

Good in theory but not in practice: Exploring perspectives on Inclusive Education

by
Mariska de Winnaar

*Thesis presented in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of
MA (Sociology) in the Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences at
Stellenbosch University*



Supervisor: Mr. Jacob MJ du Plessis

December 2013

DECLARATION

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Date: 2 September 2013

ABSTRACT

The introduction of inclusive education in the South African educational system may be seen as one of the first steps to promote equality and human rights in post-apartheid South Africa. With the implementation of inclusive education, education became less segregated and fragmented, with the aim of ensuring equal learning opportunities for all children, including those with disabilities. The main driving force of inclusive education in South Africa is the *Education White Paper 6 on Special Needs Education: Building an inclusive education and training system* published in 2001.

The aim of this study was to understand inclusive education from the perspectives of those who are charged with the implementation thereof. Classroom educators (teachers) together with district-based support teams are seen as the primary resource for achieving the goal of an inclusive education and training system. This study focused on the perspectives of teachers from one primary and one secondary school in one education district (Education District A) and District-based support team members from another education district (Education District B) in the Western Cape.

The study takes on a social constructionist paradigm and illustrates how our understanding and conceptualisation of disability have changed overtime. A social constructionist paradigm highlights the way in which disability is a socially constructed and how it changes according to our understanding thereof. The different models of disability and the role of education was also a main focus of this study. A qualitative research design was used, with purposive and opportunity sampling being applied. Data was gathered using focus groups and in-depth semi-structured interviews and was analysed using thematic analysis.

The key findings of this study showed that the teachers and district-based support team members believe that inclusive education can be successful in South Africa provided that changes are made in how it is currently conceptualised and implemented. The teachers have a very different perspective on inclusive education from the support team members. The teachers believe that the success of inclusive education can only be ensured if barriers to teaching are prevented or eradicated, while the support team members believe the success of inclusive education depends on the identification and prevention of barriers to learning. Both groups do however believe that

inclusive education is a very good ideal to strive towards but that it has not yet been achieved and that the inclusion and education of all learners are of great importance.

Key concepts: Inclusive education, disability, social constructivism, barriers to learning, barriers to teaching, teachers, district-based support team members.

OPSOMMING

Die bekendstelling van inklusiewe onderwys in die Suid-Afrikaanse onderwysstelsel kan gesien word as een van die eerste stappe om gelykheid en menseregte in post-apartheid Suid-Afrika te bevorder. Met die implementering van inklusiewe onderwys het die onderwysstelsel meer toeganklik en minder gefragmenteerd geword. Die doel van inklusiewe onderwys is om te verseker dat alle kinders, ook dié met gestremdhede, gelyke leergeleenthede kry. Die belangrikste dryfkrag agter inklusiewe onderwys in Suid-Afrika is die *Onderwys Witskrif 6 oor Spesiale Onderwys: Die bou van 'n inklusiewe onderwys-en opleidingstelsel* wat in 2001 gepubliseer is.

Die doel van hierdie studie was om inklusiewe onderwys vanuit die perspektiewe van diegene wat dit moet implementeer te verstaan. Klaskamer opvoeders (onderwysers) asook distrikgebaseerde kringondersteuningspanne word gesien as die primêre bronne vir die bereiking van 'n inklusiewe onderwys-en opleidingstelsel. Hierdie studie het op die perspektiewe van onderwysers, van een primêre en een sekondêre skool in een onderwysdistrik (Onderwysdistrik A), en kringondersteuningspanlede, van 'n tweede onderwysdistrik (Onderwysdistrik B), in die Wes-Kaap gefokus.

Die studie neem 'n sosiale konstruktivistiese paradigma aan en illustreer hoe ons begrip en definiëring van gestremdheid oor tyd verander het. 'n Sosiale konstruktivistiese paradigma beklemtoon die manier waarop gestremdheid sosiaal gekonstrueer is en hoe dit verander volgens hoe ons begrip daarvan verander. Die verskillende modelle van gestremdheid en die rol van onderwys was ook 'n hoofokus van hierdie studie. 'n Kwalitatiewe navorsingsontwerp is gebruik, doelgerigte steekproefneming en geleentheid-steekproefneming was toegepas om die deelnemers te kies. Data is ingesamel deur middel van fokusgroepe en in-diepte semi-gestruktureerde onderhoude en is ontleed deur gebruik te maak van tematiese analise.

Die belangrikste bevindings van hierdie studie was dat die onderwysers en distrikgebaseerde kringondersteuningspanlede van mening is dat inklusiewe onderwys slegs in Suid-Afrika suksesvol kan wees mits daar veranderinge gemaak word in hoe ons dit tans konseptualiseer en implementeer. Die onderwysers se perspektief van inklusiewe onderwys verskil heelwat van die perspektiewe van die kringondersteuningspanlede. Die onderwysers is van mening dat van

inklusiewe onderwys slegs verseker sal wees indien hindernisse wat onderrig verhoed, voorkom of uitgewis word. Kringondersteuningspanlede is weer van mening die sukses van inklusiewe onderwys afhang van die identifisering en voorkoming van hindernisse van leer. Beide groepe is egter van mening dat inklusiewe onderwys 'n baie goeie ideaal is om na te streef, maar dat dit nog nie bereik is nie, ook dat die insluiting en opvoeding van alle leerders van groot belang is.

Kernbegrippe: Inklusiewe onderwys, gestremdheid, sosial konstruktivisme, hindernisse tot leer, hindernisse tot onderrig, onderwysers, distrikgebaseerde kringondersteuningspanlede.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

There are so many people who assisted me in various ways in making this research study possible and I would like to take this opportunity to extend my heartfelt gratitude to the following people:

Thank you to my wonderful fiancé, Ian, for your love, constant support and encouragement. Thank you for listening and giving advice even though your brain works in numbers.

I would like to thank my remarkable parents for providing me with a healthy curiosity and an inquisitive nature. Without your support, love and prayers none of this would have been possible. Thank you to all my brothers and sisters for your encouragement and interest.

I would like to acknowledge my supervisor, Jacob du Plessis, for his words of wisdom and insights, without your guidance I would have been lost, and the Department of Sociology and Social Anthropology, for providing me with the opportunity and skills to do research.

Two other people I would like to acknowledge and thank are Tania, my new sister, for all your generous insights, assistance and connections in high-“ish” places, and Aldu for all your help and insights.

And lastly a special thanks to Rolene Liebenberg at the Division for Community Interaction, the research participants, schools, education districts and Western Cape Education Department.

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ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

ABET	Adult Basic Education and Training
ADHD	Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder
BAC	Blood Alcohol Concentration
C2005	Curriculum 2005
C2025	Curriculum 2025
CAPS	Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statements (2010)
DBE	Department of Basic Education
DBST	District-based support team
DHE	Department of Higher Education
DOE	Department of Education
ECD	Early Childhood Development
EFA	Education for All
ELSEN	Exceptional Learners with Special Education Needs
FAS	Fetal Alcohol Syndrome
FET	Further Education and Training
GET	General Education and Training
HE	Higher Education
HIV/AIDS	Human Immunodeficiency Virus / Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome
IBST	Institution-based support team
IE	Inclusive education
NCESS	National Commission on Education Support Services
NCS	National Curriculum Statement
NCSNET	National Commission on Special Needs in Education and Training
OBE	Outcome-based education
REC	Research Ethics Committee
SIAS	Screening, Identification, Assessment and Support
SNE	Special Needs Education
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
WCED	Western Cape Education Department

CHAPTER 1:

CONTEXTUALISATION AND PROBLEM STATEMENT

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Everyone has the right (a) to a basic education, including adult basic education; and (b) to further education, which the state, through reasonable measures, must make progressively available and accessible (South African Bill of Rights, 1996).

These words caused a total paradigm shift in which the people of South Africa realised that education is a right and not just a privilege reserved for a select few. During apartheid South Africa's education system was segregated along racial lines. However, those who have suffered most during apartheid now also have a chance to a basic education, free of discrimination and exclusion. According to the *Education White Paper 6 on Special Needs education: Building an inclusive education and training system* (Department of Education, 2001), henceforth referred to as 'White Paper 6', the segregation of learners based on race was also extended to include segregation on the basis of disability. This implies that schools, during the apartheid era were segregated according to both race and (dis)ability.

The inclusion of learners with diverse abilities and educational needs in mainstream schools is now a major priority of education policy throughout the world, as well as in South Africa. This global emphasis on 'education for all' (UNESCO, 1994) within inclusive schools has served as a catalyst for the transformation of South African schools. While there is near-universality to the underlying view that inclusive education is a fundamental way of realising quality education for all, there are clear differences among national policies and the transformation of schools globally (Savolainen, Engelbrecht, Nel & Malinena, 2012:51).

In 1996 the National Commission on Special Needs in Education and Training (NCSNET) and the National Commission on Education Support Services (NCESS) began a process of research into the field of special education. The NCSNET and NCESS identified the need to integrate the separate systems of education in order to form a single comprehensive system to meet the needs of all learners (Pillay & Di Terlizzi, 2009:491). Subsequently, White Paper 6 was published in

2001. This outlined a route for South African education to follow the international trend of firstly inclusion (Pillay & Di Terlizzi, 2009:491), and secondly acknowledging the failure of the education system to respond to the needs of a substantial number of children, not only those previously defined as having ‘special needs’ (Engelbrecht, 2006:255). Differently-abled learners or learners with ‘special needs’ are those, according to White Paper 6 (Department of Education, 2001), who have moderate or severe learning needs, have been previously disadvantaged and who are affected by factors like poverty and HIV/AIDS. White Paper 6 considers learners with special needs most vulnerable to barriers to learning. In 2006 out of an approximate 12 293 785 learners nationally, 86 143 or 7% were learners with ‘special needs’, henceforth referred to as differently-abled learners, and in the Western Cape 14 537 or 1.5% out of an approximate 978 517 learners were differently-abled learners (Department of Education, 2008).

White Paper 6 focuses on promoting fair learning opportunities for differently-abled children as well as the training of teachers to ensure high quality educational practices. This policy also provides a “*framework for systematic change where strategies are orientated towards building the capacity of the system to respond to the full range of barriers to learning, including disabilities that exist among children in the country*” (Engelbrecht, 2006: 255).

One of the key principles of White Paper 6 is that education is a basic human right, and therefore all South African citizens – regardless of race, age, sex, physical or mental ability – have the right to a basic education (Department of Education, 2001). The introduction of inclusive education in the South African education system may be viewed as one of the first steps to promote equality and human rights in post-apartheid South Africa. Inclusive education is defined by White Paper 6 (2001, 16) as

(i) acknowledging that all learners and youth can learn and that all learners and youth need support; (ii) enabling the education structures, systems and learning methodologies to meet the needs of all learners; (iii) acknowledging and respecting differences in learners, whether due to age, gender, ethnicity, language, class, disability, HIV or other infections; (iv) [that learning is] broader than formal schooling and acknowledging that learning also occurs in the home and community, and within formal and informal settings and structures; (v) changing attitudes, behaviour, teaching methods, curricula and environment to meet the needs of all learners; and (vi) maximising the participation of all

learners in the culture and the curriculum of educational institutions and uncovering and minimising the barriers to learning.

In South Africa, inclusive education is framed within a human-rights discourse, as is evident in White Paper 6, which foregrounds key values of equality, social justice, human rights and respect for diversity (Ngcobo & Muthukrishna, 2011:357). With the implementation of inclusive education, education could become less segregated and fragmented, with the aim of ensuring equal learning opportunities for all children, including differently-abled learners.

