could offer rich information on disability and inclusion were selected through recommendations by key informants. By being a member of a Curriculum Development Group on vocational and training of disabled learners, the researcher had an opportunity to interact with some

knowledgeable researchers who offered an insight into the most appropriate schools for the study. This process is consistent with suggestions by Silverman (2005) and concurs with purposive sampling as described by Patton (1990). Only mainstream primary schools with special education units were considered for this study as they present a unique opportunity for interaction between teachers and learners with various disabilities. Teachers are therefore able to experience inclusion and/or exclusion of disabled learners as part of the greater school community. This is premised on the contention that learning and the context within which it occurs cannot be easily separated (King, 2003).

Two mainstream primary schools with special education units were selected for this study. These schools present a unique diversity of teacher complement as both special education and ordinary teachers participate in the education of disabled learners. It was evident from the literature review that there is paucity in documented research about the perspectives of teachers from these schools in Botswana. The researcher sought to understand the broader views on inclusion of disabled learners by interacting with participants through in-depth interviews that usually took the form of a casual discussion. The study included both special and ordinary teachers as participants.

3.3 Participant selection criteria

As a step in the process of determining data collection strategies, Lincoln and Guba (1985) recommend setting boundaries in line with the focus of the study by providing criteria for inclusion and/or exclusion. Inclusion criteria are used to guide the choice of participants based on a pre-determined set of characteristics (Houser, 2008).

3.3.1 Inclusion criteria

To be considered for this study inclusion criteria were set within the following boundaries:

- Teachers needed to have at least three years' experience teaching in a mainstream primary school with a special education unit. Three years was considered adequate for the teachers to have acquired a unique experience related to the phenomenon under review.

- They needed to possess rich information about disability and inclusion as this was of primary interest to the study. This was established through recommendation by key informants within the particular schools as well as an initial screening discussion with the participants.
- They needed to be willing to share such information freely in order to enable the researcher to gain access to such information and build on the existing knowledge on inclusion of disabled learners.

3.3.2 Exclusion criteria

Exclusion criteria are set based on the characteristics that exclude a potential participant despite meeting inclusion criteria (Houser, 2008).

Potential participants were excluded from this study based on the following characteristics:

- If they did not have any experience teaching in a classroom with a disabled learner as their responses would be at most speculative.
- If they were not available to be interviewed by the researcher during the four-week period of data collection.

3.4 Participant sampling

Participants for in-depth interviews were purposefully selected from the two identified primary schools in the southern region of Botswana. As Krueger and Neuman (2006) suggest, selection of participants are based on their relevance in generating in-depth information on the subject under investigation. The aim of using purposeful sampling, described as the dominant strategy in qualitative research (Hoepfl, 1997) was to select cases likely to provide rich information about a phenomenon under investigation (Krueger & Neuman, 2006; Denscombe, 1998; Patton, 1990).

Advice to select the most suitable teachers was sought through the key informants in the schools. Stratified sampling strategy (Patton, 1990) was utilised to select teachers who were thought to harbour rich information on the phenomenon based on two strata of 'special education' and 'ordinary' teachers. The purpose of using stratified sampling was to capture the responses of a range of participants rather than for comparison of

their responses. The overall aim of using these strategies was to arrive at a sample of four special education teachers and four ordinary teachers. This is consistent with purposeful sampling strategies described by Patton (1990).

3.5 Procedure of recruitment and selection

The description of the procedure of recruitment and selection in this sub-section is informed by the suggestions offered by Silverman (2005) on how to document a research report in a more transparent way.

3.5.1 Gaining access

Upon securing approval from the University of Cape Town's Human Ethics Committee in the Faculty of Health Sciences, and the granting of permission to conduct the study by the Ministry of Education and Skills Development in Botswana, the researcher had to prepare for data collection. The process of gaining access to schools was somewhat more intricate than was previously thought.

Janesick (1998) pointed to the sensitivity of access and entry in qualitative research; the author described the process as dependent on the establishment of trust, rapport and authentic communication patterns if researchers are to capture meaningful data from the participants. The researcher's negotiation into the schools allowed him an opportunity to experience the sensitivity of access and entry firsthand. Telephone communication with the head teachers of selected schools proved futile as the schools lacked reliable telephone services. Frustrated with this method of communication, the researcher had to establish a more viable strategy to reach the schools.

The researcher had to physically visit the schools and make appointments with the head teachers to introduce himself and share the intentions of the study. Luckily, the researcher had become familiar with key informants through participation in professional activities such as public discussions; this meant many teachers would easily identify the him. Secondly, he attended a signing ceremony on implementation of inclusive education which provided an opportunity to interact with teachers, some of whom proved to be key leads to accessing their schools. These two events acted as a conduit for easy access

to the head teachers. Hoepfl (1997) reflects on the use of contacts in gaining successful access to situations.

Upon gaining entry, a detailed letter explaining the purpose of the study and requesting permission to interview teachers in the particular school was delivered to the head teacher. Any issues arising from the information were clarified. The head teachers would then refer the researcher to the heads of respective departments with whom he was to deal directly in identifying the most resourceful teachers in accordance with his selection criteria. This correlates with the process of gaining access upon entry and as suggested Hoepfl (1997). It proved important in saving the potential participants' time as the researcher had prior information before meeting them. Teachers recommended by the heads of departments were then contacted individually. The selection criteria were explained and those meeting such criteria and willing to take part in the study were invited to participate. An appointment for individual interviews was made with each teacher taking into consideration their available time, with the researcher displaying flexibility on his part.

3.6 Sample size

A total of eight teachers across two schools participated in the study. Taking into account the focus, time, and the means available to undertake the study, this sample was considered desirable. The first few interviews were used as a guide to narrow the study into a manageable number of interviewees. This is consistent with the assertions by Strauss and Corbin (1998) and was informed by the suggestions by Patton (1990:60) that "there are no strict criteria for sample size in qualitative research methodology ... depends on the purpose of the inquiry and what information will be most useful ... will have the most credibility". The purpose of this study was to gain in-depth understanding of the phenomenon under investigation from the perspective of teachers' experiences in the particular schools.

TABLE 1. DESCRIPTION OF THE PARTICIPANTS AND THE SCHOOLS CONTEXT

SCHOOL	TYPE	SPECIAL EDUCATION TEACHERS	'ORDINARY' TEACHERS	TOTAL
A	Mainstream primary with special education unit	2	2	4
B	Mainstream primary with special education unit	2	2	4
	TOTAL	**4**	**4**	**8**

3.7 Data collection

3.7.1 Time period

Data collection was spread over a four-week period between 13 July and 12 August 2010.

3.7.2 Method: In-depth semi-structured interviews

This study used interviews as the primary strategy in data collection in accordance with suggestions by Bogdan and Biklen (1982). The choice of in-depth semi-structured interviews was highly influenced by the research aim and objectives. A semi-structured approach to in-depth interviewing (Jarratt, 1996) allowing coverage of the three dimensions of inclusion was adopted in this study. In-depth interviews are said to elicit penetrating responses with the aim of arriving at an interpretive perspective (Mack et al. 2009). The main purpose of using in-depth semi-structured interviews was to elicit focused individual perspectives of teachers on inclusion of disabled learners.

In-depth semi-structured interviews have been preferred in eliciting people's perspectives, beliefs, views and opinions as they allow access to participants' thinking (Luft & Roehrig, 2007). It should however be noted that as Janesick (1998) argues, in qualitative research, the ability of the researcher to assume the role of an instrument helps capture the deeper meaning of the participants' point of view. During the process of this study, the in-depth semi-structured technique helped the researcher to sharpen his skills as he endeavoured to capture a comprehensive interpretation of the teachers' perspectives on inclusion of disabled learners. The researcher displayed a good

knowledge of the research subject and was honest in disclosing information about the research. He was also patient with the participants and took time to listen to what they had to say. These acts were useful in building a trusting relationship between the researcher and the participants.

3.7.3 Data collection process

The researcher usually arrived at the interview site a few minutes earlier than agreed with the participants. This allowed time for him to acquaint himself with the new environment and to check the tools and instruments to ensure they were in good order. The researcher also spent time to engage in what Schostack (2006:49) referred to as "quasi simulation of the interview in mind". This was meant to prepare him and make himself comfortable in line with the suggestion by Morse (1998:75) that "when the researcher no longer feels uncomfortable in the setting and can relax and focus on what is happening instead of him or herself, then the stage of productive data collection begins".

Before starting the interviews the researcher would initiate a casual conversation to relax the participant. The participant information sheet containing details of the study and the rights of the participants was then presented and the participants allowed time to read through and seek clarifications. Once the participants were satisfied with the information, they were requested to sign a written consent form in order to allow the interviews to begin. A verbal request to record the proceedings of the interviews was made to each interviewee before formally starting the interviews.

3.7.4 The interview process

Interview questions were posed according to three content areas: the teachers' conceptualisation of disability and inclusion, their perspectives on educational placement of disabled learners and perspectives on the types of support necessary for inclusion of disabled learners. Formal interviewing proceeded with warm-up questions to make the interviewees comfortable. A logical progression of the interview process was adopted with easier general questions in the beginning, gradually moving to more in-depth questions and eventually winding up with straightforward questions at the end to relax the interviewee. Meaning of the questions and answers involved were explored through

probing and any misunderstandings checked immediately. Examples of useful types of probing content and clarification used were *could you please tell me more ...; this is what I thought I heard, did I understand you correctly?*

In semi-structured interviews, researchers have the freedom to probe beyond the answers to their prepared questions (Berg, 2001; Gray, 2004). As Schostack (2006) suggested, the researcher made efforts to make the interview process take the form of a discussion rather than a strict question and answer interaction. The interview proceedings were recorded using a digital voice recorder and voice recording computer software while observations about the interview content, the participant and context were noted down by the researcher. This is in accordance with the assertion by Mack et al. (2009:30) that "interview data consists of tape recordings, typed transcripts of tape recordings and interviewer's notes". Patton (1990:348) propounded that a "tape recorder is indispensable" in an interview. The author adds that recording has an advantage as it captures the data much better than hurriedly written notes. However the caution by Lincoln and Guba (1985) to guard against the possibility of technical failure should not be overlooked. In this study, two recording instruments were utilised to ensure back-up in case of failure on one part.

3.7.5 Data collection schedule

A schedule for the interviews was made before commencing on data collection. This tentative interview plan was drawn after gaining entry to schools and access to the participants. The research tools and instruments were assembled and appointments made with respective participants. The schedule was to serve as a guide to the data collection process rather than a strict protocol that had to be adhered to. Where there was need, a follow-up session was arranged in agreement with the participants to clarify the previous interview and/or to conduct a further in-depth interview. The interviews continued until there was no new information was emerging (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). An estimated total of twelve hours was used on data collection with around eight hours utilised in the initial interviews and four hours in follow-up interviews. Random numbers are assigned as indicated in the matrix below to protect the identity of the participants.

TABLE 2. THE INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

DATE	TIME	PARTICIPANTS
13/07/2010	11.00 AM to 12.00 Noon	Participant VIII
15/07/2010	2.00 PM to 4.00 PM	Participant III and Participant IV
20/07/2010	2.00 PM to 3.00 PM	Participant II
27/07/2010	2.00 PM to 4.00 PM	Participant V and Participant VI
22/07/2010	3.00 PM to 4.00 PM	Participant VIII
29/07/2010	2.00 PM to 4.00 PM	Participant III and Participant IV
03/08/2010	2.00 PM to 4.00 PM	Participant I
05/08/2010	10.00 AM to 11.30 AM	Participant VII
12/08/2010	2.00 PM to 3.30 PM	Participant II

3.8 Data analysis

Informal data analysis began following the first incident of data collection and transcription then progressed accordingly with each subsequent incident. As Miles and Huberman (1984) suggested, interim case summaries on responses to the research questions was drafted after the first week of data collection and shared with the researcher's supervisors. Gaps and weaknesses revealed by the summary were used to guide planning of the subsequent data collection and coding. This interactive cyclical process of data collection proved profitable as it provided new data to fill up identified gaps (Miles & Huberman, 1984).

The process of extracting sense from the raw data (Merriam, 1998) started with verbatim transcribing of the tape recordings. The search for patterns involved breaking the data down into smaller and more manageable units (Bogdan & Biklen 1982). Analysis focused on responses of individual participants to each question. The researcher read through the transcribed data several times through a process of immersion (Ayres, Kavanaugh & Knafl, 2003) and impressions were written down as a way familiarising himself with the texts. Powell-Taylor and Renner (2003) recommended gaining a good

understanding of the data through reading and re-reading for better analysis, while Miles and Huberman (1984) suggested trying to put different pieces of data into recognisable clusters (making memos). This corresponds to open coding described by Strauss and Corbin (1990). In this study, descriptive as well as interpretive codes were used to summarise, organise and categorise chunks of data and to search for deeper meaning as analysis evolved. During the process of breaking down the data into manageable chunks, the researcher colour coded data from each participant differently for easy identification.

Data from each question was grouped together into carefully generated categories. This is consistent with "categories in the centre of analysis" described by Mayring (2000:5). Similarly, as Strauss and Corbin (1990) suggested, conceptual categories were developed to allow for easy grouping and identification of data. Similar words were grouped into the same category and where the need arose, the categories were divided into sub-categories, modified or replaced in the process of analysis. Mayring (2000) suggested working through the material, revising categories and eventually reducing them to main categories while checking for reliability, while Hoepfl (1997) maintained that categories could be modified or replaced during the subsequent stages of analysis. Inferential codes were developed to illustrate emerging patterns/themes within categories or cutting across categories as data collection and analysis progressed and continued until no new themes were identified.

The process of analysis was inductively conducted to allow for emergence of the categories and/or themes from the data (Patton, 1980). This allowed the researcher an opportunity to begin to build a clearer picture of the data (Strauss & Corbin 1990). Within categories, descriptions were used to uncover key ideas expressed, similarities and differences in the responses. Themes which appeared to be more important were revealed through relative importance while relationships among the themes were uncovered through underpinning data. This is consistent with suggestions by Miles and Huberman (1994), Creswell (1998), Powell-Taylor and Renner (2003) and Granehelm and Lundman (2004).

This analysis led to a summary that provides knowledge and understanding of teachers' perspectives on inclusion of disabled learners. In chapter four, analysed data is represented by detailed texts with organised displays in the form of modelled diagrams. Quotes and descriptive examples are used as data representation devices.

3.9 Rigour and trustworthiness

This study adhered to the criteria for judging the quality of a qualitative study as proposed by Guba and Lincoln (1989). The four criteria as suggested by the authors are: truth value; applicability; consistency; and neutrality commonly referred to as credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability respectively.

TABLE 3. TRUSTWORTHINESS

Criteria	Strategies
Truth Value/Credibility	To ensure credibility, transcribed data was subjected to review by the participants to indicate their satisfaction with the accuracy of the transcripts. The researcher had regular contact with the participants during the interview processes, and constantly referred back to the participants for clarifications. These practices are said to improve the credibility of a qualitative study (Guba & Lincoln, 1989). Credibility was further enhanced through selecting participants with various experiences (special education and ordinary teachers) to allow for diverse opinions on the phenomenon being investigated (Patton, 1987). The use of in-depth semi-structured interviews allowed for access to richer information from the participants thus increasing the credibility of the study (Granehelm & Lundman, 2004).
Applicability/Transferability	A detailed description of the context "mainstream primary schools with special education units in Botswana", time and the place of the study are provided in this report. This is meant for better understanding of the make-up of the context to position the findings as representative of similar contexts (Denzin & Lincoln, 1998). Further enhancement of transferability is offered in this report through the rich presentation of the findings and the use of appropriate quotations (Granehelm & Lundman, 2004).
Consistency/Dependability	A close examination of the data during collection and analysis to account for any biases and identify any irrelevant information was done. The transcripts from the

Criteria	Strategies
	audio-recordings were shared with the researcher's supervisors to allow for a review of the analysis process. The setting up of an audit trail to enable tracing back of data to the source during the process of data analysis was another way that dependability was ensured in this study (Guba & Lincoln, 1989).
Neutrality/Confirmability	This was observed through tracking of the raw data and checking the transcribed data with the participants and interrogation of the data analysis and the logic used to arrive at interpretations. This attempt to ensure neutrality was meant to limit biased influences (Krefting, 1991). However, the researcher was interpreting the responses of the participants fairly as supported by substantiating text in this report.

3.10 Ethical considerations

The basic ethical principles were observed during the course of this study. In general terms, ethics is taken to refer to questions of right or wrong (Frankel & Wallen, 1993). In education, ethics involves taking into consideration the well-being and welfare of the participants so as not to cause any harm during the research process (Lankshear & Knobel, 2004). All ethical considerations observed in this study are commensurable with the revised Helsinki Declaration of 2008.