Ngcobo and Muthukrishna (2011:357) agree with this view, and add that White Paper 6 provides a framework for change within the education system to ensure that learners who experience barriers to learning and participation – including barriers that may arise from HIV/AIDS, language, disability, race, class, gender and socio-economic-status differences – may also be included in mainstream schools and receive basic education. Thus, building an inclusive education system requires changes in the way in which people understand, conceptualise, explain and therefore respond to diversity in the learner population (Ngcobo & Muthukrishna, 2011:357).

Even though inclusive education is a step towards righting past wrongs, as well as creating a more inclusive and non-discriminatory education system, it must be emphasised that including differently-abled children or learners with additional needs into mainstream classrooms where teachers may not be equipped to adequately educate these learners may constitute a move in the wrong direction. This is why White Paper 6 also places great emphasis on the training of teachers to ensure quality education, as well as to reduce stress and frustration on the part of the teacher (Department of Education, 2001).

The focus of this study is to (1) understand the perceptions and practices of the teachers in two mainstream schools with unique circumstances who have to cater to the needs of both differently-abled learners as well as learners perceived as ‘normal’, i.e. able-bodied learners, in relation to the formal requirements of (2) inclusive education policies in South Africa.

According to Vosloo (2009:23), it is unclear whether the policy framework discussed in White Paper 6 is being implemented at school level to ensure that differently-abled learners are included into the current school system, or whether they are simply being mainstreamed in order

to show that the inclusive education policy, as conceptualised in White Paper 6, is being implemented.

My motivation for conducting this study partially draws from the issue Vosloo (2009:23) highlights in her study when asking the question: “*Is inclusive education being implemented for the sake of being more “democratic” and to fit in with international trends*”, or is this policy in fact a viable option for the South African education system? In addition to satisfying my own curiosity about the quality of education differently-abled learners receive in mainstream schools, and to better understand the policies regarding inclusive education, I am particularly interested in understanding inclusive education from the perspective of individuals, like teachers and other stakeholders working within this new paradigm. I also believe that this is a very relevant topic based on the great emphasis placed on education as a driving point for the promotion of human rights, equity and redress. And with the recent failure of Outcome Based Education (OBE) and Curriculum 2005 and the development of the new Curriculum 2025 I believe it necessary to ask the question; can inclusive education work in South African schools?

This section provided a brief introduction into inclusive education and special needs in South Africa, in order to explain the context of this study. It also partially explained the motivation behind the study, which will be further discussed in the following section under the aim of the study. In what follows the question outlined above will be discussed further. I will then provide a brief overview of the ensuing chapters.

1.2 RESEARCH PROBLEM AND AIM

Since the 1980’s the education of minorities, like the differently-abled, women and different race groups, have been wildly publicised and came under the scrutiny of international human rights organisations and national governments. After the Salamanca Statement¹ and the Education for All movement² was published a renewed focus was placed on education as a human right and driving force for equality and fair learning opportunities through the implementation of inclusive education. National governments made the Education for All movement part of their national agendas and South Africa experienced immense pressure to also review their education policies.

¹ The Salamanca Statement will be further discussed in section 2.3.2

² The Education for All movement will be further discussed in section 2.3.1.2

With the end of apartheid and democratisation in 1994 inclusive education, as conceptualised through the Salamanca Statement and Education for All movement, experienced a rebirth and became the cornerstone for the new education system in South Africa.

South Africa has a very unique population with very unique social and economic contexts. It is vital to consider these factors when adopting and implementing policies from other countries. The study's aim is, consequently, to explore inclusive education in South Africa and to understand how it is practically implemented in South African classrooms. Is inclusive education in fact a viable option for the education system or is it simply to highlight democratisation and not really tailored to the specific context and lived experiences of the South African people?

From the existing literature on inclusive education it is evident that most studies focus mainly on the microsystems within a single classroom as well as evaluating and monitoring educators on their implementation of inclusive education. This study focused on the perspectives of individuals, teachers and district-based support team members. Through this strategy the focus is not on the evaluation of teachers, but rather placing it on the perspectives of teachers and the district-based support teams who have to practically implement inclusive education in their classrooms and other centres for learning.

The main research problem therefore is: "Can inclusive education, in South African schools, work according to the perspectives of teachers and district-based support team members"? Due to the broad nature of such a question and the practical implications of such an endeavour it is not possible to interview all teachers and district-based support team members involved in the South African education system, therefore this study is delineated to a sample of two school districts in the Western Cape.

Due to the particular problem, and the delineation of the scope it would be best answered by individuals directly involved with implementing inclusive education. In order to fully determine whether or not inclusive education is perceived as 'working' and 'relevant' it was necessary to examine key policy documents on inclusive education, such as White Paper 6 as well as understanding the South African education system. It was also important to answer two key questions namely: (1) "What type of training are teachers receiving in order to be inclusive

educators?”, and (2) “What type of support is being provided to teachers within an inclusive setting?”.

1.3 CHAPTER OVERVIEW

The aim of chapter two is to provide a conceptualisation of the key concepts used in this study as well as a discussion of the theoretical framework which informed the study. Furthermore, chapter two will also offer a detailed literature review of the historical development of special needs education and education support services in South Africa as well as an overview of inclusive education and how it developed in South Africa through White Paper 6. Chapter two will end with an overview of teacher training and the teacher’s role in inclusive education.

With an overview of the theoretical framework, the South African education system and inclusive education the conversation can then be moved onto how the research was done. Chapter three will provide a discussion on the research design and methodology used in this study, with particular focus on sampling, data gathering and data analysis. Chapter three will end with a discussion on the ethical considerations made as well as an overview of the research procedure.

Chapter four will offer a discussion on the research findings by first providing an introduction of the main themes found during data analysis and then an explanation on how the data gathered ultimately informed the research question. The last chapter, chapter 5, will offer conclusions and recommendations for further study in this field.

In the following chapter an overview of the literature pertaining to inclusive education in South Africa will be provided, and the theoretical framework within which this study is framed will also be presented. Given the centrality of social inequality as theme in education in South Africa, in both an apartheid and post-apartheid context, main arguments presented is within a human rights and social justice framework and of redressing inequalities as a result of past injustices and policy reform in the post-1994 framework.

CHAPTER 2:

CONCEPTUALISATION AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

The main focus of this study was the perspectives of key role players who have to implement inclusive education in the Western Cape. In the following sections some of the core concepts in this study will be discussed and an overview of the education system as well as of the historical development of special needs education in South Africa and the development of White Paper 6 as it is the core policy document pertaining to inclusive education will be discussed. Because inclusive education is the core tenet in this study I will also focus on the development thereof both internationally and nationally.

2.2 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

For the purpose of this study the following concepts will be explained to give the reader a sense of context and understanding when reading the rest of this research: special needs and disability, the medical model of disability, human rights and the social model of disability, barriers to learning, learner diversity, curriculum differentiation, and full-service and mainstream schools and resource centres.

2.2.1 Special needs and Disability

Using the language of the deficit approach, the concept “special needs” can be viewed as an umbrella term for children who have a mental and/or physical disability; previously disadvantaged learners, as well as learners who suffer(ed) from mental and/or physical abuse (Department of Education, 2001). In a more human rights approach, children with ‘special needs’ or ‘disabilities’ are more appropriately referred to as ‘differently-abled children’ or learners with ‘different needs’. On the other hand, children perceived as ‘normal’, i.e. children with no mental and/or physical disability, who were not previously disadvantaged or suffer(ed) from mental and/or physical abuse, are referred to here as ‘able-bodied’ children. White Paper 6 extends the definition of special needs to learners “*not only with physical, mental or neurological*

impairments, but also those experiencing learning difficulties as a result of socio-economic deprivation” (2001: 16).

When hearing the word ‘disability’ one usually thinks of impairment or inability to do something, but within the social sciences there is no clear consensus on what constitutes disability (Mitra, 2006). The word disability has been used across several different disciplines from medicine to sociology and used in various different contexts. Not only is there a plethora of different definitions of disability but the way in which disability is perceived is mostly influenced by the history, experiences and contexts of different ethnic and cultural groups (Smith & Smith, 2006). According to the World Health Organisation’s (WHO) website disability is;

[...] ³ an umbrella term, covering impairments, activity limitations, and participation restrictions. An impairment is a problem in body function or structure; an activity limitation is a difficulty encountered by an individual in executing a task or action; while a participation restriction is a problem experienced by an individual in involvement in life situations.

There is a clear distinction between physical disability and mental/intellectual disability these two ‘types’ of disability are not mutually exclusive and one can occur without the occurrence of the other. Intellectual disability is characterised by “*significant limitations in intellectual functioning and adaptive behavior and manifest during the developmental period*” (Schalock, 2011). Disability can not only be seen as a health problem but also a complex phenomenon involving the interaction between the features of a person’s body and the features of the society in which that person lives (WHO, 2013).

One definition is therefore not better or less appropriate than the other but each simply originates from different perspectives, even though much literature supports the idea that disability is socially constructed it is important to remember that disability will always have physical manifestations and that these cannot be ignored when defining disability.

Disability is most often measured according to level of dependence or level of support needed. This measurement ties in with the medical model of disability where medical thinking about

³ Brackets are not original but my one. Brackets within quotes are added for grammatical consistency.

differently-abled individuals “*predominates schools where special educational needs are thought of as emanating from the individual who is seen as different, faulty and needing to be assessed and made as normal as possible*” (Rieser, 2006).

Thus, the understanding of disability as a characteristic solely situated within the individual is changing to a paradigm in which disability is believed to be an interaction “*among the individual, the disability and the environment*” (Smith & Smith, 2006).

There are two approaches to identifying differently-abled individuals as a group, the first of which is based on a physical or medical understanding and the second on a socio-cultural understanding (Shakespeare, 1996). The physical or medical understanding perceives disability as the result of impairment, according to Shakespeare (1996: 95) “*it is a form of biological determinism, because it focuses on physical difference*”. From this understanding differently-abled individuals are identified as a group, because according to medical standards their bodies do not work correctly, they look or act differently and they are seen as not as productive at work as their able-bodied counterparts (Shakespeare, 1996). In this approach the key elements are “*performing and conforming – both raise questions of normality, because this approach assumes a certain standard*” (Shakespeare, 1996) from which differently-abled people deviate. The medical model of disability is conceived from this understanding. The second approach to identifying differently-abled individuals as a group stems from a socio-cultural understanding. According to this approach disability is perceived as an outcome of “*social processes or as a constructed or created category*” (Shakespeare, 1996). White Paper 6 and the National Department of Education adopted the latter approach to disability, where disability is seen not just as an individualistic medical problem but rather as constructed by social circumstance like poverty, racial discrimination and HIV/AIDS.

When working with or studying differently-abled individuals it is important to remember that the disability is “*not the single defining characteristic of the individual; rather the disability is one of several important parts of the individual’s self-identity*” (Smith & Smith, 2006).

2.2.2 Models of disability

Before I discuss the different models of disability it is important to first explain what is meant by ‘models of disability’. In disability research, as stated by Llewellyn and Hogan (2000: 157) a model represents a “*certain kind of theory, namely structural, which seeks to explain phenomena by reference to an abstract system and mechanism*”.

The advantage of the use of a model is that models enable us to represent information in a way that may aid understanding. In this sense, the use of a model provides us with a different way of examining the world of the young person with a physical disability and, as such, may serve as a generator of new testable hypotheses.