3.10.1 Respect for autonomy

Respect for autonomy entailed giving weight to the participants' considered opinions and choices. Before conducting the study, an approval was sought and granted by the Human Research Ethics Committee in the Faculty of Health Sciences, University of Cape Town (HREC REF. 269/2010) and a permit obtained from the Ministry of Education and Skills Development in Botswana (REFERENCE E1/20/2 VIIII [12]). Letters requesting permission to conduct the study were written to the head teachers of the selected schools and formal introduction of the project undertaken physically by the researcher.

Informed consent was obtained from each of the participants before conducting the interviews and all those who chose to participate did so voluntarily and upheld a right to withdraw from the study without any penalty. Informed consent is fundamental in the respect for autonomy as it makes research ethically acceptable even in the midst of troubling situations (Zion, Gillam & Loff, 2000). The participants were individually informed about the research project, what it was about and what was required of them, and any potential harm was discussed. Concerns raised by the participants were clarified by the researcher. No untruthful information was conveyed to the participants. The researcher endeavoured to keep appointment times and whenever there was a possibility of delay, it was communicated to the participants well in time.

Confidentiality was maintained and only the researcher had custody of the information confided to him by the participants. Names of the participants and their schools were not revealed in any way in the research report. This practice is consistent with recommendations by Zion, Gillam and Loff, (2000) and Gillon (1994).

3.10.2 Beneficence and non-maleficence

Efforts were made to secure the well-being of the participants through maximising any possible benefits while minimising possible harm. The participants and their schools will receive a copy of the report on this research. Any risk of discomfort or harm was guarded against during the research process. Information obtained from the participants was managed to build a case towards achieving the socially important aim of 'quality education for all learners' that could not otherwise be realised. These principles are consistent with arguments by Polit and Beck (2008) and Vasquez (2003).

3.10.3 Justice

Justice is described as the moral obligation to act fairly when faced with competing claims (Gillon, 1994). During the process of this study, fairness was observed while any conflict of interest was avoided; no undue burden was imposed on the participants. To ensure justice, the criteria for selecting teachers were based on their experience in interacting with disabled learners and their willingness and ability to provide rich information on the phenomenon under review. This was also relevant for the production of study results that would be valuable to the society and that would not have been

realised otherwise. Agreement to participate in this study was on the basis of volition without any coercion or undue influence. The researcher was also keen to listen to the voices of the teachers and any concept or heading in this report that is based on contributions of an individual participant, was done in agreement with the participant. This is consistent with what was suggested by Orb, Eisenhauer and Wynaden (2000).

Methodological rigour was maintained during the process of data collection and analysis to ensure fairness in reporting and to avoid bias. Fairness was observed through adhering to a display of understanding where the participants were unable to honour appointments due to unavoidable circumstances. As an act of fair reciprocity, all participants are going to receive a copy of the research report. Justice was also observed through adhering to a process of interpretation that was informed by the data, rigorous and which is reported against a conceptual framework.

3.10.4 Respect for potential and enrolled participants

In the process of this study, all potential and enrolled participants were treated with respect including those who declined to take part in the project; this is consistent with suggestions by Emanuel, Wendler and Grady (2000).

The following chapter details all the research findings.

Research Findings

Introduction

In this chapter, the results are presented in relation to the three objectives of this study: (1) to describe teachers' conceptualisations of disability and inclusion; (2) to describe teachers' views on the educational placement of disabled learners; and (3) to describe teachers' views on the types of support necessary for the inclusion of disabled learners.

Results

Following analysis of the interview data, four main patterns linked thematically to the research objectives.

- Theme 1: Locating disability within the learners was framed by objective 1 – teachers' conceptualisation of disability and inclusion.
- Themes 2 and 3: discontentment with inclusive education as the most suitable educational placement for disabled learners, and criticism of special education units correspond with objective 2 – teachers' views on educational placement of disabled learners.
- Theme 4: Useful support is linked to objective 3 – teachers' views on the types of support necessary for inclusion of disabled learners, where the most useful support was conceptualised as government contributions, charitable donations and parental commitment.

An additional 4 patterns were identified and linked with the third theme, since they strengthen the discussion on special education units. The special education units in Botswana were criticised for: (a) lack of clear transition planning for disabled learners; (b) lack of good quality education; (c) causing tension between teachers; and (d) praised for promoting inclusive practices.

4.1 Perspectives on disability and inclusion

4.1.1 Conceptualisation of disability

Generally, the perspectives of teachers on disability reflected an understanding of the problem as embedded in the learner who has an impairment.

Disability, a deviation from the norm?

The dominant thrust among the teachers suggested an understanding of disability as something emanating from the learner's inability to perform a given task at a level commensurate with that which is perceived as 'normal' for their age and/or level.

> *[D]isability is ... whereby children cannot cope well with those of their age mates in the learning in a particular class or in a particular syllabus* (Ppt VIII).
>
> *[D]isability is when somebody is not able to perform like a normal ...* (Ppt V).
>
> *A pupil with Disability I will say is any pupil who ... is having any impairment which will ... disturb, or which will make it difficult for that pupil to learn at the ... right pace* (Ppt III).

The teachers seemed to amplify learner-centred factors such as limitations related to physical, intellectual, speech and behavioural impairments when conceptualising disability.

> *I mean to say disability as a whole is whereby somebody lacks certain abilities ... there are those kids who are not able to grasp anything from education* (Ppt IV).
>
> *We cannot use a board, these kids, the concentration span is just too low* (Ppt V).
>
> *Some of our pupils ... the fine motor skills they are not yet developed, most of them they cannot even hold a pencil ... some have got speech problems ... it is time-consuming to teach somebody whose brain is not functioning like yours ... they just listen to you for five minutes* (Ppt VII).
>
> *[C]hildren will be diagnosed that they cannot read and write … that is children are not able to cope well in learning in the school* (Ppt VIII).

Need to change learners in order for them to fit into the school

Learner attributes were also implicated as central in the failure to facilitate learning for disabled learners. The general understanding was that it was the disabled learner who presented the greatest challenge to his/her own education with some teachers

suggesting segregated learner preparation as a foundational intervention before inclusion.

> *They should be kept in a special place or unit where they are taught to cope up with the syllabus basing on their ability and the pace of learning…… to help them to be in a situation to think logically in a way that they can score better marks* (Ppt VIII).

> *My recommendation is that after that, that is when they can be taken into the normal schools, after having a foundation from a special school* (Ppt IV).

> *I think ... we must look at ... the extent of the disability, that is when we can decide ... these ones can be included in the normal schools* (Ppt III).

> *... some specialists there who deal with an individual ... they are still developing there so I don't think inclusion is necessary* (Ppt V).

Those with severe disabilities as abnormal and needing extra intervention and support

The results reflected that teachers perceived learners who were thought to have severe disabilities as presenting a challenge that needed additional support at all times and were not capable of coping in an inclusive setting.

> *[T]he one who is using a wheelchair, the one who needs to be taken to the toilet, that one needs a teacher aide and special need at all time; so that one will obviously need to be placed in a school where there is a special unit* (Ppt III).

> *No, inclusion can only take place for those ones who have mild retardation like here we have ... the severe ones, most of them they can't even roll in the class* (Ppt VII).

Disabled learners not academically able to cope in a mainstream class

Teachers expressed low expectations in academic achievement of those learners perceived to have a disability.

> *They are intellectually challenged they can't grasp, most of them they can't grasp even a sentence and try to connect it to what you are saying* (Ppt I).

> *Even if you can try anything, academically they can't, they can't get anything* (Ppt VI).

> *There is nothing that you can do, because the thing is they cannot get anything even if they are taught every day ... if you have children of those who are fast and those who are slow, it makes the teaching and learning very difficult because they are not reading at the same pace* (Ppt VIII).

> *Academically he can go up to form three but you are sure….. is not going to be a good pass. Ppt **V:***

It's only that they don't know why they are kept isolated ... they just want to come here and get zeros and get to standard seven because they will be given certificates even if they have not performed well (Ppt VIII).

FIGURE 1. BARRIERS TO INCLUSION EMBEDDED WITHIN THE LEARNER

4.1.2 Understanding of inclusion: *inclusive education … is when we integrate them*

The participants seemed to lack a clear understanding of the concept of inclusive education and its peculiar agenda of advancing good quality education for all learners irrespective of level of disability. The views expressed by the participants are illustrated under the following sub-headings.

Inclusion only for some

According to the participants, only learners with mild disabilities could be considered for inclusion. However, the views expressed demonstrated the lack of a clear demarcation between the concept of inclusive education and that of integration.

Inclusion can only take place for those ones who have mild retardation ... here they are mild, even next term we want to integrate them Ppt VII).

Inclusive education is when we integrate them in normal classes … not separating them as it is done right now (Ppt II).

The educable, that is the last group in the special class whereby we prepare them for inclusion, we prepare them for integration (Ppt VI).

Depending on the level of disability, disabled learners could only be included in certain subjects

Some of the views about disability and inclusion suggested that inclusion was only necessary in particular subjects that the disabled learner could cope with, depending on the level of disability.

There are certain subjects, whereby they can be brought together; looking at the level of disability they can be brought together and be taught in the same area. (Ppt V).

Inclusion is that we are including them; we are bringing those that we think are having the ability to learn. (Ppt VIII).

4.2 Perspectives on educational placement

4.2.1 Views on inclusive education: *... inclusive education, I don't think it is going to work*

Although the participants in this study generally welcomed the concept of inclusion of disabled learners, they had reservations in recommending it as the preferred educational placement that would fully cater for the needs of disabled learners. Their opinions which could as well be argued as barriers to inclusion are represented under seven interrelated subthemes discussed below.

Disabled learners have to be on their own

The participants' views seemed to lean towards having disabled learners receive education in segregated schools rather than in an inclusive setting with some suggesting categorised schools according to disability.

… so that we know that at ... school A we are dealing with those who are mentally retarded, at school B we are dealing with those who are blind, at school C we are dealing with those who ...(Ppt III).

> *I want them to be on their own ... they must have their own classrooms with their own facilities* (Ppt VII).

> *If the government could try by all means … to have four special education units in each ... village* (Ppt IV).

Disabled learners need special teachers

The results indicated that the participants were of the opinion that disabled learners could only be effectively taught by teachers who have been trained in special education.

> *I am special in mental retardation which means nobody who is not trained can handle such kids* (Ppt V).

> *We are forced to take just an ordinary teacher who doesn't know anything about special education* (Ppt VI).

> *I find ... it is correct that these people with special ... who need special attention be give special attention by special teachers* (Ppt III).

Teachers in mainstream schools not qualified and/or prepared to teach disabled learners

The common understanding among the participants was that the majority of teachers in mainstream schools were not qualified or fully trained to teach learners identified as disabled. This situation was thought of as an impediment to implementing inclusive education.

> *But me, I don't have that qualification to help that kind of a child ... right now I am doing that, but I should think I am not supposed to ... just because I don't have that foundation, or just background of special education, I have got a problem* (Ppt IV).

> *... some teachers* [it] *is a challenge ... since they don't have any education on these kids ... if the teacher has ... the skills, knows about these kids, that is when inclusive education can work* (Ppt VI).

> *At what we call normal classes, you find out that the teachers who are there are not fully trained to accommodate ... those ones with disabilities* (Ppt III).

> *They will say "ah, how am I going to teach him or her, what am I going to do because I am not a specialist teacher"* (Ppt II).

Disabled learners presumed to have difficulties coping with the demands in mainstream classes

The participants expressed fear that due to the demands presented by the contemporary methods of instructing learners, that it would be difficult for the disabled learners to cope in an inclusive classroom and that they may retard progress in the syllabus.

> *I don't know, maybe the class has to have maybe two or three teachers because I don't know how they are going to cope* (Ppt VI).

> *Now they are specialising; one other time somebody will be teaching science and the next time he will be moving to another class. Imagine where will these kids be ... I think they are going to be neglected, I don't think it is going to work* (Ppt VII).

> *You have to meet your target ... there is a regional testing, imagine ... you are still doing addition and subtraction and the whole region is on multiplication and division* (Ppt I).

Ignorance and lack of interest by stakeholders

Lack of interest and commitment by teachers and other stakeholders was identified as a potential barrier to the inclusion of disabled learners.

> *They can't even cater for the special units that they have right now, so I don't know what is going to happen* (Ppt VI).

> *Even the teachers, they are not aware of disability; they just know ... someone is disabled. But when it comes to the education they are ignorant, they are not interested, they just see them as disabled kids there* (Ppt V).

Implementation of inclusive education perceived as problematic

The results of this study reflect a consensus on the nobility of including disabled learners in mainstream schools. However, the implementation process is presumed to be problematic with some envisaging difficulties in accommodating each and every disabled learner. The participants viewed inclusive education as a 'state' that could only be achieved once the community had been sensitised and teachers received education on disability and inclusion. A variation in conceptualising inclusion was nevertheless noted with participants' interpretations of inclusive education seemingly more aligned to the concept of integration.

> *Inclusion is a good idea but at the same time ... I don't think it is going to be easy* (Ppt VI).

it is still going to be difficult for the teacher to be able to prepare and accommodate everything for this one who needs special attention (Ppt III).

... only when people ... are sensitised on it and teachers ... have some courses about the special education or about disability (Ppt V).

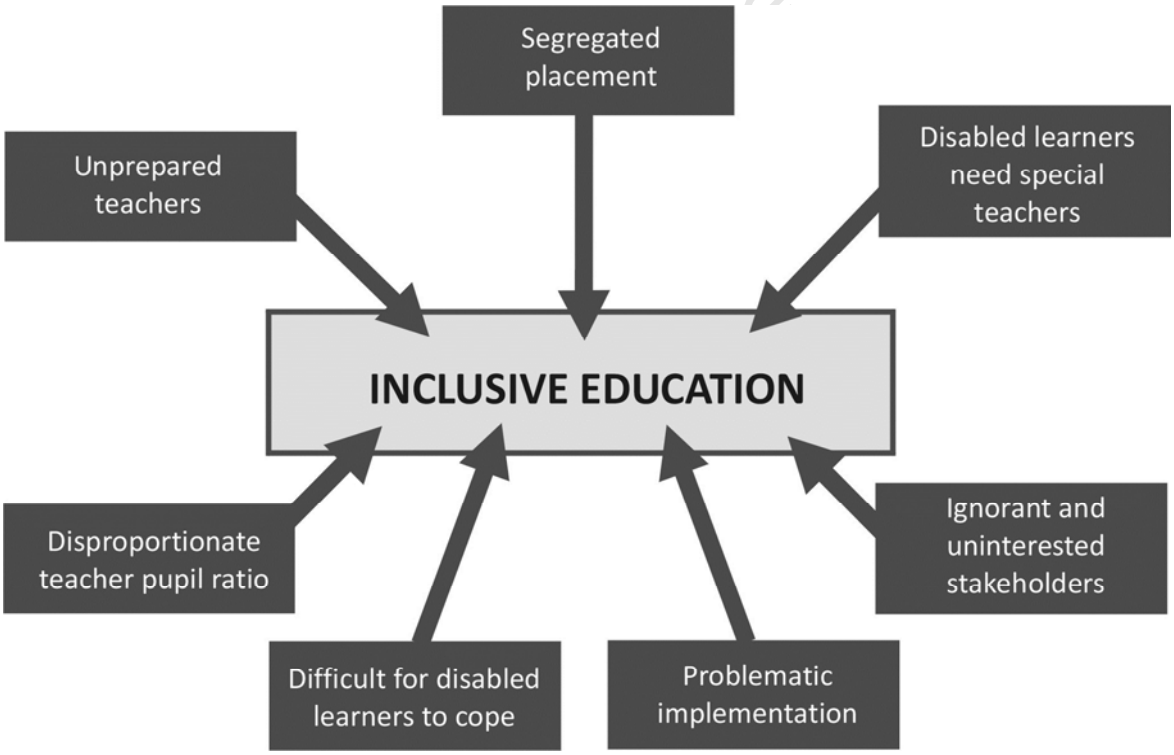
The current teacher pupil ratio a barrier to inclusion

The participants indicated that due to unfavourable teacher pupil ratios, inclusive education may not be a viable idea.

Where there is a special unit ... the ratio of those who are disabled per teacher, for example ... one teacher is to fifteen ... but that is not the case in what we call the normal schools (Ppt III).

You find that I am teaching thirty ... I think [it] *is a hell of a number. I should plan an IEP ... I should monitor every kid* (Ppt V).

FIGURE 2. BARRIERS TO INCLUSIVE EDUCATION



4.2.2 Views on special education units

Transition: *... some children stay in school till they are twenty years ...*

The issue of transition through to different levels by the disabled learners seemed obscure with participants expressing mixed opinions as to how such learners were expected to transition through in their educational lives.

Disabled learners coming of age and leaving school

There seemed to be an agreement among the participants that disabled learners tended to take unnecessarily long in primary schools, consequently coming of age, getting bored and eventually leaving.

> *The elderly ones ... the oldest is twenty-seven ... they get bored ... he or she will be in a stimulation class for a long time ... at the end he gets bored and he leaves school* (Ppt VI).