Disability is a natural part of human existence and as the world develops and new technological and medical advances are made, so our world view and views of disability also develop and change (Smart & Smart, 2006). The way in which our views change the models according to which we explain disability also change.

We should not see the Models as a series of exclusive options with one superior to or replacing previous sets. Their development and popularity provides us with a continuum on changing social attitudes to disability and where they are at a given time. Models change as society changes. Given this degree of understanding, our future objective should be to develop and operate a cluster of models, which will empower people with disabilities, giving them full and equal rights alongside their fellow citizens (MDRC, 2013).

Several different models of disability exist and are seen as tools or frameworks from which disability can be defined. Below I will discuss the two main models of disability, namely the medical model and the social model of disability.

2.2.2.1 Medical model of disability

In the majority of the literature, the focus is on the medical model of disability as theoretical framework. Within Sociology the medical model of disability is also seen as an individualistic model of disability (Llewellyn & Hogan, 2000). According to Engelbrecht (2006: 256), the medical model of disability locates the source of the deficits within the individual, and justifies

social inequalities on the grounds of biological inequalities. According to Rieser (1997:135) this model sees the disabled person as the problem and that the person should adapt to fit into the world, this is in line with the view that “*the human being is flexible and `alterable’ while society is fixed and unalterable*” (Llewellyn & Hogan, 2000). Rieser (1997:135) further explains that

[T]he emphasis is on dependence, backed up by the stereotypes of disability that call forth pity, fear and patronizing attitudes. Rather than on the needs of the person, the focus is usually on the impairment.

Naicker (2005:236) agrees with this view and adds that the medical model associates disability with impairment and loss and that this view’s focus is solely on the assumption that the individual is helpless and dependent. Within education people with disabilities are seen as in need of treatment and assistance outside of the regular or ‘normal’ school system (Naicker, 2005).

2.2.2.2 Social model of disability

According to Pillay and Di Terlizzi (2009:491), South Africa’s system of education has changed significantly over the past fourteen years of democracy. As human rights began to feature as a new cornerstone of the country’s policy imperatives, these were extended to include the right to education, free of discrimination and prejudice. This subsequently marks the move away from an individualistic, deficit-approach to needs, as was adopted during apartheid, to a more human rights based approach. This approach is also called the ‘social model’ of disability and stems from a social movement of disabled people (Shakespeare, 1996). The social model of disability sees disability as a “*relationship between people with ‘impairments’ and a discriminatory society*” (Shakespeare, 1996). This approach defines disability as “*the outcome of disabling barriers imposed by environmental or policy interventions*” (Shakespeare, 1996). This model of disability also views disability as a social construct and does not attribute the disability to the individual, as in the case of the medical model, but rather views disability as being created by the social environment of the individual, which requires social change.

In line with this, the model suggests that the barriers that prevent differently-abled individuals from participating fully in any situation are what disable them and not impairment within the

individual (Rieser, 1997). According to Rieser (1997:135) the social model focuses on the child's right to belong and the strengths of the child instead on his or her 'differentness'.

The social model of disability derives some proponents of its arguments from social constructionism (Anastaiou & Kauffman, 2011). Social constructionism, simply put, is theories of knowledge that emphasize the social constructed nature of phenomena, in this case the social construction of disability. As stated by Wendell (1996: 58) disability is socially constructed;

[...] in ways ranging from social conditions that straight forwardly create illnesses, injuries, and poor physical functioning, to subtle cultural factors that determine standards of normality and exclude those who do not meet them from full participation in their societies.

Thus, even though disability may have biomedical origins it cannot only be defined in biological terms, because as stated by Wendell (1996: 57) "*social arrangements and expectations make essential contributions to impairment and disability and to their absence*", in viewing disability mainly as a social construct the social model has succeeded in "*de-medicalising and de-individualising disability*" (Palmer & Harley, 2012). The social model has however been criticised for not fully considering the lived experiences of differently-abled individuals by failing to address impairment as a physical and medical reality (Palmer & Harley, 2012) experienced by the individual. According to Palmer and Harley (2012: 358) based on this critique a more inclusive social theory was called for which could focus on "*the relational element between the individual and society*". Subsequently, a refined version of the social model was developed and appropriately named the social-relational model of disability (Palmer and Harley, 2012).

The social-relational model of disability acknowledges both the social and the personal/individual effects of disability (Palmer & Harley, 2012), but asserts that the effects of societal attitudes about disability or impairment is what is the major disabling factor (Palmer & Harley, 2012). Therefore, this model of disability considers both the individual impairment as well as the social constructed attitudes or ideas about that impairment when conceptualising disability.

2.2.3 Barriers to learning

Many psychological theories and the medical model of disability believe that the old education system worked and that learners who experienced learning breakdown and learners who are regarded as disabled are to blame for their learning difficulties. Having an inclusive education system means to move away from perceiving disability in purely medical terms and rather examine which obstacles exist in the system that are causing learning breakdown within differently-abled learners (Department of Basic Education, 2010). These obstacles are called 'barriers to learning'.

According to the guidelines for inclusive learning programmes (2005) barriers to learning refer to any difficulties that may arise within the learner him/herself, the education system as a whole and/or the learning site or school. These difficulties include anything that may stand in the way or prevent the learner to fully participate and learn effectively. Barriers to learning may not always exist all the time, but can arise suddenly, due to change in circumstances, emotional trauma and a variety of other factors (Department of Education, 2005). According to Engelbrecht (2011:148) there is a difference between learners whose barriers to learning are rooted in organic/medical causes and those whose barriers are rooted in systemic difficulties, including poverty and under-resourced schools.

Some of the most common barriers to learning include disabilities, language and communication, lack of parental recognition and involvement, socio-economic barriers, untrained teachers and an undifferentiated curriculum (Department of Education, 2005).

2.2.4 Learner diversity

Through the implementation of inclusive education the education system's failure to respond to a vast number of learners' diverse educational needs are being acknowledged (Engelbrecht, 2011). According to the Department of Basic Education learner diversity means to recognise that people are unique in their own way and that all the learners in one classroom are not necessarily similar.

When we look into our classrooms we will observe that there are learners from different socio-economic, language, cultural, religious, ethnic, racial, gender, sexual orientation, ability groups etc. All these learners come to school with different experiences. We therefore can see that we have rich diversity in the learner population (Department of Basic Education, 2011).

Having a diverse learner population means that the different needs and contexts of the learners need to be considered when they are being educated. Benjamin (2002, 309) adds that the term ‘diversity’ allows for the reconceptualization of ‘difference’, and for the production of non-hierarchical plural identities. The school that “*values diversity does not separate or exclude anyone, but instead celebrates the plurality of its community, to the benefit and inclusion of all*” (Benjamin, 2002). The greater the learner population the more curriculum differentiation (discussed below) has to be incorporated by the teacher in the classroom.

2.2.5 Curriculum differentiation

According to the Department of Education (2011: 7) it is very important for all educators to understand that the most significant way to respond learner diversity in the classroom is through the curriculum. Thus, using the curriculum in such a way to respond to the needs and diversity of the learners in the classroom, this is called curriculum differentiation (Department of Education, 2011). Curriculum differentiation involves the process of modifying, changing, adapting, extending, and varying teaching methodologies, teaching strategies, assessment strategies and the content of the curriculum. It takes into account learners’ ability levels, interests and backgrounds. Curriculum differentiation can be done at the level of content, teaching methodologies, assessment and learning environment (Department of Education, 2011).

This means that instead of the learner changing to fit in with the teacher and the curriculum, the teacher is adapting to fit in with the learner’s personal needs. Barriers to learning can successfully be minimized through curriculum differentiation (Department of Education, 2011). But this also means that there could potentially be a classroom filled with learners of the same age but with several different levels of support needed or learning needs and the teacher has to cater to each learner individually. This can place a great deal of pressure on a teacher especially in under resourced schools and if the teacher has not been adequately trained.

2.2.6 Full-service and mainstream schools and resource centres

Within the new inclusive education system there are three ‘types’ of schools; mainstream schools also known as ordinary schools, full-service schools and special schools also acting as resource centres. Learners will attend any of the three ‘types’ of schools according to their own preference and individual level of support needed.

‘Full-service schools’ refer to some 500 ordinary primary schools which are being phased in over time (OECD, 2008) and is defined as schools that will be equipped and supported to provide for the full range of learning needs among the learner population as well as shown how to develop their own capacity to address barriers to learning (Department of Education, 2001). These full-service schools will receive support in the form of physical and material resources, professional development of the staff as well as specialised support from the district-based support teams and resource centres (Department of Education, 2001). Full-service schools are thus seen first and foremost as mainstream schools providing quality education to all learners by supplying the full range of learning needs in an equitable manner. A mainstream school refers to an ordinary (primary or secondary) school which caters to able-bodied learners.

For ordinary schools to be identified as full-service schools they must comply with or show potential to comply with the following criteria in a relatively short period of time;

- *The school must be accessible to learners with a range of different needs via public transport and within the cluster/group of schools.*
- *The school must have access to water and toilets and the built environment of the school, playground and terrain must be accessible to differently-abled learners.*
- *The school must have strong leadership and a general positive ethos which embraces change.*
- *The school must have an effective and visionary School Management Team and Governing body.*
- *The school must have space for further expansion.*
- *The school must participate in other Department of Education initiatives which make it fertile ground to serve as a full-service school e.g. projects such as Health promoting*

schools, Schools as Centres of Care and Support, Child Friendly Schools and Inclusive Education Initiatives.

- *The school must have access to other support programmes run by NGO's and other Government Departments.*
- *There must be other support services within the community e.g. Hospitals, Clinics, Welfare Agencies, sporting facilities, Youth Centres.*
- *The full-service school should serve a mentoring role to other schools and must therefore have a level of human resource capacity that can be built on (Thutong, 2013).*

Special schools provide critical education services to learners who need intense levels of support, but special schools also accommodate learners who need less support and who should ideally, according to White Paper 6 (Department of Education 2001) be in a mainstream school. Thus, learners who require intense levels of support will be accommodated in special schools, while learners with moderate learning needs will be accommodated in mainstream or full-service schools (Department of Education, 2001). With the implementation of White Paper 6 the hope was to raise the overall quality of education differently-abled learners receive while also strengthening the special schools so that they can in turn use their expertise and specialised knowledge. This included “*especially professional support in curriculum, assessment and instruction*” (Department of Education, 2001) to provide support to neighbouring schools and in particular to full-service schools (Department of Education, 2001) thus, turning into resource-centres. Engelbrecht (2011: 150) summarizes the three ‘types’ of schools as follows:

[M]ainstream schools should provide services for students who do not need intensive levels of support. At this level, learning support is guided by daily teaching strategies, changes in culture in the school, and the development of appropriate attitudes within school communities. Full-service schools, on the other hand, should provide support for students with moderate learning support needs. Existing special schools/resource centres provide support for students who need high levels of support; for example, students with specific disabilities, such as deafness or hearing impairment, blindness or visual impairment, physical disabilities, and severe intellectual disabilities. These schools are equipped with technical equipment as well as professional support teams,

and therefore also need to develop their role as resource centres for all the schools in their districts.

Thus, able-bodied learners would be enrolled in either a mainstream or full-service school and differently-abled learners depending on their level of support needed would be enrolled in a full-service school or a special school. The plan is that learners with moderate learning needs would go to a special school and once improved move back to the full-service school.

White Paper 6 determines that all schools, teaching personnel and administrative personnel will also receive additional support and guidance from district-based support teams (DBST). District-based support teams are trans-disciplinary teams whose primary responsibility is to promote inclusive education. The DBST's role is in addition also to administer the Screening, Identification, Assessment and Support (SIAS) of learners who experience barriers to learning (Thutong, 2013).