> *Some children stay in school for long, till they are … twenty years, twenty one years in our school ... the other one he just left, he said ... I just want to go to the lands because I am a grown-up, because ... easily they don't transit, he said ... I just want to go to the lands* (Ppt II).

> *When they are taught in the same class in the same area for a long time so as time goes on they will get bored and they will tell their parents that they don't want to come to school anymore* (Ppt VIII).

Lack of resources hampering the transition process

The common feeling was that disabled learners were not having their transitional needs adequately addressed due to lack of the necessary resources and considerations.

> *Those ones who are able to cook the stove ... must be there so that when they want to make stew they can just learn on the day when we are talking about methods of cooking* (Ppt VII).

> *He is a Down Syndrome ... but doesn't mean he cannot do with his hands so it means that ... he should be catered for in his own level of intelligence ... we just take them to the garden and some of them they are not interested ... we are just forcing them* (Ppt V).

> *After finishing those ... after getting all the certificates they just file them and then they do nothing, it is really a concern* (Ppt I).

> *He can do everything but when you come and ask him ... "how do you do this?" he cannot give you convincing answers ... They went for an interview at CRC to qualify*

> *for a vocational school but they failed ... they are unable to cope with the interview, so are they not going to take extra two years here?* (Ppt VI).

Lack of a guiding syllabus on the educational preparation of disabled learners

The findings of this research point to a lack of clearly stipulated transitional objectives in educational preparation of disabled learners.

> *We work at our own pace, we can do numbers from January to December ... January up to now I am still on numbers one to ten ... we are just using the normal stream syllabus we don't have our own syllabus for special education* (Ppt I).

> *We don't even have a syllabus for these kids ... we are just taking there and there, there is no syllabus that is designed for these kids* (Ppt VI).

> *Every day we come we are writing; he doesn't get one plus one or he will get one plus one today, tomorrow is nothing. It is not good for the kids, we are not doing them justice* (Ppt V).

Learners retained in the special education units for purposes other than education

It was revealed through this study that some schools acted sympathetically by retaining or recalling disabled learners to keep them from the ills of mainstream society. One participant Indicated that they would readmit learners even after they have gone through vocational training.

> *But in most cases they go, do their vocational thing and then we see them roaming around the streets because they are prone to abuse and stuff like that, we bring them back again to the school to just keep them busy* (Ppt I).

> *It is at times a way of keeping them here so that they should not roam around and get involved in theft and other ... other businesses that can spoil their lives* (Ppt VIII).

Need for more contribution by the stakeholders

The participants felt that both the government and the parents were not doing enough to facilitate the transitional process of disabled learners.

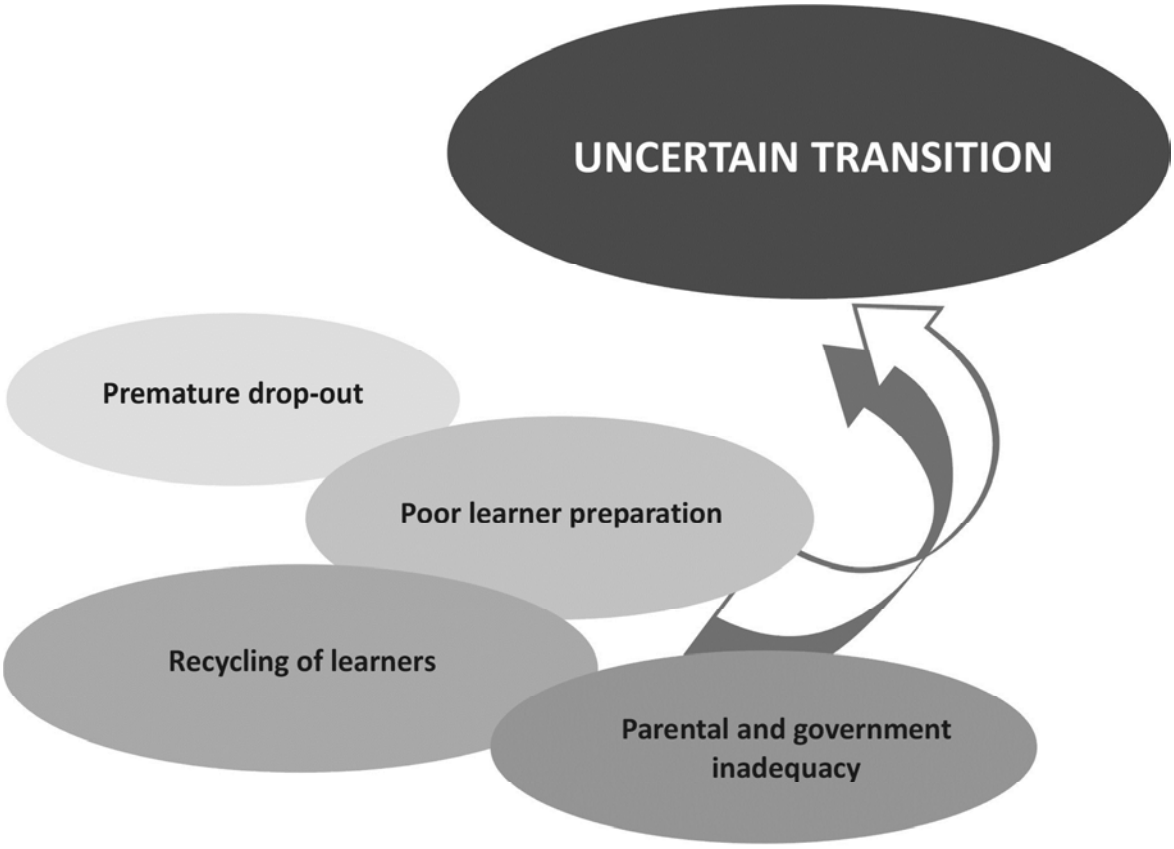
> *…they have to go for vocational, they have to go to those ... training centres but most of the parents, they refuse ... and they end up being here for many years* (Ppt VII).

> *The government has to build more vocational schools for these kids; there are no vocational schools* (Ppt VI).

There is nothing that the government is doing to take them, to fund them in opening their own workshops or hiring them somewhere in the Ministries to practice what they have been doing in the rehab centres (Ppt I).

I should think that the Ministry also should make sure that ... these children are being placed in the ... I mean they transit just like the normal ones (Ppt II).

FIGURE 3. UNCERTAIN TRANSITION PLAN FOR DISABLED LEARNERS



Meeting the learners' needs: *…they are not catering fully for these learners*

The current educational provision for disabled learners in Special Education Units was found to be lacking in addressing educational needs of such learners.

Exploitation of disabled learners, inadequate infrastructure and facilities

The participants felt that the system of having special education units was not adequately meeting the educational needs of disabled learners in terms quality and available spaces. There was an indication that disabled learners in some instances were merely brought in to increase the number of pupils in the schools.

> *It is not adequate that is why some children stay in school for a long ... till they are ... twenty years, twenty-one years, years old in our school ... They want them here for the other reason but the other reason, the important one they don't … you are paid according to the group ... group one, the head teacher and the deputy they don't earn the same salary as group three, because they have got less number ... so you find sometimes you will open a unit just for your own purpose* (Ppt II).

> *There are many kids in Botswana who need formal education ... if the government could try by all means to at least in each district ... to have four special education units* (Ppt IV).

> *They are not catering for these kids fully, especially this unit ... even this passage it is not supposed to be like this; there must be frames where these kids, those who ... are using wheelchairs but sometimes they want to walk using the walking frames, but if the frames are not there they are going to fall* (Ppt VII).

Large geographical coverage

One of the major shortcomings of the special education unit concept was identified as an attempt to cater for learners from vast geographical areas.

> *We are still very far because when you look at the unit itself it covers, it takes pupils from all over* (Ppt III).

> *Our school where we are right now, it is a catchment area of almost twelve villages of which it is not enough in terms of transport* (Ppt I).

> *They stay very far, one stays very far ... maybe it is two kilometres from here, three to five kilometres from here* (Ppt IV).

Disabled learners being excluded

The participants pointed to unreliable transport and unfavourable built environment as main factors contributing to inadequacy in providing for disabled learners through the special education units.

> *It is not catering for the … disabled like the toilets, each class should have its own toilet* (Ppt V).

> *... sometimes if transport has a problem, no schooling for that day ... Right now they are not around because of transport ... they collect them at one o'clock but I release my class at around three o'clock* (Ppt IV).

> *This unit is just a classroom, is just a classroom, no modifications* (Ppt II).

> *They are just ordinary classes, they are not done in a way whereby those kids that have wheelchairs can ... walk freely* (Ppt VI).

... because they arrive here at nine o'clock, nine up to eleven o'clock... it is quite a limited time in terms of assisting all the learners and in those few hours (Ppt I).

Slow career progression for special education teachers

Teachers expressed their displeasure with the current arrangement whereby those in the special education units were not able to make progress in their careers as fast as their counterparts in the mainstream classes. Consequentially, such teachers were unhappy and getting frustrated due to lack of motivating salaries and allowances.

We need money ... if you are a specialist you need money ... why can't we be promoted within our field? So people they are running away, they go away because they know ... if you are here you cannot not progress (Ppt V).

Teachers should be given further education on top of that ... salaries because they have got special kids. Their salaries should be more, they should be included in the scarce skills (Ppt IV).

It [career progression] *does happen, but it is very rare ... like myself, maybe I would be a head teacher right now ... is very slow, it is not like in the mainstream* (Ppt VI).

We don't have a risk allowance but imagine these kids ... some are on ARVs and they are epileptic; when they get the attack again they may end up biting (Ppt VII).

Dependence on donation and goodwill

Despite all special education units being under government schools, the common finding was that they survived on donations. The teachers felt that the government was not fully supportive in providing the equipment and materials needed in the education of disabled learners.

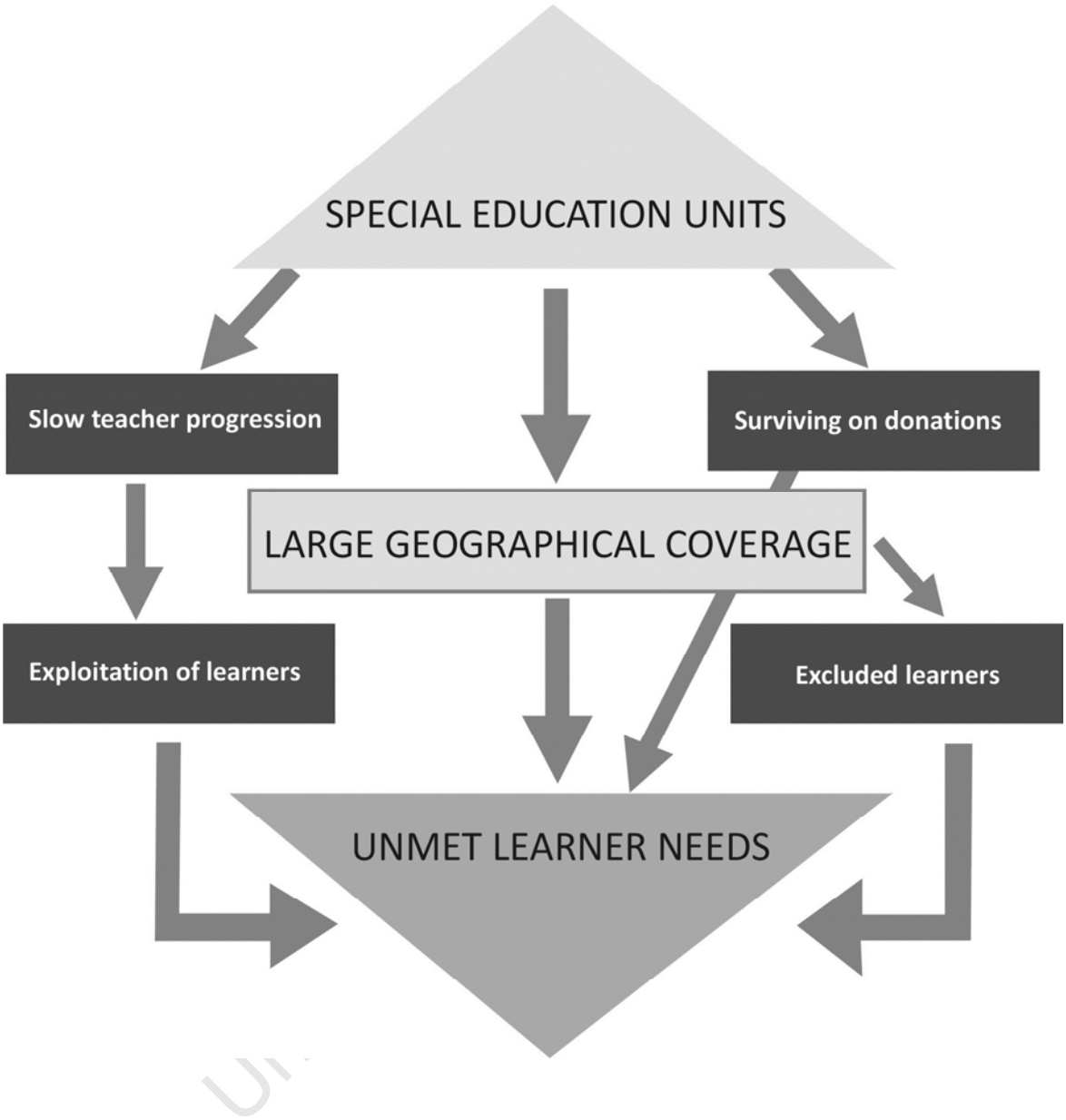
What we usually do is to depend on asking donors, donations from businessmen or companies ... like these pieces of clothes, I asked them from one lady she is a tailor (Ppt II).

We depend much on donations ... we have to improvise, we depend on donations even though we are a government school (Ppt VI).

I will say we rely mostly on the funds that the parents are donating ... in case we need machines, we need anything we ask for donations (Ppt I).

... but we just rely on these donations, when is winter they give us blankets (Ppt V).

FIGURE 4. INADEQUACY IN SPECIAL EDUCATION UNITS



Special education teachers:
... they see just a waste of time

The teachers, especially those from the special education units, felt that they were not being welcomed as equal partners in their schools. The general feeling was that their units were often regarded as separate and independent although they shared the same school compound and administrative structure.

Constant conflicts

The teachers expressed concern about the divisiveness and tension existing between the teachers in special education units and those from the mainstream school.

This division between us and them, there in not this togetherness ... the head teacher will say "no, I don't know what you are doing" then they ... say ... "you people ... the kids keep on colouring – they do this and this ..." Most of the time we are at loggerheads, and most of the time we end up crying ... if you are not treated well at the school, who can accept you? (Ppt II).

She thinks maybe you are taking advantage of being in the unit ... those teachers that haven't got special education training, eh sometimes ... it is not just easy to work with them (Ppt VI).

***...** they see just a waste of time ... the government it is just putting petrol to collect these kids ... just to come and play?* (Ppt V).

Isolated and marginalised

Teachers from the special education units expressed a feeling of being isolated from the mainstream school.

It is not like when you are in a normal class, you see that you interact too much but when it comes to our special classes there, they don't visit us ... they are scared of our kids ... nobody will be keen to know (Ppt V).

Some teachers at the normal stream, they will say that there is little that is being done at the special unit in terms of learning (Ppt I).

Trivialised and disdained

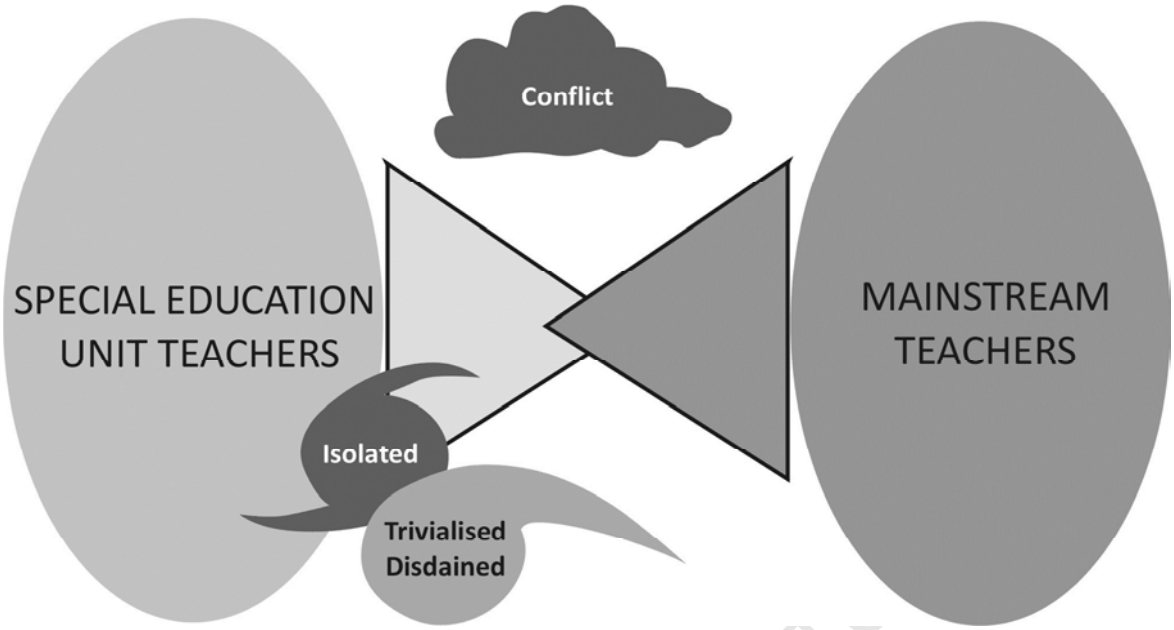
A common feeling was that the work of teachers in the special education units was often trivialised and disregarded by their counterparts from the mainstream school.

Some of them will just feel if you teach there, most of the time you are not doing anything ... it is just a resting place when you are there you are not doing anything (Ppt V).

People think in a special class we are not doing anything ... we are the last people to be catered for; when I say I need papers to photocopy ... to them it is just ... like we are playing ... posts that are supposed to be given to special education teachers are given to ordinary teachers who do not have the qualifications (Ppt VI).

When he comes here he will say, "Ah, you people, are you doing the right thing, why are these children not writing tests?" (Ppt II).

FIGURE 5. TENSION BETWEEN TEACHERS



Possibilities:

... assembly we are together, break time we are together

While the participants expressed displeasure with the special education units, they highlighted the opportunities for possible development of inclusive practices. Through the special education units, teachers and learners in mainstream schools learnt to tolerate and live with those learners presenting with different impairments.

Right to education

A dominant view among the participants was that disabled learners' rights to education should be upheld and advanced just like any other learners' rights.

> *They should be given formal education like any other child because they have rights like any other person* (Ppt IV).
>
> *They are also students, they need care, they need to be given education no matter how the situation is* (Ppt VIII).
>
> *These learners need to be taught just like any other child* (Ppt I).

Social acceptance and accommodation

One common finding was that teachers and non-disabled learners in mainstream schools with special education units learned to socialise and interact with the disabled learners.

If you say ... let's try to make this girl stand and put her in the car ... they won't run around and say ... the saliva is just coming out, no we can't help you, they just come (Ppt VII).

During assembly we are together ... break time we are together (Ppt III).

If they mix with these others, they should grow up knowing that how do we look, how do we communicate with people, how do we behave when we are with people, they grow up knowing that this person is just a human like me (Ppt V).

Their interaction is quite good looking at the fact that we have an integrated assembly … the learners there in the mainstream – now they see these learners as people who are important (Ppt I).

They go for assembly together with the whole school in the morning, and when it is break-time they play together (Ppt VI).

They interact because even the teachers we have urged them to ... make their pupils to accept these children – even the teachers to accept these children, not to fear them (Ppt II).

*Ppt **IV:** They have accepted him, and he has got some friends or I may say they have got friends* (Ppt IV).

We accept them, we help them and … give them courage and even send them ... (Ppt VIII).

Individualised teaching and learning

The participants stressed the need and importance of practising individualised teaching and learning based on the needs of the individual learner.

Even if you are disabled there all those different activities that you can take part in and perform to your best, just like someone who is not disabled Ppt III).

We dedicate our time mostly in individualised learning, that is when we feel that our learners can improve from point A to point B (Ppt I).

We try to teach them some colours and say I have coloured this one with red, you show a little bit red here, do this set with the colour I have showed you ... activities based on individual education plan (IEP) that can help that child (Ppt VII).

We will just focus in a certain area, the IEP ... he is very good in home economics, then I will focus on that when he is in my class (Ppt V).

Child to child learning: an accrual of benefits

Teachers were of the opinion that disabled learners accrued benefits from being educated alongside non-disabled learners.

> *Those kids that are partially deaf, maybe they could be benefiting from the kids, the normal kids if they were there* (Ppt VI).

> *At least if they are in inclusive classes, maybe they might learn something concerning behaviour so they can change ... we are including them, we are bringing them to those that we think are having the ability to learn* (Ppt VIII).

Disabled learner involvement and participation

The participants' views were supportive of the need to nurture the potential of disabled learners through participation and encouragement.

> *Some of them are able to take part in sports activities so they need to be encouraged ... some are good dancers they can be encouraged to get involved* (Ppt VIII).

> *They are not able to communicate well ... but they were doing some things, we gave them responsibility* (Ppt V).

> *Even one was presenting the message for that day or the theme ... They were able to interact; they answered the questions ... like any other child ... they are taking part in these activities ... In my class, both of them they are able to read* (Ppt IV).

> *They engage in sports, various activities; they can even read poems at the assembly* (Ppt I).

Collaboration between stakeholders

The results of this study reflect collaboration between different stakeholders that may promote inclusion of disabled learners.

> *We work hand in hand with the normal school to assist them with the learners that they can use to perform in various activities ... we like work as advocates in terms of having to talk to the social workers where we ask as to whether ... they can assist these learners go back to school ... we take them to rehab centre where they now do more of their skills in an advanced way* (Ppt I).

> *We heard about the child, so we tried through the social workers to go and see that kid and he is one of us here ... we also have a strong parents meeting ... we encourage them to help us ... we are working together with CRC; they are the ones that give these children to us* (Ppt VI).

> *... a class teacher, through observation she will just come to us and say come and help me observe this child, and then we say call the parent if we see there is a problem* (Ppt VII).

> *It is not supposed to be only my responsibility ... I have to work hand in hand with the parents, even the Ministry* (Ppt II).

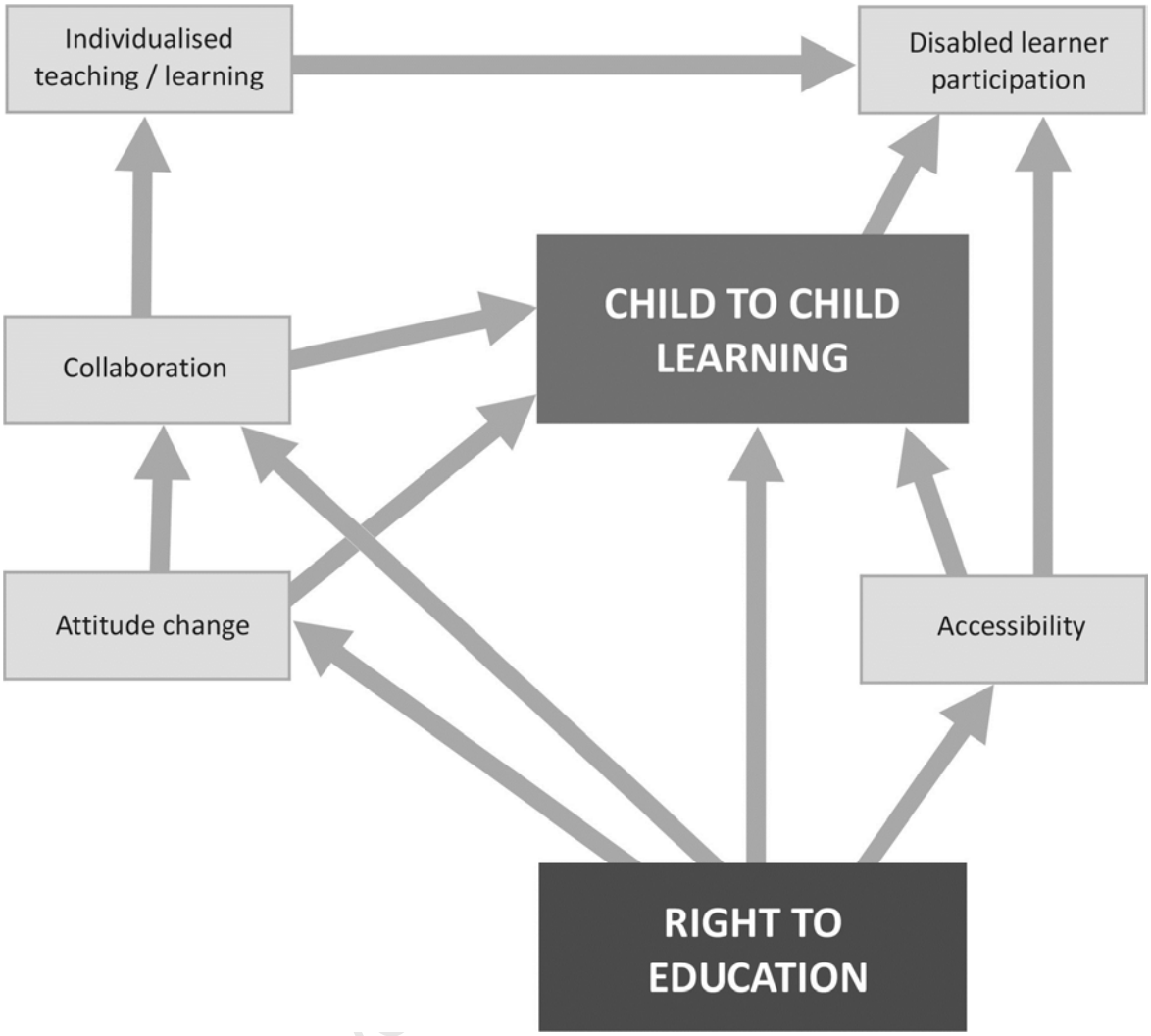
Infrastructural transformation

Some participants were of the opinion that having disabled learners in mainstream schools prompted structural adaptations in such schools to accommodate the needs of those learners.

> *They move from one place to another freely. As you can see, from the office to the special unit classes ... is paved* (Ppt VIII).

> *These ramps, they were done last year ... because the physically challenged children were not attending school* (Ppt II).

FIGURE 6. INTERLINK OF POSSIBLE INCLUSIVE PRACTICES HAPPENING IN MAINSTREAM SCHOOLS WITH SPECIAL EDUCATION UNITS



4.3 Perspectives on the types of support necessary for inclusion of disabled learners

4.3.1 The government should supply facilities: *... we should ask help from private organisations*

The participants' most shared views on the types of support that would facilitate inclusion of disabled learners centred on government contributions in terms of ensuring adequate facilities, providing personnel, favourable teacher education and better remuneration. The other equally emphasised view was the importance of charitable and

goodwill donations in facilitating inclusion of disabled learners and to a lesser extent parental participation and commitment.

Support in terms of government contribution

The participants were of the opinion that the government needed to provide adequate and relevant facilities that would enable successful inclusion of disabled learners. Providing specialist staff in schools, continuous teacher education and improving remuneration also featured as useful forms of support anticipated from the government.

> *The government should supply the facilities; they should give the schools the facilities which are relevant to this type of students. Teachers should be given further education, their salaries should be more* (Ppt IV).

> *Good infrastructure ... and training teachers, full support from the government, see to it that everything is implemented. We have these kids who need to ... who go for ... Physiotherapy. If we have such people they have to be there ... make their share so that they can support ...* (Ppt VI).

> *The speech therapists have to be here to teach those ones sign language* (Ppt VII).

> *We should get support from the government by providing us with relevant material so as to make the work easier* (Ppt VIII).

> *We need money ... if you are a specialist you need money, education-wise we need to know more about these kids, you cannot go for diploma and then that is all* (Ppt V).

> *And the support that teachers could also get is the scarce skill allowance, I think ... they should be included in the scarce skill* (Ppt I).

Charitable and goodwill donations as important forms of support

As a form of useful support, the participants were of the impression that charitable and goodwill contributions were pivotal in facilitating inclusion of disabled learners. According to the teachers such donations could include provision of the basic needs like clothing and food, and meeting other needs such as transportation of disabled learners.

> *We should ask help from the private organisations; they are giving support to these kids ... last term they were given school uniforms ... they sometimes bring food* (Ppt IV).

> *I will mention any ... kind* [of] *support looking at clothing … looking at basic needs to sustain those pupils, we ask for donations, we ask for any sorts of assistance* (Ppt III).

We had to ask from the Hope World-Wide people ... they supplied us with uniforms for boys and girls (Ppt VII).

I will say we rely mostly on the funds that the parents are donating (Ppt I).

... parents … if necessary they can even raise funds ... in order to buy a vehicle for these children to be transported (Ppt VIII).

Parental participation and commitment as a useful form of support

According to the participants, the anticipated level of support from the parents was not being achieved. The participants expected more parental commitment both in preparing their children for school and showing concern in their academic progress.

Some parents … they are lazy to bath these kids. They don't prepare the kids; they are just dumped in special, some of them they even bring kids to school without having a bath (Ppt V).

Some parents they will just accompany us and they will say "Hi this is too much work, these kids cannot even bath themselves". The parents they will be becoming very impatient, they will be saying "Eh, this is not a good job" (Ppt VII).

But sometimes the parent will just bring the child here because he is not used to ... taking the child to school. She or he forget, and we will be here up to six o'clock waiting for the parent to come and collect the child (Ppt VI).

The parents ... even when you call them for a meeting, only a few will turn up. They cannot just come to school just to come and say "Hi" (Ppt II).

FIGURE 7. THE TYPES OF SUPPORT PERCEIVED AS USEFUL FOR INCLUSION

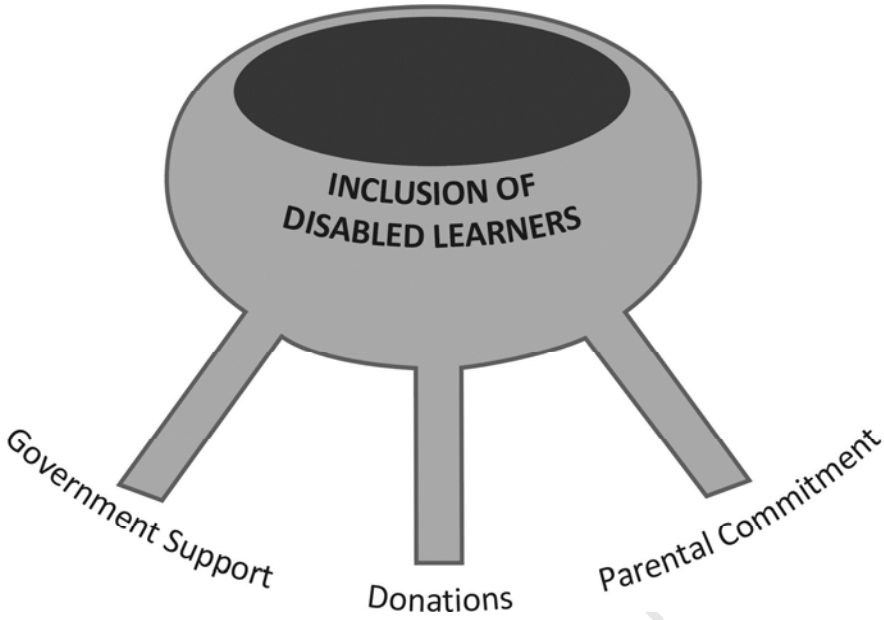


FIGURE 8. MAIN FINDINGS

In the next chapter I discuss the findings in detail.

CHAPTER FIVE

Discussion

Introduction

This Chapter offers a detailed discussion of the findings based on the results tabled in the previous chapter. A synthesis of teacher responses is tackled in relation to the three main objectives of the study: (1) to describe teachers' conceptualisations of disability and inclusion; (2) to describe teachers' views on educational placement of disabled learners; and (3) to describe teachers' views on the types of support necessary for inclusion of disabled learners.

5.1 Disablement embodied within the learner

Upon interrogating the teachers' conceptualisation of disability, the dominant emerging view was that the disabled learner was the main barrier to inclusion. The participants seemed to view the disabled learners as embodying behavioural, physical and/or intellectual functioning which were seen as incompatible with the acceptable classroom norms. Dominant views envisaged difficulties in accommodating educational needs of disabled learners within mainstream classrooms owning to their limitations. Such learners were thought as better candidates after they had been given some form of remedial intervention by specialists before they could be included. For the learners with severe disabilities, the common view was that they needed extra support and hence were not suitable for inclusion.

These findings confirm the contention by Emanuelsson (2001) who linked identification and categorisation of children to associating the source of difficulties or problems within the child. This process of identifying and grouping children often leads to

referral for specialised services. Emanuelsson refers to this as a *categorical perspective* in which the reasons for special educational needs are thought to be innately bound to the individual. The location of the main barrier to inclusion within the disabled learner observed in this study may give the teachers leeway to opt out as they do not have to deal with the learner's problems. Learners may be identified as slow and incompetent to deal with the provisions of the curriculum. This may lead to a profusion of assessments and referrals further diminishing chances of inclusion for such learners.