2.2.7 District-based support teams (DBST)

According to White Paper 6 (Department of Education, 2001) the district-based support teams are;

[...] groups of departmental employees whose job it is to promote inclusive education through training, curriculum delivery, distribution of resources, identifying and addressing barriers to learning, leadership and general management.

The DBST is a multi-disciplinary group comprising of a school psychologist, occupational therapist and teacher with a fourth departmental employee as the head of the team. Each DBST is assigned a certain amount of schools in their school district with who they closely work to implement inclusive education.

2.2.8 Institution-level support team (ILST)

These teams are established by general, further and higher education institutions to work as an institutional-level support mechanism whose main function is to establish co-ordinated learner, educator and school support services (Department of Education, 2008).

2.3 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

In this section the different theories and key paradigm that informed this study will be discussed. The first part of this section discusses the role and models of education, the roles and models of education explain the theory behind the importance of education. In the second part of this section the paradigm shift which took place with regards to how disability is viewed and social constructivism as theoretical framework of this study will be discussed.

2.3.1 The role and models of education

It can be said that education has several different roles; using Robeyns' modified typology I will discuss two of these roles, namely the intrinsic and instrumental roles of education (Robeyns, 2006). The intrinsic role of education speaks to the intrinsic importance of education, which simply put means that through education knowledge is acquired and the notion of knowing something simply for the sake of having that knowledge is important to some individuals (Robeyns, 2006). Having this knowledge does not add any value to the life of the individual other than on an intellectual level. This can be seen in individuals who study foreign languages who will most likely never use them or someone who learns how to write poetry (Robeyns, 2006) without the objective of becoming a poet. This approach can contribute to an individual being a more rounded individual with diverse interests.

Apart from the intrinsic importance of education it also has an instrumental role which can be divided up in two dimensions; the personal vs. the collective and the economic vs. the non-economic (Robeyns, 2006). The instrumental personal economic role of education is to acquire knowledge and skills which will ultimately assist you in finding a job, "*to be less vulnerable on the labour market and to be a better informed consumer*" (Robeyns, 2006). This role of education is vital to people's standard of living and increases your ability to provide for and protect your family. The instrumental economic role of education is not only for individuals but also pertains to the collective (Robeyns, 2006), the economic value of education is evident when it comes to acquiring knowledge and a skill set which can help in eradicating unemployment and have a positive influence on the economy of a country.

The non-economic instrumental role of education also has a personal and a collective level. On a personal non-economic level education adds value to the life of an individual through basic empowerment (Robeyns, 2006). By acquiring the skills of basic literacy or computer literacy, for example, a person can make informed decisions and be knowledgeable about issues concerning health, politics and religion, depending on the quality of the education received. On a non-economic collective level education increases social awareness and promotes a more tolerant society with a better understanding of diversity (Robeyns, 2006). This means differently-abled individuals are more likely to be accepted in society by able-bodied individuals.

The role of education can be considered as a criterion according to which society judges the importance of education. As mentioned above education is viewed as important on several different levels, and the quality of the education one receives is directly in relation to how important education is judged to be. Who is deemed most appropriate to receive an education is also illustrated by the importance thereof as viewed by society. For instance, if the role of education is judged, by society, to be of an instrumental economic value then it is rational to think that only those who can contribute, through receiving an education, to the economy would receive an education. This then excludes all persons, like the differently-abled, who are seen as less productive than their able-bodied counterparts. This is also evident in gender studies where, historically, the education of women were seen as inappropriate and not as important as that their male counterparts.

There exist several different models of education which underlie educational policies. In the following section I will discuss three models of education; the human capital, rights and capability models, which best illustrate the role of education in inclusive educational policies. I will also demonstrate how the role of education is highlighted by each model.

2.3.1.1 Education as human capital

The human capital model views education in terms of human capital and highlights the instrumental economic role of education in which education is judged according to economic importance (Robeyns, 2006). This model uses human capital theory, a well established part of standard economic theory (Robeyns, 2006), to conceptualise education and was pioneered in the 1960s by a group of economists from the University of Chicago (Robeyns, 2006). Human capital

is seen as the investment in human beings through education, i.e. formal schooling, to acquire the necessary skills and knowledge that would improve productivity and ultimately enhance economic growth (Fitzsimons, 1999).

In modern human capital theory all human behaviour is based on the economic self-interest of individuals operating within freely competitive markets. Other forms of behaviour are excluded or treated as merely distortions of the model (Fitzsimons, 1999).

Thus this model views education from an economic perspective and considers education an important tool in the acquirement of knowledge and skills which leads to greater wage-earning possibilities (Robeyns, 2006) and is unable to understand human activity other than the exchange of commodities. Human capital theory considers education relevant only in so far as it produces knowledgeable workers which will in turn improve productivity and benefit the economy (Robeyns, 2006). This model views education especially beneficial for individuals living in poverty as is the case for many South Africans.

The human capital model does have a valid argument in that skills and knowledge acquired through education are important facets of a person's income-generating ability (Robeyns, 2006), but is also very limiting as it does not recognise the intrinsic value of education, or the personal or collective instrumental social roles of education (Robeyns, 2006). According to Robeyns (2006: 72) there are a number of problems with this model, the first of which is it is economic, from this view the only benefit to education is increased productivity and higher salaries. It doesn't consider issues relating to culture, identity, gender and history, only to name a few. The second problem of the human capital model is that it is exclusively instrumental; it values education, skills and knowledge only in so far as they directly or indirectly contribute to economic productivity (Robeyns, 2006). Thus, skills acquired through education are only seen as important in so far it can generate an income. Understanding education only in terms of human capital is very limiting and detrimental, as this model does not recognize the intrinsic importance of education, or the personal and collective instrumental social roles of education (Robeyns, 2006).

According to this model, to put it in terms of economics, not everyone has the same rate of return on education (Robeyns, 2006). Giving the same quantity and quality of education means that not all individuals will be able to use the acquired skills for income-generating activities to the same efficiency (Robeyns, 2006). This is particularly true in the case of differently-abled individuals, who maybe due to intellectual or physical disabilities will not perform equally to their able-bodied counterparts. Considering education only important if it can ultimately generate an income implies that this model does not view the education of differently-abled individuals important, as statistically it will cost more with fewer benefits at the end. This then raises the question of whether or not the investment in the education of differently-abled learners would be similar to that of able-bodied learners who are more likely to contribute economically and be a better return on investment. Through the implementation of inclusive education and the focus on human rights it is assumed that differently-abled individuals now also receive quality education focused on their capabilities rather than on their short-comings.

2.3.1.2 The right to education

The right to education is deeply embedded in the notion that education is a basic human right and which should be afforded to all, especially children, and is at a policy level the cornerstone of the 'Education for All' (EFA) movement (Robeyns, 2006). The EFA movement was first introduced at the World Education Forum in Dakar in 2000, where 168 countries pledged to provide quality basic education for all children and adults by the year 2015 (UNESCO, 2013). Education being a basic human right implies that governments should do anything in their power to ensure that education is accessible to all eligible learners. This model views the right to an education in a legal sense and in terms of access to a school. South Africa's commitment to education for all by 2015 is evident through the implementation of inclusive education in 2001 and schooling is compulsory for all learners between the ages of 7 and 15 regardless of their individual capacity to learn.

McCowan (2011: 296) argues that "*the legal expression of the universal right to education, while containing valuable guarantees, is deficient in terms of its detail*". This view does not pay sufficient attention to other forms of learning and views formal schooling as the only mode of fulfilling the right to education (McCowan, 2011). But having a right and actually having the

ability to practice that right are two very different things. Barriers like untrained teachers, under resourced schools, unsafe built environments and exposure to sexual violence, only to name a few, stand in the way of actually getting an education (Robeyns, 2006).

Viewing education as a right, an entitlement of sorts is the polar opposite of viewing education as an investment from which to ultimately gain economically. As a consequence, individuals who are unlikely to be a ‘good return on investment’, like differently-abled individuals, are still entitled to receive a quality education. Including differently-abled learners in mainstream schools may fulfil this right to an education, but is the quality and nature of the education they are receiving really adding value to their lives and highlighting their skills in stead of their weaknesses or are they simply being included in the mainstream as a display of their right to an education?

McCowan (2011: 289) argues that the right to education cannot be taken on its own but has to be viewed in association with other relevant rights. This inter-dependable nature of rights can be seen through what McCowan (2011: 289) calls “*the right to education*”, “*rights in education*” and “*rights through education*”. The right to education highlights access to education through a school or other educational institution. Rights in education refer to the protection of and respect for learners while they are at school and the right through education highlights how education develops capabilities for exercising your human rights (McCowan, 2011). If the right to an education involves all three of these actually receiving a quality education is possible as opposed to having a right without having the capability to practice that right. White Paper 6 and the Department of Education views education from this model and through the implementation of inclusive education hope to extend this right to all. Education as a basic human right highlights the non-economic personal and collective role of education.

2.3.1.3 Education as a capability

In the previous two sections education was discussed in terms of human capital and a rights framework. Education as human capital, which has a strong economic view, only considers education important in so far it can lead to economic benefits. Education as a basic human right views education, in a legal sense, as an entitlement and that an equal and just education can only be attained through formal schooling which must be provided by the government. Both of these

models of education are valid in their own right, but fail to see the over all benefits of education, benefits which include the enhancement of well-being and personal freedom of individuals and groups, the improvement of economic production and the positive effect on social change (Unterhalter, 2003). The capabilities model of education acknowledges all these benefits as well as all the different roles of education.

Capabilities are the various functionings that a person can attain – where functionings are the constitutive elements of living, that is, doing and being. Examples of functionings are being healthy, being educated, holding a job, being part of a nurturing family, having deep friendships, etc. Functionings are thus outcomes or achievements, whereas capabilities are the real opportunities to achieve valuable states of being and doing (Robeyns, 2006).

Thus, the capabilities approach to education, views education as a tool to achieve goals which constitute a valuable life. This approach does not disregard education as an investment in human capital nor does it disagree that education should be a basic human right and thus a fundamental entitlement (McCowan 2011); it however highlights the quality of education received and the value it adds to the individual's functioning as a full rounded human being. It also places great emphasis on the conditions necessary for people to exercise their rights through quality education which plays to their strengths and not their weaknesses, thus through the capabilities model the role of education is both intrinsic and instrumental to the development of human beings (Robeyns, 2006). The capabilities approach to education highlights both the intrinsic and instrumental roles to education.

2.3.2 Paradigm shift

A major paradigm shift has taken place with regards to how disability is viewed and how the needs of differently-abled learners are being accommodated within the education system. A paradigm shift, according to Barnes (2010: 13) is a radical change in the way one views the world. Historically, disability was viewed from a medical model and education policies during apartheid supported this view, with learners being segregated according to race and disability. Since the 1980s and more so after *the Salamanca statement and Framework for action on special needs education* (UNESCO, 1994), henceforth referred to as the Salamanca statement, was released a paradigm shift has caused a move away from the medical model to a more inclusive

social model of disability, this is also evident in the change from segregated education systems during apartheid to inclusive educational practices post-1994. The guiding principle that informs the framework proposed in the Salamanca statement (UNESCO, 1994) is that;

[S]chools should accommodate all children regardless of their physical, intellectual, social, emotional, linguistic or other conditions. This should include disabled and gifted children, street and working children, children from remote or nomadic populations, children from linguistic, ethnic or cultural minorities and children from other disadvantaged or marginalized areas or groups.