Regionally in South Africa, comments have been made about the radical shift in policy agenda from traditional thinking and practices of segregated to inclusive education for learners located at the margins of mainstream education. The general thinking has been, and continues to be guided by the categorical perspective whereby disabled learners are thought of as better when educated in segregated settings. Commenting on developments in inclusive education in South Africa, Naicker (2006) attributed the lack of progress to non-conforming foundational thinking towards the concept. Teachers who had been trained with the idea that they would be controllers of the classrooms had difficulties embracing the learner-centred curriculum as provided by the concept of inclusive education, and in South Africa by the radical Revised National Curriculum Statement (Department of Education, 2002) which disregarded categorisation and segregation. Based on the findings of this study, it can be postulated that similar claims could be made about the general understanding of disability among teachers in Botswana.

The teachers' views however represent a facet of institutionalised thinking about inclusion in Botswana. The Revised National Policy on Education (Botswana Government, 1994) attests to the influence of the medical discourse on education. Discussions surrounding educational provision for disabled learners within the document are characterised by phrases like *special education*, *categorisation* of disabled learners and the need for *experts* in educating disabled learners (p. 10). Teachers' thinking about disability and inclusion may be thought of as reflecting the language used in the policy on education.

5.2 Mystified conceptualisation of inclusion

Additionally, the conceptualisation of inclusive education among the teachers seemed to lack defined boundaries with aspects of integration being used to describe the term. The concepts of inclusive education and integration were viewed as synonyms and that it could only be available for a select group of disabled learners. The participants described inclusive education as only practical for those learners with mild disabilities or in particular subjects that the disabled learners could cope with. These findings correspond with others recorded in recent years. Literature on inclusive education points to a lack clarity and consistency in defining the concept (Booth, 1999). Across the world, similar findings have been reported. In Greece, Zoniou-Sideri and Vlachou (2006) also reported teachers' lack of clear interpretation of inclusive education. Within the region, corresponding findings have surfaced; in assessing teacher preparedness for inclusive education in South Africa, Hay, Smit and Paulsen (2001) found that teacher thinking about inclusion was clouded with specialised education ideas of the past era. Similarly, in Botswana, Mukophadhyay, Molosiwa and Moswela (2009) studied current inclusive education provision and practices; they reported that teachers were not very familiar with the concept of inclusive education. Adoption of new policies therefore does not guarantee immediate change in practices and attitudes. Teachers' actions and reactions towards disabled learners are informed and reinforced by the day to day practices and experiences that they have accrued over time. It is not surprising that the views of teachers in this study favour the traditional conceptualisations of disability that are prevalent in societies across the world.

The notions of integration and inclusion are often considered as synonyms despite differences in their philosophical and socio-political foundations (Vislie 2003). The concept of integration focused on reforming the systems and societal practices to make schooling accessible to large numbers of disabled learners. However it paid little attention to actual teaching and learning of such learners as it occurred in schools. On the contrary, inclusive education is more focused on the quality of education offered to disabled learners (Farell, 2000). Integration was widely promulgated between the 1960s and the 1970s while inclusive education emerged as a policy agenda in the 1990s. In an exposition of the terms 'integration' and 'inclusion' presented by Thomas (1997) and

Avramidis and Norwich (2002), a further stir to the debate is occasioned by positioning integration as dependent on the learner's ability to assimilate into an unchanged school environment, while inclusion is viewed as an endeavour to restructure mainstream schools to accommodate every learner irrespective of their disability. The perspectives of the participants in this study are suggestive of a thinking founded on the concept of integration as they tend to be more focused on disabled learners' inability to fit into unchanged mainstream schools. This mediatised or deficit-based understanding of disability promotes a model of segregation. Where this thinking is challenged, there is a tendency to shift towards integration although it has not yet received full acceptance as an educational placement option. On the other hand, inclusive education has not been realised, either in concept or in practice. However, the influential human rights discourse which has found backing among the teachers is envisaged to fuel changes towards more inclusive practices. It must however be noted that the definition of inclusive education is contested. The interpretation of the concept and the ensuing practices may vary in different countries.

5.2.1 Inclusion is not for everyone

As reflected above, the participants were hesitant to recommend inclusion for all – whereby mainstream schools will be open to all learners irrespective of their disabilities. Consistently, in their review of literature related to teachers' attitudes towards inclusion, Avramidis and Norwich (2002) alluded to widespread placement of disabled learners in mainstream schools as lacking support of many educators despite the movement being part of a broader human rights agenda. By implying that certain measures needed to be put in place before inclusion could be implemented, the views of the participants are suggestive of an understanding of inclusion as a 'state' rather than a process. This understanding has the potential to retard progress in implementing inclusive education as such a process is likely to be put on hold until the schools or the systems have reached a particular state.

Sebba and Ainscow (1996:7) offered an insight while contributing to this debate with their argument that "all schools can continue to develop greater inclusion whatever their current state". Their argument is cemented on presentation of inclusion as a continuous process through which schools adapt in order to respond to all pupils as

individuals. The findings of this study thus call for an interrogation of teacher training, both pre-service and in-service, with the aim of aligning it with the current inclusive education policy agenda. However, it must be noted that inclusive education is not an event; it is a process that takes a prolonged period of time to realise. Competency in classroom teaching alone is not sufficient for developing inclusive schools. Teachers need an opportunity to engage in the development of personal philosophies that espouse participation and achievement for all learners (Aniftos & McLuskie, 2002).

5.2.2 Implementation of inclusive education perceived as problematic

The findings of this study suggest that teachers were in favour of integrated placement for disabled learners as opposed to inclusive placement. Teachers' opinions were for an increase in the number of special education units in different schools in each village. In Botswana, integration is the most promulgated practice for the education of disabled learners in the RNPE (Botswana Government, 1994), still considered the guiding policy on education. The current provision through the special education units is considered a form of integration although in reality it effects segregation. Integration has had an enormous influence on the education policy in Botswana. It appeared in education policy with the approval of the RNPE in the early 1990s. This policy sought for integration of disabled learners in ordinary schools. Teacher views on educational placement of disabled learners may then have been influenced by the provisions in this policy. This stance is however not peculiar to Botswana. Commenting on India, Alur (2002) contended that some developing countries are still grappling with the 1980s concept of integration and mainstreaming of disabled learners. This is despite the shift in the global agenda from integration to inclusion. However it is worth noting that inclusive education is a western driven ideology that may not find a stable space within the under-resourced education systems in developing countries.

Despite the participants in this study being somewhat supportive of inclusive education as a concept, its implementation was thought of as presenting a challenge in the contemporary Botswana educational system. Issues surrounding teacher preparation, demands of the curriculum and doubts about the disabled learners' efficacies and possible deficiencies were cited as reasons for delaying its implementation. Strong opinions were expressed on the need to have specially trained teachers for disabled

learners with some participants maintaining that it was only those that had qualifications that could handle learners with particular disabilities. Other issues cited as possible impediments to inclusion were large class sizes and lack of commitment by stakeholders.

Other researchers have also reported similar findings, in a study conducted in Israel, Romi and Leyser (2006) concluded that despite student teachers' overwhelming endorsement of the inclusive education philosophy, they were concerned about behavioural problems and management issues in inclusive classrooms. Regionally in Ghana, Ocloo and Subbey (2008) observed that teachers had reservations about implementing inclusive education despite being familiar with inclusive education policy. In Finland, Kivirauma, Klemelä and Rinne (2006) observed that there was a growth in the number of learners in integrated facilities despite the rhetoric in inclusive education. Further insight into this phenomenon was offered by Warnock (2005) in his annual lecture of the General Teaching Council for Scotland. He observed that the demand for raising academic standards in secondary schools was increasingly excluding disabled learners despite the call for children with disabilities to be included in ordinary schools.

5.3 Critical evaluation of special education units in Botswana

Reflecting on the views of the participants in this study who give a critical evaluation of the special education units, the most prevalent educational placement for disabled learners in Botswana, reveals some interesting findings. While the participants view such practice as lacking in quality and in preparing the learners for transition in life it was also hailed for having promoted some inclusive practices.

5.3.1 Special education units not meeting the needs of disabled learners

This study reveals a dominant view among the participants that the current practice of having special education units within mainstream schools was not adequately meeting the needs of disabled learners. The participants described the system as lacking in providing quality education to disabled learners, providing a career structure for special education teachers and in providing resources such as personnel, transport, teaching material and an adapted built environment. Under the concept of integration, the basic

assumption was that certain system reforms would lead to changes in teaching and classroom practices (Vislie, 2003). However, this has not been the case. The special education units in Botswana are presumed to be founded on the concept of integration. Given the argument that the main agenda of integration was to open up educational institution for disabled learners without due consideration of the quality of education they received, it is no surprise that the special education units are found wanting.

In her interrogation of policy and practice of education for disabled learners in Botswana, Hopkin (2004) questioned the quality of education offered at such units while elucidating on the lack of guidelines in modifying the syllabuses, constrained transport, poor school infrastructure and absence of career structure for special education teachers. The findings of this study can thus be seen to validate the doubts expressed by Hopkin.

The participants in this study further pointed to the exploitation of disabled learners with the claims that special education units were established to increase the number of learners in particular schools. This practice was said to have a monetary connotation on the part of school heads and their deputies. According to the findings, this situation has fuelled tensions between special education and ordinary teachers. Commentators in this field have observed that special education has often been used for personal gain by players from outside. Abosi and Koay (2008) postulated that misunderstandings often arose from invasion and control of special education by individuals without relevant qualifications, interests and experience. This resulted in lack of vision in the development of special education. The findings of this study concur with these claims.

5.3.2 Lack of clear transitional goals

As revealed in this study, the absence of clear transitional goals for disabled learners offers a deeper insight into the intricacies of special education units. According to the participants, it was a common practice to keep learners in the special education units until they opted to leave of their own accord. It was also found that some learners were kept in these units to prevent them from indulging in social ills as opposed to preparing them for integration into society. In some schools, disabled learners would even be recalled back into the special units after they had completed vocational training. These

findings are an indication of a non-responsive educational system that does not take into account the needs of disabled learners. In her concluding remarks, Hopkin (2004) maintained that the Botswana Government's commitment to provide education for disabled learners was heavily manifested in the policy but the quality of education offered had no empirical support. Issues of special needs education as a contested field have been raised with claims that lack of clear understanding of the concept has led to poor provision in the developing countries (Abosi & Koay, 2008). The broad scope of the findings in this study provides an excellent springboard from which further research may be undertaken to investigate the relevance of education to the needs of disabled learners.

Based on the results of this study, the concept of inclusive education can be thought of as a pressing demand that is threatening the status quo of school organisation and practices. Change of mindset needs to take precedence over any other factor if successful implementation of inclusive education is to be achieved in Botswana. This change should not only target teachers but all the role-players, including policy makers and the communities at large. Inclusive education needs to be marketed as the contemporary policy agenda through mainstreaming the concept in all matters relating to education and training, not only of disabled learners but of the whole school communities.

5.3.3 The optimistic view of special education units

The findings of this study revealed an optimistic view of the special education units as promoters of inclusive practices. The participants' opinions seemed to suggest that the presence of disabled learners in mainstream schools may have influenced a change in attitudes of both teachers and non-disabled learners. This accordingly has created a better understanding of disabled learners who had in turn received social acceptance and accommodation in the mainstream schools. The participants evidenced this claim by citing interactive play between disabled and non-disabled learners and involvement of disabled learners in school social activities.

Other activities that were associated with the practice of inclusion are: (a) adoption of individualised teaching and learning where participants stressed the prevalent use of Individualised Educational Programmes (IEPs); (b) child to child learning where disabled

learners were thought to learn from role-models in the mainstream classes; (c) inclusion of disabled learners in sports activities; (d) viewing education as a basic human right; (e) collaboration between key stakeholders such as parents and teamwork between special and ordinary teachers; and (f) infrastructural adaptation. These practices are important in nurturing of inclusive schools.

The findings of this study provide a delineation of practices that correspond to useful inclusive practices identified by Jackson, Ryndak and Billingsley (2000). According to the researchers, the useful practices include: collaboration between general and special educators; promoting inclusive values in the school; family involvement; instructional strategies; supporting students with challenging behaviour and planning what to teach. The importance of multi-faceted practices in promoting successful inclusion of disabled learners has also featured in comments from renowned commentators in inclusive education. McDonnell (1998:200) asserted that "successful inclusion requires developing an instructional strategy that views student learning as the combined effects of instructional methods used for all students in the class and those used to meet the unique needs of each student". Others have observed that inclusive education has potential social benefits that are likely to blossom when learners are educated together (Jackson, Ryndak & Billingsley, 2000). These claims are supported by the findings of this study. The close proximity of ordinary learners and disabled learners resulting from having special education units within mainstream schools may perhaps be the reason behind these inclusive practices.

5.3 Useful support conceptualised as government, donors' and parents' contributions

The teacher views on the types of support necessary for inclusion of disabled learners varied from charitable support in terms of goodwill donations to government support in terms of ensuring adequate facilities, teaching materials and favourable teacher career structures for those teaching disabled learners. Additional voices were calling for government monitoring and evaluation, cooperation between the schools, parents and communities and the need to have specialist therapists who would intervene to assist

with the education of disabled learners. Psychosocial support to both teachers and the learners also emerged as an area of concern with participants arguing that disabled learners needed to be shown recognition by society as they are prone to many challenges. Teachers of such learners also needed psychosocial support due to the nature of the demands occasioned by their job.

A research-based draft policy for the introduction of inclusive education (Botswana Government, 2009) acknowledges school-based factors that exclude disabled learners such as lack of coordinated pastoral care, large class sizes, lack of resources, and low involvement of stakeholders. It is further stated that teacher welfare is insufficiently considered leading to low motivation in including learners. Similar tenets are expressed by Peters (2003:17) in her assertion that "all children can learn if they are given appropriate learning opportunities". She argues for working in partnerships, implementing staff development, and promoting accountability as important factors in successful inclusion. This correlates with the views expressed by the participants that cooperation between schools, parents and communities, improving teacher career structures and government monitoring were necessary in developing successful inclusive practices. Mukhopadhyay, Molosiwa and Moswela (2009) also point to inadequate resources, lack of collaboration, and insufficient institutional support as critical factors affecting implementation of inclusive education on Botswana. Additionally, the draft report on the development of education in Botswana (Botswana Government, 2008) mentions adaptation of instructional materials, teacher preparation and guidance and counselling of learners as types of support earmarked to promote inclusive education in schools.

The teacher thinking surrounding the types of support however presents a conglomeration of conflicting ideas ranging from portraying educational provision for disabled learners as charitable and in need of donations while at the same time it is presented as a right that is in need of government contributions. This may be an indication that the *charity model* marketed by charitable and religious groups during the ancient educational provision for disabled learners still has influence in the Botswana education system. This model was premised on advancing charitable interventions to educate learners labelled as uneducable and stripped off their right to education (Peters, 2003). As Oliver (1990) cautioned, the discussion on disability should not be diverted to

pitting different models against each other but rather focus on the salient issues of inequality and discrimination. The attempt here is not to demonise the charity model but rather to make visible how a thinking aligned to this model can engender exclusion. The conceptual models of disability follow incremental patterns from the preceding models. It is no surprise then that vestiges of the charity model still influence the provision of education to disabled learners in the contemporary education systems.

The juxtaposition in conceptualising the types of support may also suggest a struggle in the temporal paradigm shifts from integrated to inclusive educational provision for disabled learners. Teachers as individuals exist in a constantly changing social context fraught with a profusion of information. On the one hand, teachers may want to be seen as moving with the current while on the other hand they still espouse traditional thinking about the education of disabled learners. The views expressed about support in this study could be seen to hover between different models of providing education to disabled learners. The need for systemic restructuring is prevalent in the philosophy of integration as described by Vislie (2003), while collaboration between stakeholders is a key principle of inclusive education. Commenting on the implementation of integration in the UK, Avramidis, Bayliss and Burden (2000) pinpointed a lack of systematic restructuring of schools' organisation, disregard for teacher expertise and a lack of guaranteed resource provision as factors contributing to teachers' negative attitudes towards disabled learners. The findings of this study could thus be seen to concur with the claims made about the UK.

Arguably, a tenacity in thinking aligned to integration when relating education and disabled learners can only act to produce exclusion. In a polemic account of ways to build schools for all, Ainscow (2000:4) likened this type of thinking to "transplanting special education thinking and practice into mainstream context", a process through which he contends "schools for all cannot be achieved". The findings of this study can be interpreted as indicating that the participants are leaning towards the opinion that disabled learners as individuals needed support in order for them to be included. While this might be valid in some instances, it shows a presumption of homogeneity on the part of the categorised learners. This kind of thinking may obscure discovery of personal differences that can be nurtured to produce desirable outcomes in an inclusive setting. Inclusive education can only succeed where teachers and other stakeholders are ready to

subscribe to its principles and demands (Avramidis, Bayliss & Burden, 2000). Although support is an important component in building inclusive schools it should not be used to stigmatise and isolate disabled learners. All learners need support and furthermore, support is a chain of continuous events that has neither a definite beginning nor end. Useful support can only be judged from its level of relevance towards meeting the needs of the learners, and all stakeholders, including the teachers are players in this field.