The Salamanca statement (UNESCO, 1994) also states that every differently-abled learner has the right “*to express their wishes with regard to their education, as far as this can be ascertained*”. This means that all full-service and mainstream schools should have the capability to accommodate a whole range of learning needs in the case that a differently-abled learner chooses to go to a mainstream school instead of a special school.

As discussed above the medical model of disability sees individuals from a disease model (Llewellyn & Hogan, 2000) where differently-abled people are impaired and have a problem which must be corrected through medical means, this predisposed parents, educators and medical professionals to think of disability as a ‘condition’ which needed appropriate ‘treatment’ (Llewellyn & Hogan, 2000). This gave way to the assumption that differently-abled individuals had to be taken out of society and cared for elsewhere (Hughes & Paterson, 1997), as evident with differently-abled learners who were tested and labelled and then taken out of mainstream schools and placed in special schools.

The social model of disability also discussed above, views impairment or disability as a social construct and proposes that social norms and views have to change for a more inclusive society (Llewellyn & Hogan, 2000). Thus, in contrast to the medical model where the differently-abled individual had to change in order to ‘fit in’ with a fixed society, the social model believes that society must adapt to ‘fit in’ with the needs of the differently-abled individual. This is evident through inclusive education were not only the built environment of mainstream and full-service schools have to be adapted to fit in with the needs of differently-abled learners but also through

curriculum differentiation (discussed above) in classrooms where the learning content has to be specifically tailored to the needs of each learner in the class.

2.4 SUMMARY

During apartheid disability was viewed from a medical model in which disability was considered an individual problem and due to an impairment for which a medical intervention was needed. Differently-abled learners were tested and classified as disabled and the treatment was administered in segregated centres of learning or in clinics. After the end of apartheid a paradigm shift occurred in which disability in the South African education system was no longer viewed from a medical model but from a social model grounded in human rights. The social model views disability as a social construct and social change is required to limit discrimination based on disability.

This chapter highlighted this paradigm shift as theoretical framework for this study as well as the different models of education and how they inform our understanding of education. A conceptualisation of the key concepts was also provided. The following chapter will provide an overview of the literature paying particular attention to the historic development of special needs in South Africa, how the current education system is structured, the development of White Paper 6 and inclusive education. The chapter will end with a discussion on teachers, their training and their role within an inclusive education system.

CHAPTER 3:

LITERATURE REVIEW

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The main focus of this study is inclusive education and the implementation thereof in the South African education system. This section will provide a comprehensive literature review of the historical development of special needs education in South Africa, the national education system, the development of White Paper 6 and the national curriculum as well as teacher training and their role in inclusive education. During apartheid, the South African education system was segregated in two ways: according to race and ability/disability (Department of Education, 2001). The history of special needs education and educational support services reflects extreme neglect of, as well as a lack of provision for, the great majority of learners. During the apartheid era, legislation and policy concerning education was entrenched with racial segregation and inequality (Muthukrishna & Schoeman, 2000:316). Separate education departments, governed by specific legislation and fragmented along racial lines, reinforced the divisions in the education system (Engelbrecht, 2006:253). In the following section I will provide a historical overview of special education in South Africa.

3.2 HISTORICAL OVERVIEW

This historical overview of special education and education support services in South Africa starts roughly in the 1700s and 1800s when special education was basically non-existent and marked by the lack of provision (Naicker, 2005). During this period in South Africa as elsewhere in the world there was very little provision made for any type of special educational needs and disability was viewed as a “*sign of ‘divine displeasure’*” (Naicker, 2005). People who were later recognized as mentally retarded, physically disabled, blind, deaf etc. were most likely chained, imprisoned or killed because of the superstitious attitude aroused by the ‘divine displeasure’ (Naicker, 2005). Because of the same superstitious beliefs in African communities – individuals in black communities who were considered disabled suffered a similar fate to those in white communities (Naicker, 2005). These views and the belief in the divine displeasure largely

influenced South African thinking as South Africa was then still a colony, and therefore also presents a Western worldview.

The beginnings of special education in South Africa date back to the late 1800s. During this period the church, private organisations and society is credited for their role in the provision of special education. This period also illustrates the racist nature of the state (Naicker, 2005), who only funded white schools; with minimal to no funding reserved for black and coloured schools (OECD, 2008). According to Nkabinde (1997:77) special education in South Africa was introduced by the church and/or philanthropic organisations and apparently their motive was to fulfil God's commandment of helping the hopeless/helpless and the poor. The first special needs school in South Africa was founded in 1863 by six Dominican sisters (Nkabinde, 1997). The Dominican Grimley School for the deaf in Cape Town was open to both white and 'non-white' children but was heavily segregated (Naicker, 2005). Nkabinde (1997:77) states that the first special education school was purely a charitable undertaking with no support from the state. The state later recognised the need for specialised education but favoured whites only with churches and private organisations and societies providing support for non-white children by establishing (a) the Athlone School for the Blind for coloured children; (b) a school for blind Indian children; and (c) the Worcester School for coloured children with epilepsy (Naicker, 2005).

The state only got involved in special needs education in 1900 when it recognised white church-run schools from which Education Act 29 of 1928 was promulgated (Naicker, 2005). According to this act (Act 29 of 1928) the Union Education Department could now establish vocational and special needs schools for white children only. This Act was the precursor after which special schools were to be modelled in South Africa (Naicker, 2005). Churches and other private organisations still provided support for non-white learners as the state withdrew their support in favour of whites (Naicker, 2005).

During this period, from the late 1800s to the late 1900s, the disabled learner was viewed as deficient and that these deficiencies were pathological, a perspective which was strongly influenced by the then-current medical thinking or a Western medical model of disability (Naicker, 2005). Along with this view the view that children had to be tested and classified emerged. The 1920s saw the development of the very first South African intelligence test (Naicker, 2005). The Grey Revision of the Stanford-Binet Scale was published by Professor

Eybers, from the then University College of Orange Free State (Naicker, 2005). Later in 1924, the first connection between education and the labour market was made with the development of the South African Group Test of Intelligence commissioned by the Research Grants Board of the Union Department of Mines and Industries under the chairmanship of Professor R.W. Wilcocks (Naicker, 2005). According to Naicker (2005:236) up until this point only white children were being tested and this served as a further divide between state funded white schools and under-privileged non-white schools. This test also served as the precursor to aptitude tests (Naicker, 2005). These tests were still used until the mid-1960s and served as precursor for labelling, categorisation and exclusion, since the test were no longer exclusively for white children but for all children as a means to assess their intelligence and which gave way for special education programmes (Naicker, 2005).

According to White Paper 6 (Department of Education, 2001) special schools during the Apartheid era was segregated according to two segregating criteria, race and disability. By 1948 and the implementation of institutional apartheid Africans, Indians, Coloureds and Whites were fully segregated in all aspects of life due to the National Party's policy of separate development. In 1953 the then Minister of Native Affairs, Hendrik Verwoerd, piloted an education act for black South Africans, called the Bantu education act and later renamed to the Black education act, in which education for black people would consist of only preparing them for the manual labour market (Giliomee, 2009). According to Giliomee (2009: 190) Verwoerd criticized the previous education system for being uneconomic and 'wasting' money on educating black South Africans and that educated black people would only become frustrated because they would not be able to find jobs for which they were qualified. The Bantu education act brought the education of black people under central government control under the Department of Native Affairs.

Control over education for black South Africans were taken away from the provincial governments, missionary schools and other charitable undertakings which had severe implications for special education and education support services as white special schools were mainly funded by the state and non-white special schools by churches and private organizations (Naicker, 2005). In accordance with apartheid policy, the white 'special schools' were extremely well-resourced while the black and other non-white 'special schools' were systematically under-resourced (Department of Education, 2001). According to the Reviews of National policies for

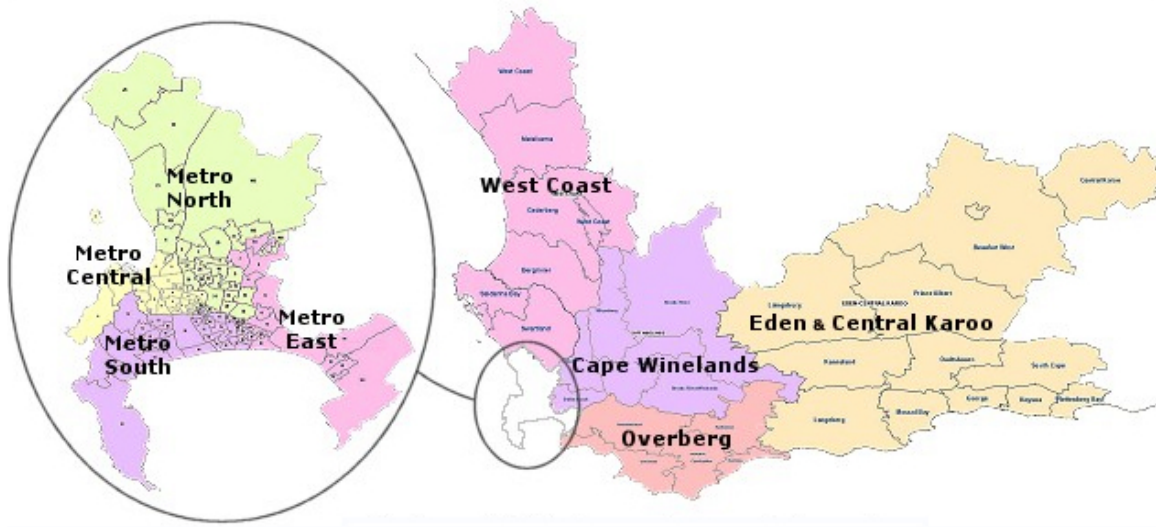
education (2008: 37) the struggle against Apartheid during the 1970s by secondary school students, forced the government into a series of political and economic reforms which did little to the “*inadequate infrastructure, unqualified educators, huge pupil: educator ratios and a biased curriculum*”, which still ravaged the education of black learners.

During the period of negotiations between the African National Congress (ANC) and the National Party the economy stagnated and education services deteriorated (OECD, 2008). The dawn of the democratic government in 1994 saw wide-scale transformation taking place, not only in education but throughout the whole country. The fragmented and “*racially duplicated institutions of the Apartheid era have been replaced by a single national system including nine provincial sub-systems*” (OECD, 2008).

3.3 SOUTH AFRICAN EDUCATION SYSTEM

The main aim of the Department of Education after the democratisation of South Africa was to integrate the segregated education system into a single comprehensive education and training system (Department of Education, 2001). Under Apartheid the education system was segregated into 19 separate education departments. The National Department of Education split in two, forming the Department of Basic Education (DBE) and the Department of Higher Education (DHE). The DBE is tasked with overseeing primary and secondary education, while the DHE is tasked with overseeing tertiary education (DBE website, 2013). The DBE is also divided into nine provincial education departments. As stated in the Review of National Policies of Education (OECD, 2008) the national and provincial governments “*share responsibility for all education except tertiary education, which is the preserve of national government*”. The nine provincial education departments further divides into separate school districts. As this study took place in the Western Cape I will only be focusing on the school districts located in this province. The Western Cape department of Education has eight separate school districts namely, Eden and Central Karoo, Metro Central, Metro East, Metro North, Metro South, Overberg, West Coast and Cape Winelands as can be seen in the graphic representation below:

Figure 3.1: Representation of the school districts in the Western Cape (WCDE, 2013)



Education in South Africa can be divided into the following sectors:

- *early childhood development (ECD)*;
- *general education and training (GET), consisting of:*
 - *grade R to grades 1 to 3 (the Foundation Phase)*
 - *grades 4 to 6 (the Intermediate Phase)*
 - *grades 7 to 9 (the Senior Phase)*
- *further education and training (FET), including grades 10 to 12;*
- *adult basic education and training (ABET)*;
- *special needs education (SNE)*;
- *higher education (HE)* (OECD, 2008).