In the final chapter, the study is concluded with some of its limitations and implications spelt out.

Conclusion, Limitations and Implications of the Study

Introduction

This chapter summarises the research findings as they relate to the study aim and objectives set in the beginning. The chapter further offers a highlight on the implications of the current study on educational provision for disabled learners, the implementation of inclusive education and on future research in education.

6.1 Conclusion

The researcher was impressed by the responses received from the participants. These made the researcher more aware of the intricate issues in the process of providing education to disabled learners. A summary of their conclusions is offered under the following sub-headings: (1) teachers' perspectives on disability and inclusion; (2) teachers' perspectives on educational placement of disabled learners; and (3) teachers' views on the types of support necessary for inclusion.

6.1.1 Teachers' perspectives on disability and inclusion

The results of this study indicated that teachers had a homogenised view of disabled learners and lacked adequate knowledge on inclusion/inclusive education. The general understanding of disability was that it was embedded within the learner with impairment and that it made it difficult for such a learner to be accommodated within the mainstream classroom. Influenced by this framework of thought, efforts to include disabled learners have the potential of being focused on trying to change the disabled

learner rather than on adapting the school practices to accommodate such a learner. The disabled learner risks being framed as a non-conformist threatening the culture of school practices. This framework also presumes homogeneity among all disabled learners thus mystifying the need for an education system that will seek to identify and nurture each individual learner's abilities and skills.

On the other hand, just like 'disability', teachers' understanding of 'inclusion' was found to be obscure. The common perception of inclusive education was that it is a 'state' that schools needed to work towards achieving. This perception fantasises the existence of an 'inclusive school' that will cater for all the needs of disabled learners, which in reality is unachievable. Fully inclusive schools do not exist but all schools can work towards being more inclusive (Sebba & Ainscow, 1996).

6.1.2 Teachers' perspectives on educational placement of disabled learners

Despite having identified some serious shortcomings in the current educational provision for disabled learners, the teachers did not seem to have any alternative suggestions. Instead, they advocated for an increase in the number of special education units in the country. Although the attempt to bring disabled learners to mainstream schools (Botswana Government, 1994) was seen as a major reform from segregated schools, some form of segregation is still being promoted. The difference is that the new form of segregation takes place within the mainstream school boundaries.

This claim is validated by the views of the participants in this study who criticised the system for lack of visionary education that would add value to the lives of the disabled learners. It has been observed from the results that there was no meaningful progress for disabled learners in the special education units and even the teachers who were assigned to these units were demotivated through uncertain career progression. Furthermore, in some schools, as the findings of this study have revealed, the special education units were merely established as means of adding to the population of learners. This was done without due consideration of the educational needs of disabled learners.

However, on a positive note, some aspects of inclusive practices have emerged as a result of having special education units within the mainstream schools. The dominant

opinions were of the view that social acceptance of the disabled learners has improved as noted in collaborative play and involvement of disabled learners in other school social activities. Teaching practices targeting individual needs of individual learners have also emerged as a result of having special education units. These practices are commensurable with the principles of inclusive education and have the potential of advancing the concept.

On the other hand, inclusive education, although viewed as a viable concept did not attract preference from teachers as the most suitable educational placement for disabled learners. The implementation of inclusive education was perceived to be problematic owing to inadequate teacher training, rigid curricula, large class sizes and presumed disabled learners' deficiencies. Availability of resources; teaching materials, transport, specialised personnel and adapted infrastructure were also viewed as challenges to inclusive education. These issues are valid and have been raised from many parts of the world (Warnock, 2005; Romi & Leyser, 2006; Ocloo & Subbey, 2008) to mention but a few. As argued earlier in this report, an ideal state of inclusive education is non-existent at present, but systems can be developed towards being more inclusive.

Compared with integration, the inclusive education concept is more threatening to the boundaries that keep disabled learners out of the education system. It challenges all the practices that exclude learners from mainstream education. The concept of integration has been manipulated to extend segregation to within the school boundaries. Disabled learners may as well be allowed in the mainstream schools, but allocated their own classroom at the back of the school. This system has been found less threatening to the overall school cultures hence attracting overwhelming acceptance.

6.1.3 Teachers' views on the types of support necessary for inclusion

The types of support that would advance the best results in the inclusion of disabled learners were conceptualised as mainly government—, donors— and parent oriented. Dominating views called for the government to act by ensuring that: (1) there were good facilities to accommodate disabled learners; (2) teachers had the right training and received better remuneration; (3) teaching materials relevant to the needs of all learners were provided; (4) specialist personnel were available in schools; and (5) there was closer monitoring of the implementation of the inclusive education process.

Donors were viewed as instrumental in providing basic needs to disabled learners including food and clothing. These views may suggest a pervasive practice that has starved disabled learners of educational materials among others. This situation has prompted teachers from the units to seeking a charitable relief as a way of supplementing the meagre resources.

Parental cooperation also appeared to be important according to the participants. The common opinions were that parents needed to participate more in the education of their children. This is also corroborated in literature as parent involvement is cited as an important element in building successful inclusive education systems (Carrington & Robinson, 2006).

6.2 Limitations of the study

Due to constraints in resources such as time and money, this study was limited to two primary schools within the southern region of Botswana. The size of the study is therefore relatively small. Another noteworthy limitation is that the study relied on interviews as the major method of data collection and teachers as the main sources of data. It could have been more rigorous if other methods such as observations and review of school documents were used to verify claims that rose through the interview data. Learners and parents from the schools would also have provided useful data.

Since the study focused on people's perspectives, there was a possibility that what was said by the participants was not a true reflection of their perspectives about the subject under investigation. The collection of data, interpretation and reporting of the findings were also subject to manipulation by the researcher to reflect his interests in the study.

The findings of this study represent perspectives from teachers in primary schools and may not be a reflection of teachers in secondary schools and tertiary institutions. As a novice researcher learning in the process, the collection, interpretation and reporting of data may be characterised with gaps.

6.3 Implications of the study

This study has identified major barriers that potentially undermine successful inclusion of disabled learners as follows:

- Lack of clear understanding of disability by the teachers;
- Nature of the working conditions of teachers;
- Lack of specialised training in disability for teachers;
- Lack of clear understanding of the concept of inclusive education;
- Lack of curriculum guidance and teaching materials;
- Lack of resources including specialist personnel;
- Large class sizes leading to unfavourable teacher pupil ratios.

6.3.1 Teacher development

Training of teachers remains a major issue in Botswana despite a rhetorical statement contained in the RNPE (Botswana Government, 1994). Although training of teachers on special education has been provided in recent years, such training is not adequately supportive of the principles of inclusive education. Special education training is mainly structured around disaggregated forms of disabilities such as intellectual impairment (commonly referred as mental retardation), visual impairment, and hearing impairment (Abosi, 2000). The ultimate results of these qualifications is production of teachers specialised in specific disabilities. While these specialists could act as resource teachers in an inclusive setting, there is need for more aggregated training on disability for all teachers to boost their confidence in inclusive classrooms.

Development of teachers can be offered through short courses during school holidays and cost-effectively through engaging non-governmental organisations and other agencies within the localities that have expertise on disability and inclusive education. For a broader understanding of disability, the content needs to be structured to appreciate the multi-faceted issues and components that impose limitations on disabled learners to fully participate in learning. This should be conducted in opposition to the limited medically oriented training which draws attention to diagnosis, causes, course, signs, symptoms and prognosis.

6.3.2 Policy development

For a better understanding of the concept, the inclusive education agenda could also be marketed and mainstreamed within the teacher development packages. The content should pay attention to the unique tenets of inclusive education and how these are likely to affect everyday teaching and learning practices. These could include the adaptation of curricula to accommodate the diverse needs of learners, the provision of support to schools implementing inclusive education, the adaptation of infrastructure and many more.

The working conditions for teachers also demands attention from the relevant authorities. This could include clear career development structures for all teachers and of particular importance a reasonable pay. In Botswana, the issue of teachers' working conditions and their impact on inclusive education was also raised by Mukophadhyay, Molosiwa and Moswela (2009) in their study on current inclusive education provision and practice. Research from other parts of the world has also supported the importance of good working conditions for teachers if they are to remain engaged in the teaching of disabled learners (Ware, Julian & McGee 2005).

Additionally, implementation of inclusive education cannot be realised in the presence of a rigid curriculum. The need then arises for the relevant authorities to provide for all learners' needs within the national education curriculum. This inclusive curriculum would guide teachers to identify and nurture the unique talents and abilities of all learners in a bid to realise desirable outcomes. A flexible curriculum will also provide for celebration of each individual learner based on personal progress as opposed to being contrasted with that of a group of learners.

Unfavourable teacher pupil ratios in other developing countries has come under scrutiny (Arbeiter & Hartley, 2002) and has been cited as a stumbling block to inclusive education. With prudent management of personnel, resources can be pulled together to ease this problem. Involvement of parents, members of the community, collaboration between special education and ordinary teachers, and availability of intern teachers are possible means of reducing the teacher pupil ratio.

The issue of specialised personnel, for example therapists also emerged as a concern in the findings of this study. Through collaboration between the Ministry of

Education, the Ministry of Health and other non-governmental agencies, therapists and other personnel can be sourced to provide the needed support to schools.

6.3.3 Systemic approach

One of the key principles of inclusive education is to promote collaboration between different stakeholders. The importance of forming inclusive community groups could then be mainstreamed within the teacher development programmes. Teachers could be encouraged to advocate for support groups comprising of themselves, parents and community leaders that would work together to oversee smooth implementation of inclusive education.

6.3.4 Future research

Finally, there is a need for research to highlight the gaps that exist between current teacher development and the principles of the inclusive education agenda. A replication of this study using a wider sample of teachers from schools drawn from wider geographical regions may provide more useful information on teachers' perspectives on inclusion of disabled learners.

References

Abberley, P. 1987. The concept of oppression and the development of a social theory of disability. *Disability, Society & Handicap*, 2 (1), pp. 5–18.

Abosi, O.C. 2000. Trends and issues in special education in Botswana. The *Journal of Special Education*, 34 (1), pp. 48–53.

Abosi, O.C. & Koay, T.L. 2008. Attaining development goals for children with disabilities: Implications for inclusive education. *International Journal of Special Education*, 23 (3), pp. 1–10.

Adams St Pierre, E. 2000. Poststructural feminism in education: An overview. *Qualitative Studies in Education,* 13 (5), pp. 477–515.

Ainscow, M. 2000. The next step for special education: Supporting the development of inclusive practices. *Journal of Special Education*, 27 (2), pp. 76–80.

Ainscow, M., Jangira,N. & Ahuja, A. 1995. Education: Responding to special needs through teacher development. In P. Zimkin & H. McConachie (eds.) *Disabled children and developing countries.* London: MacKeith Press, pp. 131–146.

Alloway, N. 1995. *Foundation stones: Construction of gender in early childhood*. Carlton: Curriculum Corporation.

Alur, M. 2002. They did not figure: Policy exclusion of disabled people in India. *International Journal of Inclusive Education,* 6 (2), pp. 101–112.

Aniftos, M. & McLuskie, L. 2002. *On track towards inclusive education* [Online] Available at: http://www.aare.edu.au/03pap/mcl03296.pdf [Accessed 9 February 2011].

Angelides, P. & Aravi, C. 2007. The development of inclusive practices as a result of the process of integrating deaf/hard hearing students. *European Journal of Special Needs Education*, 22 (91), pp. 63–74.

Angelides, P. & Michailidou, A. 2007. Exploring the role of special units in Cyprus schools: A case study. *International Journal of Special Education*, 22 (1), pp. 86–95.

Arbeiter, S. & Hartley, S. 2002. Teachers' and pupils' experience of integrated education in Uganda. *International Journal of Disability, Development and Education*, 49 (1), pp. 62–78.

Armstrong, F. 2002. The historical development of special education: Humanitarian rationality or 'wild profusion of entangled events'? *History of Education*, 31 (5), pp. 437–456.

Avramidis, E., Bayliss, P. & Burden, R. 2000. A survey into mainstream teachers' attitudes towards inclusion of children with special education needs in ordinary schools in one local education authority. *Educational Psychology*, 20 (2), pp. 191–211.

Avramidis, E. & Norwich, B. 2002. Teachers' attitudes towards integration/inclusion: A review of the literature. *European Journal of Special Needs Education*, 17 (2), pp. 129–147.

Ayres, L., Kavanaugh, K. & Knafl, K.A. 2003. Within-case and across-case approaches to qualitative data analysis. *Qualitative Health Research*, 13 (6), pp. 871–883.

Baine, D. 1993. Special education in developing countries: Instructional content and process. In P. Mittler, R. Brouilette & D. Haris (eds.) *World yearbook of education*. London: Kogan Page. Pp. 211–224.

Barton, L. 1997. Inclusive education: Romantic, subversive or realistic? *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 1(3), pp. 231–242.

Bender, W.N., Vial, C.O. & Scott, K. 1995. Teachers' attitudes toward increased mainstreaming: Implementing effective instruction for students with learning disabilities. *Journalof Learning Disabilities*, 28, pp. 87–94.

Berg, B.L. 2001. *Qualitative research methods for social sciences*. Boston: Allyn and Unwin.

Biklen, D. 1988. The myth of clinical judgement. *Journal of Social Issues*, 44, pp. 127–140

Bishop, A., Swain, J. & Bines, H. 1999. Seizing the opportunity: Reflections on play opportunities for disabled children in the early years. *British Journal of Education Studies*, 47 (2), pp. 170–183.

Bogdan, R.C. & Biklen, S.K. 1982. *Qualitative research for education: An introduction to theory & methods*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon, Inc.

Booth, T. 1999. Viewing inclusion from a distance: Gaining perspective from comparative study. *Support for Learning*, 14 (4), pp. 164–168.

Booth, T. & Ainscow, M. 1998. *From them to us: An international study of inclusion*. London: Routledge.

Botswana Government 1977. *National policy on education*. Gaborone: Government Printers.

Botswana Government 1994. *The revised national policy on education*. Gaborone: Government Printers.

Botswana Government 1997. *Vision 2016: A long term vision for Botswana, towards prosperity for all*. Gaborone: Government Printers.

Botswana Government 2003. *National Development Plan 9: 2003/04-2008/09.* Gaborone: Ministry of Finance and Development Planning.

Botswana Government 2007. *Education Public Expenditure Review: Support to the education and training sector*. Gaborone: Ministry of Finance and Development Planning.

Botswana Government 2008. *Draft National report on the development of education: Inclusive education, the way of the future*. Gaborone: Ministry of Education and Development Planning.

Botswana Government 2009. *Draft policy for the introduction of inclusive education to improve the quality of education in Botswana*. Gaborone: Ministry of Education and Skills Development.

Brandon, D.P. 2006. Botswana's family and consumer science teachers' attitude towards the inclusion of students with physical disabilities. *Journal of Family and Consumer Sciences Education*, 24 (1), pp. 37–49.

Brodin, J. & Ljusberg, A. 2008. Teaching children with Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder in remedial classes. *International Journal of Rehabilitation Research*, 31 (4), pp. 351–355.

Buell, M.J., Hallam, R., Gamel-McCormick, M. & Scheer, S. 1999. A survey of general and special education teachers' perceptions and in-service needs concerning inclusion. *International Journal of Disability, Development and Education*, 46 (2), pp.143–156.

Bunch, G., Finnegan, K., Humphries, C., Dore, R. & Dore, L. 2005. *Finding a way through the maze: Crucial terms used in education provision for Canadians with disabilities*. Toronto: Marsha Forest Centre.

Calitz, M.G. 2000. *Guidelines for the training content of teacher support teams*. Unpublished Master's dissertation. University of Stellenbosch: Stellenbosch, South Africa.

Camper, E. 1997. *Establishing teacher support teams to facilitate inclusive education for learners with special educational needs*. Unpublished Master's dissertation, University of Stellenbosch: Stellenbosch, South Africa.

Carrington, S. 1999. Inclusion needs a different school culture. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 3 (3), pp. 257–268.

Carrington, S. & Robinson, R. 2006. Inclusive school community: Why is it so complex? *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 10 (4–5), pp. 323–334.

Central Statistics Office 2001. *Population and housing census*. Gaborone: Government Printers.

Charema, J. & Peresuh, M. 1996. Support services for special educational needs: Proposed models for countries south of the Sahara. *African Journal of Special Needs Education*, 1 (2), pp. 76–83.

Coates, R.D. 1989. The regular education initiative and the opinions of regular classroom teachers. *Journal of Learning Disabilities*, 22 (9), pp. 532–536.

Cranney, M., Warren, E., Barton, S., Gardner, K. & Walley, T. 2001. Why do GPs not implement evidence based guidelines? A descriptive study. *Family Practice*, 18 (4), pp. 359–363.

Creswell, J.W. 1998. *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five traditions*. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.

Dart, G. 2007. Provision for learners with special educational needs in Botswana: A situational analysis. *International Journal of Special Education*, 27 (2), pp. 1–28.

Department of Education. 2002. *Revised National Curriculum Statement: R-9 (schools)*. Pretoria: Department of Education.

Denscombe, M. 1998.*The good research guide for small-scale research projects*. Buckingham: Open University Press.

Denzin, N.K. & Lincoln, Y. 1998. *The landscape of qualitative research: Theories and issues*. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.

Dockrell, J.E. & Lindsay, G. 2001. Children with speech and language difficulties: Teachers' perspectives. *Oxford Review of Education*, 27 (3), pp. 369–394.

Dyson, A. 2001. Special needs in the twenty-first century: Where we've been and where we're going. *British Journal of Special Education*, 28 (1), pp. 24–29.

Emanuel, J.E., Wendler, D. & Grady, C. 2000. What makes research ethical? *Journal of American Medical Association*, 283 (24/31), pp. 2701–2711.

Emanuelsson, I. 2001. Reactive versus proactive support coordinator roles: An international comparison. *European Journal of Special Needs education*, 16 (2), pp. 133–142.

Evans, P. 1999. Globalisation and cultural transmission: The role of international agencies in developing inclusive practice. In H. Daniels & P. Garner (eds.) *World yearbook of education*. London: Kogan Page. Pp. 229–239.

Farelll, P. 2000. The impact of research on developments in inclusive education. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 4 (2), pp. 153–162.

Florian, L. 2008. Special or inclusive education: Future trends. *British Journal of Special Education,* 35 (4), pp. 202–208.

Florian, L., Hallenweger, J., Simeonsson, R.J., Wendell, K., Riddel, S., Terzi, L. & Holland, A. 2006. Cross-cultural perspectives on classification of children with disabilities: Issues in the classification of children with disabilities. *The Journal of Special Education*, 4 (1), pp. 36–45.

Florida State University Centre for Prevention & Early Intervention Policy. 2002. Inclusion White Paper. [Online]. Available at: http://www.cpeip.fsu.edu/resourceFiles/resourceFile_18.pdf [Accessed on 28th February 2010].

Forlin, C. 2008. Education reform for inclusion in Asia: What about teacher education? In C. Forlin & M-G.J. Lian (eds.) *Reform, inclusion & teacher education: Towards a new era of special education in the Asia-Pacific region.* Abingdon: Routledge. Pp. 74–82.

Forlin, C., Hattie, J. & Douglas, G., 1996. Inclusion: Is it stressful for teachers? *Journal of Intellectual and Developmental Disability*, 21 (3), pp. 199–217.

Forlin, C., Keen, M. & Barrett, E. 2008. The concerns of mainstream teachers: Coping with inclusivity in an Australian context. *International Journal of Disability, Development and Education,* 55 (3), pp. 251–264.

Forlin, C., Loreman, T., Sharma, U. & Earlie, C. 2009. Demographic differences in changing pre-service teachers' attitudes, sentiments and concerns about inclusive education. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 13 (2), pp.195–209.

Frankel, J.R. & Wallen, N.E. 1993. *How to design and evaluate research in education*. Ingerpore: McGraw-Hill Book Co.

Gillon, R. 1994. Medical ethics: Four principles plus attention to scope. *British Medical Journal*, 309 (6948), pp. 184–188.

Gilmore, L., Campbell, J. & Cuskelly, M. 2003. Developmental expectations, personality, stereotypes and attitude towards inclusive education: Community and teacher views of Down Syndrome. *International Journal of Disability, Development and Education*, 50 (1), pp. 65–76.

Girloux, H.A. 2003. Public pedagogy and politics of resistance: Notes on a critical theory of educational struggle. *Educational Philosophy and Theory,* 35 (1), pp. 5–16.

Granehelm, U.H. & Lundman, B. 2004. Qualitative content analysis in nursing research: Concepts, procedures and measures to achieve trustworthiness. *Nurse Education Today*, 24 (2), pp. 105–112.

Gray, D.E. 2004. *Doing research in the real world*. London: Sage Publications.

Guba, E.G. & Lincoln, Y. 1989. *Fourth generation evaluation*. Newbury Park: Sage.

Hawker, S. 2006. *Little Oxford English dictionary*. 9th ed. New York: Oxford University Press.

Hay, J.F., Smit, J. & Paulsen, M. 2001. Teacher preparedness for inclusive education. *South African Journal of Education*, 21 (4), pp. 213–218.

Hoepfl, M.C. 1997. Choosing qualitative research: A primer for technology education researchers. *Journal of Technology Education*, 9 (1), pp. 47–75.

Hopkin, A.G. 2004. Special education in Botswana: A social inclusion or exclusion? *Pula: Botswana Journal of African Studies*, 18 (1), pp. 88–102.

Hornby, G. & Kidd, R. 2001. Transfer from special to mainstream: Ten years later. *British Journal of Special Education* 28 (1), pp. 10–17.

Houser, J. 2008. *Nursing research: Reading, using and creating evidence*. Sudbury, MA: Jones and Bartlett Publishers.

Howe, D. 1999. Models and morals: Meanings underpinning the scientific study of special educational needs. *International Journal of Disability and Education*, 46 (1), pp. 9–24.

Hunt, P., Farron-Davis, F., Beckstead, S., Curtis, D. & Goetz, L. 1994. Evaluating the effects of placement of students with severe disabilities in general education versus special education classes. *Journal of the Association for Persons with Severe Handicaps*, 19, pp. 200–214.

Jackson, L., Ryndak, D.L. & Billingsley, F. 2000. Useful practices in inclusive education: A preliminary view of what experts in moderate to severe disabilities are saying. *Journal of the Association for Persons with Severe Handicaps*, 25 (3), pp. 129–141.

Jahnukainen, M. & Korhonen, A. 2003. Integration of students with severe and profound intellectual disability into the comprehensive school system: Teachers' perception of educational reform in Finland. *International Journal of Disability, Development and Education*, 50 (2), pp. 169–180.

Janesick, V.J. 1998. The dance of qualitative research design: Metaphor. Methodolatry and meaning. In N.K. Denzin & Y. Lincoln (eds.) *Strategies of qualitative inquiry*. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications. Pp. 35–55.

Jarratt, D.G. 1996. A comparison of two alternative interviewing techniques used within an integrated research design: A case study of out shopping using semi-structured and non-directed interviewing techniques. *Marketing Intelligence & Planning*, 14 (1), pp. 6–15.

Jha, M.M. 2002. *School without walls: Inclusive education for all*. Oxford: Heinemann.

Jordan, A. & Stanovich, P. 2001. Patterns of teacher–student interaction in inclusive elementary classroom and correlates with student self-concept. *International Journal of Disability, Development and Education*, 48 (1), pp. 33–52.

Joshua, J.J. 1997. *Guidelines for language teachers in assisting disadvantaged learners in the junior primary phase*. Unpublished Master's thesis, University of South Africa: Pretoria, South Africa.

Kaplan, B. & Maxwell, J.A. 1994. *Qualitative research methods for evaluating computer information systems in evaluating health care systems: Methods and applications*. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.

Kennedy, C.H., Shukla, S. & Fryxell, D. 1997. Comparing the effects of educational placement on the special relationships of intermediate school students with severe disabilities. *Exceptional Children*, 64, pp. 31–48.

Khatoon, A. 2003. *Historical development study of special education in Pakistan: A thesis report*. Ph.D. University of Karachi: Pakistan.

King, I.C. 2003. Examining middle school inclusion classrooms through the lens of learner centred principles. *Theory into Practice*, 42 (2), pp. 151–158.

Kisanji, J. 1991. *A review of special education in Botswana and recommendations for a national policy*. Gaborone: Ministry of Education.

Kisanji, J. 1993. *Special education in Botswana: Policy guidelines and strategy for implementation*. Gaborone: Ministry of Education.

Kisanji, J. 1998. The march towards inclusive education in non-western countries: Retracing the steps. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 2 (1), pp. 55–72.

Kisanji, J. 1999. Models of inclusive education: where do community support programmes fit in? Paper presented at a workshop on *Inclusive education in Namibia: the challenges for teacher education*. Windhoek, Namibia 24–25 March 1999. Rossing Foundation: Khomasdal.

Kivirauma, J., Klemelä, K. & Rinne, R. 2006. Segregation, integration, inclusion: The ideology and reality in Finland. *European Journal of Special Education*, 21 (2), pp. 117–133.

Koutrouba, K., Vamvakari, M., & Steliou, M. 2006. Factors correlated with teachers' attitudes towards inclusion of students with special educational needs in Cyprus. *European Journal of Special Needs Education*, 21 (4), pp. 381–394.

Krefting, L. 1991. Rigour in qualitative research: Assessment of trustworthiness. *American Journal of Occupational Therapy*, 45 (3), pp. 214–222.

Krueger, L.W. & Neuman, W.L. 2006. *Social worker research methods: Qualitative and quantitative applications*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Lankshear, C. & Knobel, M. 2004. *A handbook for teacher research: From design to implementation*. London: Open University Press.

Lee, T. & Rodda, M. 1994. Modification of attitudes toward people with disabilities. *Canadian Journal of Rehabilitation*, 7, pp. 229–238.

Leyser, Y., Kapperman, G. & Keller, R. 1994. Teacher attitudes towards mainstreaming the disabled: A cross-cultural study in six nations. *European Journal of Special Needs Education*, 9, pp. 1–15.

Lincoln, Y.S. & Guba, E.G. 1985. *Naturalistic inquiry*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publications.

Lingard, B. & Mills, M. 2007.Pedagogies making a difference: Issues of social justice and inclusion. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 11(3), pp. 233–244.

Lo, L.N.K. 2007. The sustainable development of inclusive education. *Chinese Education and Society*, 40 (4), pp. 44–62.

Luft, J.A. & Roehring, G.H. 2007. Capturing teachers' epistemological beliefs: The development of teacher beliefs. *Electronic Journal of Science Education*, 11 (1), pp. 38–63.

Mack, N., Woodsong, C., MacQueen, K.M., Guest, G. & Namey, E. 2009. Qualitative research methods: A data collector's field guide. *Family Health International*, 3, pp. 29–50.

Mackintosh, C. 2006. Caring: The socialisation of pre-registered student nurses: A longitudinal qualitative descriptive study. *International Journal of Nursing Studies*, 43, pp. 953–962.

Marks, S. 1978. UNESCO and human rights: The implementation of rights relating to education, science, culture and communication. *Texas International Law Journal*, 13 (35), pp. 35–68.

Marwaha, S. & Johnson, S. 2005. Views and experiences of employment among people with psychosis: A qualitative descriptive study. *International Journal of Social Psychiatry*, 51 (4), pp. 302–316.

Mayring, P. 2000. Qualitative content analysis. *Forum Qualitative Social Research*, 1 (2), pp. 3–13.

McDonnell, J. 1998. Instruction for students with severe disabilities in general education settings. *Education and Training in Mental Retardation and Developmental Disabilities*, 33, pp. 199–215.

McDougall, D. & Goldenberg, C. 2007. Illuminating the black box of school reform to improve outcome for all. *International Journal of Disability, Development and Education*, 54 (1), pp. 1–3.

McMillan, J.H. & Schumacher, S. 1993. *Research in education*. 3rd ed. New York: Harper Collins.

Merriam, S.B. 1988. *Case study research in education: A qualitative approach*. San-Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Miles, M.B. & Huberman, A.M. 1984. *Qualitative data analysis: A source book of new methods*. London: Sage publications.

Miles, M.B. & Huberman, A.M. 1994. *Qualitative data analysis: An expanded source book*. 2nd ed. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.

Miles, S. 1999. Creating conversations: The evolution of the Enabling Education Network. In E. Stone (ed.) *Disability and development.* Leeds: Disability Press. Pp. 74–88.

Mittler, P. 1993. Childhood disability: A global challenge. In P. Mittler, R. Brouilette & D. Haris, (eds.) *World yearbook of education*. London: Kogan Page. Pp. 3–15.

Mittler, P. 1995. Special needs education: An international perspective. *British Journal of Special Education*, 22, pp. 219–226.

Moore, J. 1999. Developing a local authority response to inclusion. *Support for Learning*, 14 (4), pp. 100–104.

Morse, J.M. 1998. Designing funded qualitative research. In N.K. Denzin & Y. Lincoln, (eds.) *Strategies of qualitative inquiry*. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications. Pp. 35–55.

Mukhopadhyay, S., Molosiwa, S. & Moswela, E. 2009. Inclusion of learners with disabilities in Botswana. Unpublished consultancy report of a baseline study commissioned by the Cheshire Foundation of Botswana.

Nagi, S.Z. 1965. Some conceptual issues in disability and rehabilitation. In M.B. Sussman (ed.) *Sociology and Rehabilitation*. Washington: American Sociological Association. Pp. 100–113.

Naicker, S. 2006. From policy to practice: A South African perspective on implementing inclusive education policy. *International Journal of Whole Schooling*, 3 (1), pp. 1–6.

Navin, A., Smith, R. & McNeil, M. 2008. Shifting attitudes of related service providers: A disability studies and critical pedagogy approach. *International Journal of Whole Schooling*, 4 (1), pp. 1–12.

Nayler, J.M. & Keddie, A. 2007. Focusing gaze: Teacher interrogation of practice. *International Journal of Inclusive Education,* 11 (2), pp. 199–214.

Ocloo, M.A. & Subbey, M. 2008. Perceptions of basic education teachers towards inclusive education in the Hohoe district of Ghana. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 12 (5–6), pp. 639–650.

Oliver, M. 1990. The individual and the social models of disability. Paper presented at the joint workshop of the Living Options Groups and the Research Unit of the Royal College of Physicians on people with established loco-motor disabilities in Hospitals. 23 July.

Oliver, M. 1996. *Understanding disability: from theory to practice*. Basingstoke: Macmillan.

Orb, A., Eisenhauer, L. & Wynaden, D. 2000. Ethics in qualitative research. *Journal of Nursing Scholarship*, 33 (1), pp. 93–96.

Palincsar, A.S., Stevens, D.D. & Gavelek, J.R. 1989. Collaborating with teachers in the interest of student collaboration. *International Journal of Research in Education*, 13, pp. 41–53.

Patton, Q.M. 1980. *Qualitative evaluation methods*. Beverly Hills: Sage Publications.

Patton, Q.M. 1987. *How to use qualitative methods in evaluation*. Newbury Park: Sage Publications.

Patton, Q.M. 1990. *Qualitative evaluation and research methods*. 2nd ed. Newbury Park: Sage Publications.

Pavri, S. & Monda-Amaya, L. 2001. Social support in inclusive schools: Student and teacher perspectives. *Exceptional Children*, 67 (3), pp. 391–411.

Peters, S.J. 2003. *Inclusive Education: Achieving Education for All by Including those with Disabilities and Special Needs*. Prepared for the Disability Group, Human Development Network, The World Bank. [Online]. Available at: http://www.inclusioneducativa.org/contents/peters_Inclusive_education.pdf [Accessed on 22 February 2011].

Persson, B. 1998. Who needs special education? *International Journal of Educational Research*, 29 (2), pp. 107-117.

Pillay, J. & Terliszi, M.D. 2009. A case study of a learner's transition from mainstream schooling to a school for learners with special educational needs (LSEN): Lessons for mainstream education. *South African Journal of Education*, 29, pp. 491–509.

Pivik, J., McComas, J. & Laflamme, M. (2002). Barriers and facilitators to inclusive education as reported by students with physical disabilities and their parents. *Exceptional Children,* 69 (1), pp. 97–106.

Polit, F.D. & Beck, T.C. 2008. *Nursing research: Generating and assessing evidence for nursing practice*. 8th ed. Philadelphia: Lippincott Williams & Wilkins.

Powell-Taylor, E. & Renner, M. 2003*. Programme development and evaluation: analysing qualitative data*. Madison: University of Wisconsin-Extension.

Prawat, R.S. (1992). Teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning: A constructivist perspective. *American Journal of Education*, 100, pp. 354–391.

Procek, E., Malikongwa, D. & Mudariki, T. 1994. *Study on access to vocational education and training for student with disabilities*. Gaborone: Ministry of Education.

Richler, D., n.d. *International human rights perspective on inclusive education: implications of the UN Convention on the Rights of People with Disability (CRPD).* [Online]. Available at: http://www.inclusion-international.org/wp-content/uploads/E.A08-0-0_Diane_Richler1.pdf [accessed 16 January 2011].

Romi, S. & Leyser, Y. 2006. Exploring inclusion pre-service training needs: A study of variables associated with attitudes and self-efficacy beliefs. *European Journal of Special Needs Education*, 21 (1), pp. 85–105.

Sanacore, J. 1996. Ingredients for successful inclusion. *Journal of Adolescents and Adult Literacy*, 40 (3), pp. 222–226.

Sandelowski, M. 2000. Focus on research methods: Whatever happened to qualitative description? *Research in Nursing and Health*, 23, pp. 334–340.