Early childhood development (ECD) as stated by White Paper 5 on Early Childhood development (Department of Education, 2001), henceforth referred to as ‘White paper 5’, refers to the all-inclusive approach to policies and programs for children from birth to nine years of age with the active involvement of their parents and/or caregivers. The purpose of ECD is to protect the child’s rights for the development of his or her full cognitive, emotional, physical and social development (Department of Education: 2001). The ECD approach has a holistic view of the child’s development and is particularly sensitive to the child’s “*health, nutrition, education, psycho-social and additional environmental factors within the context of the family and the community*” (Department of Education, 2001). According to the Review of National Policies of

Education (OECD, 2008) one of the Department of Education's strategic objectives was to extend early childhood development services, which includes pre-school and the reception school year (Grade R), to some of the most marginalised communities. Pre-school and grade R is not compulsory in South Africa, grade R is however being implemented at many public schools (OECD, 2008).

General education and Training (GET) covers grade R through grade nine, with grades one to seven falling in primary school and grades eight and nine in secondary school. Schooling is compulsory for all learners from the year in which they turn seven to the end of the year in which they turn 15 or otherwise grade nine (whichever comes first). Thus, school is compulsory from grade one to grade nine (OECD, 2008). This begs the question; why isn't schooling compulsory until the end of secondary school (grade 12)? Grades 10 to 12 are not compulsory and is considered as 'further education and training' (OECD, 2008), as stated by the Review of National Policies of Education it was found by "*the Ministerial Committee on Learner Retention, established by the minister of education in April 2007*" (2008: 50), that there is a high rate of failure, repetition and drop-outs in grades 10 to 12. The Review of National Policies of Education (OECD, 2008) also state that almost all learners of school-going age enter grade one but not all learners reach the end of grade nine. So why are our learners not completing their compulsory schooling and dropping-out or failing grades 10 to 12? If inclusive education is being implemented as it was proposed shouldn't almost all our learners complete not only their compulsory schooling but also 'further education and training'? According to the Review of National Policies of Education dropout is not necessarily "*only influenced by necessity or poverty but perhaps also by different perceptions of the value of education amongst certain groups*" (2008: 51). But yet again, inclusive education makes provision for this through school feeding schemes, parent education and training as well as curriculum differentiation (Department of Education, 2013).

According to the Review for National Policies of Education (OECD, 2008) in order to improve the internal efficacy of schools an admissions policy has been implemented that allow learners to repeat a grade only once in a phase so that they can proceed through school with their peers. The policy however makes it clear that automatic promotion is not allowed (OECD, 2008), but learners are only allowed to repeat one grade in a phase, one phase being three grades, so what

happens to a learner who has already repeated one grade but can still not pass another grade in the same phase?

As envisaged by White Paper 6 (2001: 28) special needs education (SNE) should provide support for learners with mild to moderate disabilities, alongside this system there are also some 500 converted primary schools, now known as full-service schools, “*serving a dual purpose of catering for those with severe disability while also acting as a resource for educators and schools in the area*” (OECD, 2008). In each school district there is also a team of professional support personnel, known as district-based support teams, who serve as support to school administrations, teachers and learners in their particular school district. Special needs schools cater to the needs of differently-abled learners with moderate to severe disabilities, these schools also act as resource centers for the full-service schools in their districts.

As stated in the Review for National policies for Education (OECD, 2008) differently-abled learners will be accommodated in the education system, depending on their level of support needed. The Department of Education (2008: 8) defines levels of support needed as the scope and intensity of support needed at a system, school, educator and learner level. Learners who need additional support or expanded opportunities receive an individual support plan developed by their teachers with assistance from their parents and the institutional-level support team (Department of Education, 2008). See Table 2.1 Levels of support needed (Department of Education, 2008) for a summary of the different levels of support on the next page.

Learners with a level 5 need for support, that is learners with the most severe level of support needed, will continue to be accommodated in ‘special schools or specialised sites’ if it is their wish to do so. Consequently, this means that an increase in the number special schools or specialised sites have to increase, this also calls for an increase in funding to some of the existing special schools. The fact that special schools will also act as resource centres to full-service and mainstream schools also means that additional funding has to be made available to fulfil this new role.

Learners with a level 4 need for support can be accommodated in full-service schools. These full-service schools with also need to receive additional funding as they are provided with extra personnel, infrastructure and non-personnel, non-capital resources to accommodate a certain

number of learners from the local neighbourhood who require specialised support (especially those who experience impaired mobility or need specialised devices), as well as to provide indirect support to all the surrounding schools that will also accommodate learners with disabilities (OECD, 2008). Other differently-abled learners who require less specialised levels of support (levels 1-3 and level 4) can choose to go to either a full-service school or a mainstream school.

It is also important to note that the category of disability, for instance deafness, blindness or fetal alcohol syndrome, does not determine the level of support the learner will need, neither does it influence the ‘type’ of school the learner has to go to. One type of school should be able to accommodate learners with different levels of support needed (Department of Education, 2008).

Table 3.1: Levels of support needed (Department of Education, 2008).

Levels	Levels of support provisioning to address barriers to learning	Type of educational institution where additional support will be available on a full time or part time basis	Degree and nature of intervention by the District-based Support Service
1 – 2	Low levels of support	Ordinary and full-service schools	General and focused on building capacity of all teachers and ILST’s
3	Moderate levels of support	Ordinary and Full-service Schools	More specific and providing consultative support around individual cases
4 – 5	High intensive and very high intensive support	Full-service and Special schools	Intensive, frequent and specific and providing consultative support around individual cases

3.4 CURRICULUM REFORM

For the education system to mirror the new political dispensation of South Africa it was necessary to implement certain policies and mechanisms (Cross, Mungadi & Rouhani, 2002) to

ensure an education system free of discrimination and segregation. At the heart of a nation's education system lays its national curriculum (Department of Education, 2009). The curriculum is “*a primary source of support and direction for learning and teaching in the education system, and plays the role of equalizer in terms of educational standards*” (Department of Education, 2009). So it was necessary to change the national curriculum to ensure quality education for all, especially those effected most by the apartheid education system. The last curriculum reform under Apartheid took place from 1989 until 1994, when the last version of the then curriculum was issued (Cross *et al.*, 2002). In this section curriculum reform after 1994 will be discussed, with the first reform taking place in 1997 informed by White Paper 6 and outcome-based education, and again a second curriculum reform process starting in 2009 called the National Curriculum Statement (NCS) or curriculum 2025 (C2025).

According to White Paper 6 all learners have to be assessed within the same curriculum and assessment framework, regardless of their individual ability to learn. Consistent with White Paper 6, Curriculum 2005 highlighted the need for inclusivity through moving away from a content-centred teaching and learning approach to an outcome-based education (OBE) teaching and learning approach (Cross *et al.*, 2002) for the general education and training (grade one to nine) band (Department of Education, 2009). Thus, by implementing C2005 teachers would have been able to identify issues or barriers to learning and then put into action a plan to address them (Department of Education, 2002). However, in 1996 before the reform took place the Department of Education issued a wide-scale ‘cleansing’ of the syllabi through which the most “*gross and evident apartheid, racial and ethical stereotypes*” were removed from textbooks and other learning material (Cross *et al.*, 2002).

C2005 was based on the following:

- *All learners can learn given the necessary support*
- *OBE is learner paced and learner based*
- *Schools create the conditions for learners to succeed*
- *There is a shift from categorising/labelling learners according to disability towards addressing barriers experienced by individual learners*

- *Provision should be based on the levels of support needed to address a range of barriers to learning* (Department of Education, 2002)

C2005 was based on OBE which followed a learner-centred approach which advocated that assessments should be based on the learner's individual ability and pace of learning. OBE highlighted the following four principles; Design Down, Clarity of Focus, High Expectations and Expanded Opportunities.

Designing down meant that teachers had to firstly identify the outcomes which needed to be addressed by the assessment before planning the lessons/assessments best suited to achieve those outcomes (Department of Education, 2002). Inclusivity was thus promoted by the fact that learners progressed according to their pace and level of ability through assessments tailored to their specific needs, this highlighted the responsibility of the teacher to accommodate learner diversity (Department of Education, 2002).

Clarity of focus meant that learners, parents and teachers had to have a clear understanding of what was wanted at the end (Department of Education, 2002). This meant that teachers had to ensure that the learners and their parents was clear about the outcomes which needed to be achieved, according to which criteria they were being assessed as well as what was expected from them (Department of Education, 2002).

To highlight, inclusivity achievements were credited at every level regardless of how it was achieved or at which rate (Department of Education, 2002). With OBE being learner-centred there were high expectations for both learners and teachers. Learners were assessed according to their individual ability and teachers were tasked with assisting them to achieve their full potential. This meant that learners were measured according to their own progress and not compared to their fellow classmates and an emphasis was placed on individual progress and success (Department of Education, 2002).

OBE was also viewed as expanding the opportunities for learning and success of all learners by assisting teachers to find multiple ways of exposing learners to learning opportunities that would help them achieve "*their full potential in terms of knowledge, skills, values and attitudes*" (Department of Education, 2002).

This curriculum, however noble in its attempt at inclusivity, was never researched or properly trialled, “*and there was inadequate preparation and consideration of whether teachers, pupils and the system in general were prepared for such a fundamental change over such a short space of time*” (Department of Education, 2009). C2005’s inherent flaws became evident by early 2000 and it was found that;

- *The design of the curriculum had to be simplified*
- *Curriculum overload had to be addressed, including the reduction in the number of Learning Areas in the Intermediate Phase*
- *The terminology and language of the curriculum had to be simplified*
- *Assessment requirements had to be clarified*
- *Content had to be brought into the curriculum, and specified*
- *A plan needed to be developed to address teacher training for the successful implementation of the new curriculum*
- *Textbooks and reading had to be reintroduced as a widely recognised means to bridge the gap between teacher readiness, curriculum policy and classroom implementation* (Department of Education, 2009).

It was then decided to shift the curriculum agenda from a “*local, primary skills-based and context-dependend body of knowledge*” (Department of Education, 2009) towards a more “*coherent, explicit and systematic body of knowledge more suitable for a national curriculum in the twenty first century*” and able to take its place among other international curricula (Department of Education, 2009). This resulted in the implementation of the Revised National Curriculum Statement in 2004 (Department of Education, 2009). Even though this curriculum attempted to address the problems and short-comings of C2005, it also was not sufficient and teacher training was superficial, like that of C2005, which again resulted in failure (Department of Education, 2009). Again the curriculum had to be revised; the current curriculum statement, called the Curriculum and Assessment Policy, was developed from the recommendations made to improve the previous curricula.

3.5 EDUCATION WHITE PAPER 6 SPECIAL NEEDS EDUCATION: BUILDING AN INCLUSIVE EDUCATION AND TRAINING SYSTEM

White Paper 6 was developed to respond to the neglect suffered by special education and training in South Africa during the Apartheid era. It is argued in White Paper 6 that there was a huge disparity between the needs and provision of special education as well as segregation not only according to race but also disability during Apartheid (Department of Education, 2001). This White Paper outlines what an inclusive education and training system is and how the government intend on building it (Department of Education, 2001).