Sandkull, O. 2005. *Strengthening inclusive education by applying a rights-based approach to education programming.* [Online]. Available at: http//www.unescobkk.org/fileadmin/user_upload/appeal/IE/publications_and_reports/OS_ISEC_2005_paper.pdf [Accessed 27 November 2010].

Sayed, Y. 2001. Post-apartheid educational transformation: Policy concerns and approaches. In Y. Sayed & J. Jansen, (eds.) *Implementing educational policies: The South African Experience*. Cape Town: UCT Press. Pp. 250–270.

Schostack, J. 2006. *Interviewing and representation in qualitative research*. Glasgow: Bell & Bain.

Scruggs, T. & Mastropieri, M. 1996. Teacher perceptions of mainstreaming/inclusion, 1958–1995: A research synthesis. *Exceptional Children*, 63, pp. 59–74.

Sebba, J. & Ainscow, M. 1996. International developments in inclusive schooling: Mapping the issues. *Cambridge Journal of Education*, 26 (1), pp. 5–18.

Senge, P. 2000. The industrial age system of education. In P. Senge, N. Cabron-McCabe, T. Lucas, A. Kleiner, J. Dutton & B. Smith (eds.) *Schools that learn: Fifth discipline field book for educators, parents and everyone who cares about education*. New York: Doubleday. Pp. 27–42.

Shakespeare, T. 1994. Cultural representation of disabled people: Dustbins of disavowal. *Disability & Society*, 9 (3), pp. 283–299.

Shakespeare, T. & Watson, N. 2002. The social model of disability: An outdated ideology? *Research in Social Science and Disability*, 2, pp. 9–28.

Sikes, P., Lawson, H. & Parker, M. 2007. Voices on: teachers and teaching assistants talk about inclusion. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 11 (3), pp. 355–370.

Silverman, D. 2005. *Doing qualitative research*. 2nd ed. Los Angeles: Sage Publications.

Stainback, S.B., Stainback, W.C. & Jackson, H.J. 1992. Toward inclusive classrooms. In S. Stainback & W. Steinback, (eds.) *Curriculum considerations in inclusive classrooms: Facilitating learning for all students.* London: Paul H. Brookes. Pp. 3–17.

Strauss, A. & Corbin, J. 1990. *Basics of qualitative research: Grounded theory procedures and techniques*. Newbury Park: Sage Publications.

Stubbs, S. 1997. *Towards inclusive education: The global experience of Save the Children (UK)*. In Proceedings of the Second Ibero-American Special Education Congress, Havana, Cuba, July 1997. London: Save the Children UK. Pp. 87–93.

Swartz, L. & Schneider, M. 2006. Tough choices: Disability and social security in South Africa. In B. Watermeyer, L. Swartz, T. Lorenzo, M. Schneider & M. Priestly, (eds.) *Disability and Social Change: A South African agenda*. Cape Town: Human Sciences Research Council Press. Pp. 234–244.

Tilstone, C., Florian, L. & Rose, R. 1998. *Promoting inclusive practice*. London: Routledge.

Thomas, G. 1997. Inclusive schools for inclusive society. *British Journal of Special Education*, 2 (3), pp. 103–107.

Tomlinson, S. 1985. The expansion of special education. *Oxford Review of Education*, 11 (2), pp. 157–165.

UNESCO 1990. *World declaration on education for all: Meeting basic learning needs*. Paris: UNESCO.

UNESCO 1994. *World conference on special education: Access and quality*. Salamanca, Spain. 7–10 June 1994. Salamanca: UNESCO.

UNESCO 2000. *Education for all: Meeting collective commitments*. Paris: UNESCO.

UNESCO 2001. *Inclusion in education: The participation of disabled learners*. Paris: UNESCO.

UNESCO 2003. *Education for all, global monitoring report: Gender and education for all*. Paris: UNESCO.

UNESCO 2004. *Education for all, global monitoring report: Education for all*. Paris: UNESCO.

UNESCO 2005. *Guidelines for inclusion: Ensuring access for all*. UNESCO: Paris.

United Nations 1948. *Universal Declaration of Human Rights*. [Online]. Available at: http//www.multiculturalaustralia.edu.au/doc/unrights_1.pdf [Accessed 27 November 2010].

United Nations 1989. *Convention on the Rights of the Child*. [Online]. Available at: http//www.sithi.org/admin/upload/law/Convention%20on%20Rights%2020of%20the %20Child.ENG.pdf [Accessed 27 November 2010].

United Nations 1994. *United Nations Standard Rules on Equalisation of Opportunities for Persons with Disabilities*. [Online]. Available at: http//www.un.org/disabilities/documents/standardrules.pdf [Accessed 27 November 2010].

United Nations 2006. *United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities*. [Online]. Available at: http//www.un.org/disabilities/documents/convention/convoptprot-e.pdf [Accessed 27 November 2010].

USAID 2005. *Sub-Saharan Africa: Living with disabilities in Africa* [Online] Available at: http://www.usaid.gov/locations/sub-saharan_africa/features/disabilities.html [Accessed 4 October 2009].

Vaughn, S. & Schumm, J.S. 1996. Classroom ecologies: Classroom interactions and implications for inclusion of students with learning disabilities. In D.L. Speece & B.K. Keogh (eds.) *Research on classroom ecologies: Implications for students with learning disabilities*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates. Pp. 107–123.

Vandeyar, S. 2010. Response of South African teachers to the challenge of school integration. *South African Journal of Education*, 30 (1), pp. 343–359.

Vasquez, M.J.T. 2003. Ethical responsibilities in therapy: A feminist perspective. In M. Kopala & M. Keitel (eds). *Handbook of counselling women.* Thousand Oaks: Sage Publishers. Pp. 557–574.

Vislie, L. 2003. From integration to inclusion: Focusing global trends and changes in the western European societies. *European Journal of Special Needs Education*, 18 (1), pp. 17–35.

Von Koch, L., Holmqvist, L.W., Wottrich, A.W., Tham, K. & De Pedro-Cuesta, J. 2000. Rehabilitation at home after stroke: A descriptive study of an individualised intervention. *Clinical Rehabilitation*, 14, pp. 574–583.

Ware, J., Julian, G. & McGee, P. 2005. Education for children with severe and profound general learning disabilities in Ireland: Factors influencing teachers' decisions about teaching these pupils. *European Journal of Special Needs Education*, 20 (2), pp. 179–194.

Warnock, B. 2005. From integration to inclusion. *Annual Lecture of the General Teaching Council for Scotland*. 5th October.

Wearmouth, J., Edwards, G. & Richmond, R., 2000. Teachers' professional development to support inclusive practices. *Journal of In-service Education*, 26, pp. 37–48.

Wendell, K. 1995. Making inclusive education ordinary. *British Journal of Special Education*, 22, pp. 100–104.

World Health Organisation (WHO) 1980. *International Classification of Impairments, Disability and Handicaps: A manual of classification relating to the consequences of disease*. Geneva: WHO.

Yssel, N., Engelbrecht, P., Oswald, M.M., Eloff, I. & Swart, E. 2007. Views of inclusion: A comparative study of parents' perceptions in South Africa and the United States. *Remedial and Special Education*, 28 (6), pp. 356–365.

Zion, D., Gillam, L. & Loff, B. 2000. The declaration of Helsinki, CIOMS and ethics of research on vulnerable populations. *Nature Medicine*, 6 (6), pp.615–617.

Zollers, N.J., Ramanathan, A.K. & Yu, M. 1999. The relationship between school culture and inclusion: How an inclusive culture supports inclusive education. *Qualitative Studies in Education*, 12 (2), pp. 157–178.

Zoniou-Sideri, A. & Vlachou, A., 2006. Greek teachers' beliefs about disability and inclusive education. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 10 (4), pp. 379–394.

Appendices

Appendix 1

Semi-structured Interview Guide

Copies of the informed consent forms were provided to each participant and explained where necessary. Participants were given an opportunity to ask questions. Ground rules were explained as follows:

> *Before we start I would like to remind you that there are no right or wrong answers in this discussion. I am interested in knowing what you think, so please feel free to be frank and to share your point of view. It is very important that your opinion is heard.*

(This guide may be modified following initial interviews, probing will be used to get a deeper understanding of the answers presented).

What is your role/position in this school?

Briefly share with me your qualifications and experience.

How many years have you taught in this school and in other schools in total?

In your opinion, please describe what you think is the general understanding of disability in this school?

Please explain your understanding of disability and inclusion

Tell me of any exposure you had with a disabled learner/person in your experience

What is your view on the current educational placement for disabled learners?

Tell me more, do you think it is adequate?

What do you think need to be improved?

May you share your view on mainstream and special education units as part of one school?

What are your views on special schools for disabled learners?

In your opinion, what educational placement will best facilitate inclusion of disabled learners?

What do you think could act as barriers to inclusion of disabled learners in you school?

Would you share with me what you think your school is doing to facilitate inclusion?

According to you, who should be taking the responsibility for educating disabled learners?

What types of support do you think are necessary to facilitate inclusion?

Let's summarise some of the key points from our discussion, is there something else?

Do you have any questions?

Thank you for taking your time to talk to me.

Appendix 2

Participant Information Sheet

Dear Participant

Invitation to Participate in a Research Project

I am a Disability Studies Masters Student at the University of Cape Town. As part of the requirements of my degree, I am conducting a research project focusing on teachers' perspectives on disability and inclusion of disabled learners

You are invited to take part in this research project because of your teaching experience at your school. Confidentiality will be maintained and no information identifying you will be disclosed. All recorded information will only be handled by me and securely kept under lock and key. There is no risk of physical harm and participation in this research is entirely voluntary. Referral to a counsellor will be available in the event of any psychological discomfort. You may feel free to withdraw at any time without any penalty. No monetary rewards will be given but refreshments will be served in appreciation of your attendance.

If you decide to participate in this project, you will be required to take part in an individual interview session lasting for about one hour. Where there is need for a further interview, arrangements will be made for an additional session in agreement with you. The interviews will involve discussions on your perspectives on disability and inclusion, your views on educational placement of disabled learners and on the types of support necessary for inclusion of disabled learners. I will make all efforts to accommodate your schedules when planning for the interviews. Please read the information sheet below.

For more information contact:

Supervisor	Researcher
A/Professor Harsha Kathard Tel: +27 021 4066593 Email: harsha.kathard@uct.ac.za	Justus Mackenzie Nthitu P.O. Box 1232 Mogoditshane Tel: 395 2952 (w), 391 5798 (h) Cell: 71541174, 74314591 Email: jmacken60@hotmail.com

What is the project about?
This projects intends to explore and describe teacher perspectives about inclusion of disabled learners.

Who is doing the project?
The researcher is a Disability Studies Masters Student with the University of Cape Town. He is interested in illuminating contemporary teacher perspectives about inclusion of disabled learners.

Why is it important to know about teachers' perspectives about inclusion of disabled learners?
It is known that teachers in mainstream schools with special education units interact with disabled learners alongside their non-disabled peers. It is important to understand these teachers' perspectives about inclusion of disabled learners. As a researcher, this information will assist in drawing recommendations on the viable approaches to educating of disabled learners.

What will be done?
The data collection will be completed over a period of four weeks. Two sessions will be conducted every week.

In-depth interviews: Individual interviews will be conducted with four selected teachers from each of the two schools to get a deeper picture of their perspectives on disability and inclusion.

Where and when will the research take place?
At your school and at the most convenient time according to your schedule. The researcher will communicate with you to set up times, dates and venues.

Will it be made public that you took part in the project?
No, your name and that of your school will not be mentioned in any discussion or report about the project.

Do you have to take part?
Your participation in this project is absolutely voluntary, there is no consequence whatsoever for declining to take part in the project.

Will there be a reward?
There will be no financial reward; refreshments will be served to participants as a way of appreciating their attendance.

Are there any risks involved?
There are no risks of any physical harm to your body or the school environment.

Who can you contact if you need more information?
Justus Mackenzie Nthitu
Tel: 3952952 (w), 3915798 (h)
Email: jmacken60@hotmail.com

Appendix 3

Consent Form

I confirm that the research procedures of the study have been explained to me through a written letter. I understand that I may ask questions at any time during the research procedures. I realise that I am free to withdraw from the study without prejudice at any time, should I choose to do so. I have been informed that the personal information required by the researcher will be held in strict confidentiality. I hereby agree to participate in this research project by participating in one hour long interview session.

I have carefully read this form. I understand the nature, purpose and procedure of this study. I agree to participate in this research project.

	Full Name	**Signature**	**Date and Place**
Participant			
Witness			
Researcher			

Appendix 4

Permission from the Ministry of Education and Skills Development

TELEPHONE: 3655408
TELEX: 2944 THUTO BD
FAX: 3655408
REFERENCE E 1/20/ 2 VIIII (12)

MINISTRY OF EDUCATION
PRIVATE BAG 005
GABORONE
BOTSWANA

REPUBLIC OF BOTSWANA

21st June 2010

To:Justus Mackhenzie Nthitu
P.O.Box 1232
Mogoditshane

RE: REQUEST FOR A PERMIT TO CONDUCT A RESEARCH STUDY

We acknowledge receipt of your application to conduct a research study. This serves to grant you permission to conduct your study at Primary schools in Botswana to address the following research objectives/questions:

Teachers' perceptions on Inclusion of Disabled Learners in Botswana

It is of paramount importance to seek Assent and Consent from the school heads, parents and students you are going to interview, observe as well administering questionnaires. We hope and trust that you will conduct the study as stated in your Proposal and to strictly adhere to the Research Ethics. Failure to Comply, with the above Regulations will result in Immediate Termination of the Research permit.

Please note that this permit is valid for a period of one year effective from 21st June 2010 to 21st June 2011.

You are furthermore requested to submit a copy of your final report of the study to the Division of Planning, Statistics and Research, Ministry of Education, Botswana.

Thank you in advance.

Signed by candidate

K.Mathabathi
For / Permanent Secretary

Appendix 5

Letter to the Head Teachers

P.O.Box 1232

Mogoditshane

The Head teacher;

_____

_____

RE: **Permission to recruit teachers and conduct research**

I am a student undertaking a Masters Degree in Disability Studies through the University of Cape Town. As a requirement for my studies, I am conducting a research project to understand teachers' perspectives on disability and inclusion of disabled learners. Only teachers in mainstream primary schools with special education units are to be included. It is important to understand perspectives of teachers from schools with disabled learners as this knowledge would guide future research and school placement planning for disabled learners.

To complete this project, I would like to request permission to recruit four teachers from your school from whom information will be obtained. All the teachers will be interviewed individually in sessions lasting for about one hour. All sessions will be carefully planned so as not interfere with the school activities. Be assured that the information obtained will be confidentially kept and both the school and the participants' names will not be disclosed in any way. A summary of the results will be availed to your school on completion of the study.

This project has received ethical clearance through the University of Cape Town (Ref. No 269/2010) and the Ministry of Education and Skills Development in Botswana (Ref. No E1/20/2/12).

I look forward to your positive response. Sincerely,

J. M Nthitu.

For any further information, please contact any of the following

Researcher	Supervisor	Ethics Committee
Justus Mackenzie Nthitu P.O. Box 1232 Mogoditshane Tel. 3952952(W), 3915798(H) Cell. 74314591, 71541174 E-mail: jmacken60@hotmail.com	A/Professor Harsha Kathard Tel. +27 21 4066593 E-mail: harsha.kathard@uct.ac.za	University of Cape Town Faculty of Health Sciences Research Ethics Committee E52-23 Old main Building, Groote Schuur Hospital, Observatory 7925. Tel. +27 21 4066492

Appendix 6

UCT Human Ethics Committee Approval

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE TOWN

Health Sciences Faculty
Research Ethics Committee
Room E52-24 Groote Schuur Hospital Old Main Building
Observatory 7925
Telephone [021] 406 6626 • Facsimile [021] 406 6411
e-mail: shuretta.thomas@uct.ac.za

04 June 2010

HREC REF: 269/2010

Mr J Nthitu
c/o A/Prof H Kathard
Health & Rehab

Dear Mr Nthitu

PROJECT TITLE: TEACHERS' PERSPECTIVES ON INCLUSION OF DISABLED LEARNERS IN BOTSWANA.

Thank you for submitting your study to the Health Science Faculty Human Research Ethics Committee.

It is a pleasure to inform you that the Ethics Committee has **formally approved** the above-mentioned study.

Approval is granted for one year till the 15th June 2011.

Please submit an annual progress report if the research continues beyond the expiry date. Please submit a brief summary of findings if you complete the study within the approval period so that we can close our file.

Please could all reference to the "ethics committee" be replaced with the "Human Research Ethics Committee in the Faculty of Health Sciences" This has become necessary as there are several research ethics across the campuses and disciplines at UCT.

Please note that the ongoing ethical conduct of the study remains the responsibility of the principal investigator.

Please quote the REC. REF in all your correspondence.

Yours sincerely

Signed by candidate

CHAIRPERSON, HSF HUMAN ETHICS

S Thomas