In October 1996 the Ministry of Education under leadership of then Minister of Education Professor Kadar Asmal, appointed the National Commission on Special Needs in Education and Training (NCSNET) and the National Commission on Education Support Services (NCESS) to examine and make recommendations on all facets of special needs education and training in South Africa (Department of Education, 2001).

It was decided by the members of both the NCSNET and the NCESS to combine their efforts and resources, because of the overlapping areas of their separate investigations, and to work together to complete their research (Department of Education, 2001). White Paper 6 (Department of Education, 2001) lists the following as their central findings:

(i) specialised education and support have predominantly been provided for a small percentage of learners with disabilities within 'special' schools and classes; (ii) where provided, specialised education and support were provided on a racial basis, with the best human, physical and material resources reserved for whites; (iii) most learners with disability have either fallen outside of the system or been 'mainstreamed by default'; (iv) the curriculum and education system as a whole have generally failed to respond to the diverse needs of the learner population, resulting in massive numbers of drop-outs, push-outs, and failures; and, (v) while some attention has been given to the schooling phase with regard to 'special needs and support', the other levels or bands of education have been seriously neglected.

In light of these findings and in accordance with the new constitution and bill of rights of South Africa, the NCSNET and NCESS recommended that *"the education system should change in*

order to promote education for all and foster the development of inclusive and supportive centres of learning” (Department of Education, 2001). The aim of this White Paper is to ensure that all learners have access to an equal and discrimination free education, that there is no segregation of learners according to race or disability, to make the curriculum accessible to all learners and to minimise barriers to learning (Department of Education, 2001). In order to achieve this vision the NCSNET and NCESS suggested the following key strategies;

(i) transforming all aspects of the education system, (ii) developing an integrated system of education, (iii) infusing ‘special needs and support services’ throughout the system, (iv) pursuing the holistic development of centres of learning to ensure a barrier-free physical environment and a supportive and inclusive psych-social learning environment, developing a flexible curriculum to ensure access to all learners, (v) promoting the rights and responsibilities of parents, educators and learners, (vi) providing effective development programmes for educators, support personnel, and other relevant human resources, (vii) fostering holistic and integrated support provision through intersectoral collaborations, (viii) developing a community-based support system which includes a preventative and developmental approach to support, and (ix) developing funding strategies that ensure redress for historically disadvantaged communities and institutions, sustainability, and – ultimately – access to education for all learners (Department of Education, 2001).

According to White Paper 6 (Department of Education, 2001) before an inclusive education and training system can be built it is first important to acknowledge that all learners have the ability to learn and that all learners need support regardless of any ability or disability. It is also important to accept and respect the fact that everyone is unique and has different learning needs, none of which is better or more important than the other (Department of Education, 2001). An inclusive education and training system is about meeting the needs of all learners through new education structures, systems and learning and teaching methodologies (Department of Education, 2001). It is also about understanding that education is broader than just formal schooling and that learning also transpires in the home and community and in other social settings (Department of Education, 2001). And most importantly, an inclusive education and training system is about changing attitudes and perceptions about special education and

education in general and about always considering the needs and ability of the learner before teaching begins (Department of Education, 2001).

According to White Paper 6 for the inclusive education and training system to be implemented it is first necessary to review and “*extend the policy foundations, frameworks and programmes of existing policy for all bands of education and training so that our education and training system will recognise and accommodate the diverse range of learning needs*” (Department of Education, 2001). The main reason learners experience learning breakdown, which in some cases lead to failure or drop-out, is because of the inability of the system to recognise and accommodate the diverse learning needs of the learner population (Department of Education, 2001). This is typically due to “*inaccessible physical plants, curricula, assessment, learning materials and instructional methodologies*” (Department of Education, 2001). Thus, for an inclusive education and training system to be implemented it is necessary for existing policies and legislation for all bands of the education system to be reviewed and revised, it also requires that changes be made to mainstream education, the strengthening of district-based education support services and other education support services, the expansion of access and provision and a revised funding strategy (Department of Education, 2001).

The time-frame for implementing this single, comprehensive education and training system is set for 20 years, which is from 2001 to 2021. According to White Paper 6 (Department of Education, 2001) the implementation plan can be broken into three distinct phases; the short-term steps, the medium-term steps and the long-term steps.

The short-term steps implemented between 2001 and 2003 included the following necessary steps:

- i. *Implementing a national advocacy and education programme on inclusive education.*
- ii. *Planning and implementing a targeted outreach programme, beginning in the Government’s rural and urban development nodes, to mobilise disabled out-of-school children and youth.*
- iii. *Completing the audit of special schools and implementing a programme to improve efficiency and quality.*

- iv. *Designating, planning and implementing the conversion of 30 special schools to special schools/resource centres in 30 designated school districts.*
- v. *Designating, planning and implementing the conversion of 30 primary schools to full-service schools in the same 30 districts as the schools mentioned above.*
- vi. *Designating, planning and implementing the district support teams in the same 30 districts as mentioned above.*
- vii. *Within all other public education institutions, on a progressive basis, the general orientation and introduction of managements, governing bodies and professional staff to the inclusion model*
- viii. *Within primary schooling, on a progressive basis, the establishment of systems and procedures for the early identification and addressing of barriers to learning in the Foundation Phase (Grades R-3) (Department of education, 2001).*

The medium-term steps implemented in 2004-2008 included the following major steps:

- i. *Transforming further education and training and higher education institutions to recognise and address the diverse range of learning needs of learners, especially differently-abled learners.*
- ii. *Expanding the targeted community outreach programme mentioned above from the base of Government's rural and urban development nodes to mobilise disabled out-of-school children and youth in line with available resources.*
- iii. *Expanding the number of special schools/resource centres, full-service school and district-based support teams as mentioned above in line with lessons learnt and available resources (Department of Education, 2001).*

The long-term steps being implemented between 2009 and 2021 include the following step;

- i. *Expanding provision to reach the target of 380 special schools/resource centres, 500 full-service schools and colleges and district-based support teams and the 280,000 out-of-school children and youth (Department of Education, 2001).*

With establishing this inclusive education and training system there are also short, medium and long-term goals. The short- to medium-term goals focused on addressing the weaknesses and deficiencies of the then current system and on expanding access and provision to those of

compulsory school-going age who are not accommodated within the education system. The long-term goal is develop an inclusive education and training system that will uncover and address barriers to learning, and recognise and accommodate the diverse range of learner needs (Department of Education, 2001).

3.6 INCLUSIVE EDUCATION

Since 1994 the South African education system has undergone far-reaching policy changes in line with the new Constitution and Bill of rights. The aim was to transform the segregated, “*discriminatory and authoritarian education system into a more democratic, open, flexible and inclusive system*” (Engelbrecht, 2006). Inclusive education in South Africa as a much broader definition than just simply “*access to schooling for learners with disabilities*” (Department of Education, 2008), it reflects the fundamental shift away from discrimination towards equality and fairness. Inclusive education, as stated by the comprehensive definition provided by White Paper 6 (Department of Education, 2001) is;

[...]the recognising and respecting of differences among the learner population. It is about supporting all learners, educators and the system as a whole so that the full range of learning needs can be met. The focus is on teaching and learning actors, with the emphasis on the development of good teaching strategies that will be of benefit to all learners. Inclusive education focuses on overcoming barriers in the system that prevent it from meeting the full range of learning needs and on the adaptation of and support systems available in the classroom.

Inclusive education in South Africa places great emphasis on an education system which not only promotes education for all but also focusses on poverty, employment and health (OECD, 2008). White Paper 6’s definition of inclusive education is in line with the fundamental principles of the inclusive school as stated by the Salamanca statement (UNESCO, 1994). In an inclusive school all children should learn together regardless of any difficulties or differences they may have. Inclusive schools must ensure quality education for all through the recognition and response to diverse learner needs and must accommodate learners with different learning styles and rates of learning. This can be achieved through appropriate curricula, organisational arrangements, teaching strategies, appropriate use of resources and partnerships with their

communities. And lastly the continuum of special needs encountered in each school must be matched by a continuum of support and services.

3.7 TEACHERS

In this section I will discuss the role and training of teachers in the South African education system. I will begin by providing a brief historical overview of colleges of education, a college solely dedicated to the training of teachers (Department of Education, 2011), and then outline the role of an inclusive educator.

3.7.1 Historical overview of colleges of education

During the National Convention of 1908-09, from which the Union of South Africa was established, it was decided that each provincial council had the power “*to make ordinances on education, other than higher education*” (Department of Education, 2011). This put teacher training in a very uneasy location halfway between general and higher education, with the training of primary and some secondary school teacher falling under provincial decree in teacher training colleges (Colleges of Education), and the rest of the secondary school teacher training under central government control in higher education institutions, i.e. universities (Department of Education, 2011). Frequent recommendations were made to locate teacher training largely or even completely at university level, but this was met with resistance from provincial governments who benefitted from the income generated from provincially run colleges of education (Department of Education, 2011).

With the introduction of apartheid this separation of general and higher education and the precarious position of colleges of education were even further embedded under provincial control with the segregation of education according to the four main racial groups. White teachers in training were afforded a much higher quality of training whereas coloured, black and Indian students were educated mostly in under-resourced rural/‘township’ colleges or “*correspondence universities*” (Pendlebury, 1998). These so-called colleges and universities were classified as part of the college-school sector and not as part of higher education like ‘white’ universities and technicons (Pendlebury, 1998). Pendlebury (1998: 336) also report that most black students during apartheid trained to be teachers as it was their only mode of getting

an affordable higher education. Thus, many students became teacher more so out of necessity and because it was the only higher education afforded to them rather than truly wanting to be an educator.

After 1994 and the democratisation of South Africa teacher education once again fell into the precarious position in which it was before apartheid, with teacher training simultaneously falling between higher education and the governance of the nine newly formed provinces (Department of Education, 2011). According to the Department of Education (2011: 25) there were approximately 101 public colleges of education, with eight of them being distance education institutions. But because of the poorly run, lack of quality and undemocratic nature of some of the colleges of education it was decided that 25 colleges of education should be incorporated into existing higher education.

[b]etween 1994 and 2000, many colleges of education were closed, merged or incorporated into larger entities, as part of provincial rationalisation processes aimed at overcoming the inequalities of apartheid and reducing an identified oversupply of primary teachers (Department of Education, 2011).

This restructuring took effect on 31 January 2001. Not all of the colleges could be incorporated into existing higher education institutions which led to some becoming autonomous higher education institutions under the condition that they had at least 2 000 full time students enrolled and the capacity to be self-governing (Department of Education, 2011). This however seemed not to be a viable option as most of the autonomous colleges of education were not sustainable nor cost-effective and a plan had to be devised for yet more restructuring (Department of Education, 2011). A 2008 survey conducted, under the commission of the Department of Education, found that only 9 of the 25 former colleges of education are still in use by the higher education institution into which they were incorporated (Department of Education, 2011). Some 76-odd former colleges of education are reported to still function, under provincial government, as further education and training (FET) institutions, education resource centres, teacher education institutes, schools and/or government offices (Department of Education, 2011).

3.7.2 The role of teachers in inclusive education

The basic premise of inclusive education, according to Savolainen *et al.* (2012:51), is that schools are concerned with nurturing and educating all students, regardless of their differences in terms of ability, culture, gender, language, class and/or ethnicity. Inclusive schools should also provide all learners with a sense of belonging (Savolainen *et al.*, 2012:51). Forlin and Chambers (2011:17) add that the role of the teacher is a critical factor in the success or failure, in the practice of inclusive education. However, educators need to be empowered and their skill sets enriched. In order to achieve this White Paper 6 (2001: 29) planned to revise the norms and standards of teacher education to include “*the development of competencies to recognise and address barriers to learning and to accommodate the diverse range of learning needs*”. This means that the skills and knowledge of educators have to be improved and developed further.

Savolainen *et al.* (2012:51) explain that the way in which teachers accept inclusive values has an impact on learners’ adaptive academic and behavioural functioning at school. White Paper 6 summed up the role of an inclusive educator as follows; the educator’s main priority is multi-level classroom instruction, i.e. curriculum differentiation meaning the educator must prepare main lessons with variations for the different needs of each individual learner in the class (Department of Education, 2001). This also includes the promotion of co-operative learning and curriculum enrichment; the educator should also develop a positive way in dealing with learners with behavioural problems. It is also imperative that the educator focus on problem solving and the development of the learners’ strengths and competencies rather than on their shortcoming (Department of Education, 2001).

Forlin and Chambers (2011:18) highlight issues relating to the effectiveness of teacher preparation for working in inclusive classes. They (2011:17) report interesting findings with regard to teachers’ perceptions regarding their preparedness for inclusion. For instance, their study, conducted in Australia, found that teachers’ increased knowledge about policy related to inclusive educational practices, as well as their improved confidence in being inclusive teachers, did not address their concerns or perceived stress about having differently-abled learners in their classes. Savolainen *et al.* (2012:51) report similar findings, i.e. that the teachers in their study also had many concerns about the consequences of including differently-abled learners in their

classrooms. Savolainen *et al.* (2012:51) conclude that teachers' attitudes towards inclusion are often not based on ideological arguments, but rather on practical concerns about how inclusive education can be implemented. This supports the notion that drafting education policy is very different from implementing it successfully.

3.8 SUMMARY

This chapter provided a detailed review of literature pertaining to inclusive education in South Africa as well as the historic development of special needs education and teacher training. In order to understand how inclusive education is being implemented in South Africa it is necessary to explore teacher training and the role of teachers in inclusive education as they are critical to the successful implementation thereof.

In the following chapter the research design and methodology used in this study will be discussed. A qualitative research design was employed in this study. In light of the role of educators in inclusive education, as discussed above, and the supporting role district-based support team members play in the implementation of inclusive education it was decided that interviewing these two groups of role-players will provide the most appropriate data.

CHAPTER 4:

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In this section I will discuss the research design and methodology used to conduct this research study.

4.2 METHODOLOGY

A research methodology is necessary in order to highlight the process, methods and procedures used in a study. According to Barnes (2011: 38) the methodology is more than a collection of methods and that is why there must be a distinction between the terms ‘methods’ and ‘methodology’. Barnes (2011:38) continues by making this distinction clear; “*the term ‘method’ refers to a way of doing something, whereas ‘methodology’ refers to the ‘coherent group of methods that complement one another and have the ‘goodness of fit’ to deliver data and findings that will reflect the research question and suit the research purpose’*”.

4.3 RESEARCH METHODS

For this research study I decided to use qualitative research method. According to Brikci and Green (2007: 2) qualitative research is characterised by “*its aims, which relate to understanding some aspect of social life, and its methods which (in general) generate words, rather than numbers, as data for analysis*”. According to Babbie and Mouton (2010:270) qualitative research is distinguished from quantitative in terms of the following key features:

- *Research is conducted in the natural setting of the social actors*
- *A focus on process rather than outcome*
- *The actor’s perspective is emphasised*
- *The primary aim is in-depth descriptions and understandings of the actions and events*
- *The main concern is to understand social action in terms of specific context rather than attempting to generalize to some theoretical population*

- *The research process is often inductive in its approach, resulting in the generation of new hypotheses and theories*
- *The quantitative researcher is seen as the “main instrument” in the research process*

As this research study's aim is to understand the perspectives of individuals working in an inclusive education setting and to find out if inclusive education is in fact a viable option for South Africa, I believe this approach is the most appropriate. According to Guest et al. (2012:5) the type of research methods we use also influence “*how we characterize qualitative data analysis, the data items to be used in our analysis, and the types of analyses we perform on our data*”. Quantitative approaches would detract from the social complexities of the case at hand. Therefore, in order to preserve the complexity I opted for a qualitative approach which does not over simplify unquantifiable factors or variables.

In the following section I discuss the sampling, data collection methods, coding and data analysis used in this study.

4.3.1 Sampling

The sampling was purposeful. I wanted to interview teachers from mainstream schools in the Western-Cape. With guidance from Rolene Liebenberg, from the Division for Community Interaction at Stellenbosch University, I decided to choose a mainstream primary school in a rural area outside of Stellenbosch. This school caters mainly to coloured and black learners with an all coloured faculty with the exception of the ELSEN teacher who only visits the school twice a week and who is white. I chose this school because of the social context and demographic of both the learners and the teachers. The second school I chose is a mainstream secondary school in Franschhoek. This school was a previously white school up until 1994, when more and more coloured learners were enrolled. Since then it has subsequently become an all coloured and black school with a mostly white faculty, thus the learner population changed while the demographic of the faculty members stayed the same. Both the primary and secondary school fall within the same education district henceforth referred to as “Education District A”. Something I had not anticipated while doing the sampling was the ages and training of the two groups of teachers.

While interviewing the teachers it became clear that all the teachers from the primary school was older and most of them have been teaching for more than 20 years, while the teachers from the

secondary school were mostly younger and have only been teaching for around 10 years. This means that most of the teachers from the primary school studied education in the 1980's to the early 1990's. While the secondary school teachers mostly studied in the late 1990's and in early 2000's. This is significant because inclusive education was only introduced after 1994, thus the secondary school teachers have a better understanding of inclusive education.

I was introduced to the district-based support team members by a family member. Thus the sampling of the district-based support team can be considered availability sampling. I interviewed three of the district-based support team members. Participant A, a former special needs educator, Participant B an occupational therapist and Participant C the Deputy Head of the Learning Support Units. The district-based support team is from a different education district as the primary and secondary school and will hereafter be referred to as "Education District B". All three the participants are highly skilled and older than 30 years of age.

4.3.2 Data gathering

Both primary and secondary data was used in this research study. Primary data typically refers to data that is generated by the researcher or the research participants for the purpose of the study and to answer the research question (Brown & Gibson, 2009). Primary data is considered to be first hand data, in that it is "*a product of the researcher's or a research participant's practices or reflection*" (Brown & Gibson, 2009). The primary data for this research study was gathered using two qualitative research methods, namely focus groups and in-depth semi-structured interviews. Secondary data typically refers to "*commentaries or claims made on other data by other researchers, reporters or commentators*" (Brown & Gibson, 2009). The secondary data was obtained through an extensive literature study using documents and this process is called documentary research (Brown & Gibson, 2009). The documents used in this study was education policy documents, for example White Paper 6, other policy documents involving the implementation of inclusive education and a variety of peer-reviewed articles on education, disability and inclusive education.

As stated by Longhurst (2010: 103) interviewing is not only about talking to research participants but also about listening, paying attention and about being receptive to what they have to say. Focus groups and semi-structured interviews "*are similar in that they are*

conversational and informal in tone. Both allow for an open response in the participant's own words rather than a 'yes or no' type of answer" (Longhurst, 2010). One of the key differences between semi-structured interviews and focus group interviews are during a focus group the research depends on the interaction between the members of the focus group to gather data, whereas in semi-structured interviews data gathering depends heavily on the interaction between the interviewer and the interviewee (Longhurst, 2010). Documentary research, as stated by Brown and Gibson (2009: 65) refers to *"the process of using documents as a means of social investigation and involves exploring the records that individuals and organizations produce"*. Documents are universal features of social life and cover anything from letters and diaries to governmental reports, website and even emails (Brown & Gibson, 2009).

In the following sections I will discuss the above mentioned data collection methods in more detail.

4.3.2.1 Focus group interviews

Morgan (1996: 130) defines a focus group as a research technique that gathers data through group interaction and discussion on a topic determined by the researcher. This definition however broad has three distinct components; the first as stated by the definition makes clear that focus groups are a research method focused on data collection. The second component locates the source of the data as the interaction in a group discussion and the third component acknowledges the active role of the researcher in creating and facilitating the group discussion as a data collection purposes (Morgan, 1996). Kritzenger (1994a: 103) states that this, using the interaction between a group of participants to collect data, distinguishes focus group interviews from the broader category of group interviews.

Since focus groups are mostly conducted with already existing groups (Morgan, 1996), like teachers working at the same school, I decided it would be best to conduct focus groups with teachers. I conducted two focus group interviews, the first was with teachers from a primary school in a rural area outside of Stellenbosch and the second was with teachers from a secondary school in Franschhoek a more affluent town in the Western Cape. However, after conducting the focus group interview it became clear that the school, situated right in the heart of Franschhoek, was not a very rich school. Based on the teachers perspectives most of the wealthier families in

Franschhoek send their children to the private school Bridge House, just outside of Franschhoek or to schools in Stellenbosch.

Both focus group sessions were conducted in a relaxed fashion at the schools, with minimal intervention from, the facilitator. I asked semi-structured questions and allowed the participants to carry the discussion, while sometimes probing the participants to ensure that the discussion would be more in-depth than it would otherwise have. The primary school focus group consisted of the principal and five teachers, at first I was afraid that the presence of the principal, an authority figure, would influence the discussion negatively and that the principal would lead the discussion with the teachers only agreeing with him. This however was not the case and even though the principal spoke a lot the teachers had the confidence to disagree with him and were themselves very outspoken. The secondary school focus group originally consisted of five teachers, but on the day of the focus group two of the teachers had to withdraw their participation due to unforeseen circumstances. The focus group continued with the other three teachers, while the principal however did not want to participate in the focus group. From my observations of the interactions between the principal and teachers, from my visits to the school prior to the focus group, I believe that the teachers spoke a lot more freely without the principal present other than they would have if he was.

An advantage of a focus group is that it is more than just the sum of separate interviews (Morgan, 1996); this is because the participants have the confidence to ask each other questions, explain themselves to one another and disagree with their fellow participants. Such interactions, as stated by Morgan (1996:139) offer valuable data on the extent of differences and consensus among the participants. The focus group interviews highlighted the participants' attitudes, perspectives and understanding of inclusive education, while also encouraging a wide variety of communication from the participants and helped to identify group norms (Kritzenger, 1994).

4.3.2.2 Semi-structured interviews

Interviews as stated by Longhurst (2010: 105) are verbal interchanges between one person, the researcher, who tries to elicit information from another person, the participant. Longhurst (2010: 105) sees the three types of interviews, structured, unstructured and semi-structured interviews, along a continuum with semi-structured interviews in the middle. Semi-structured interviews are

interviews in which “*the researcher orients themselves according to an interview guide, but one that gives plenty of freedom of movement in the formulation of questions, follow up strategies and sequencing*” (Hopf, 2004). Even though the researcher prepares a research schedule (list of questions), semi-structured interviews happen in a more conversational manner. This gives the participants the opportunity to explore topics or issues they think is most important in line with the questions asked by the research (Longhurst, 2010).

I conducted three semi-structured interviews with three members of the district-based support team in Education District B. The first participant has a BEd (Baccalaureus of Education) degree in education in foundational phase education and is a formal special needs teacher, who worked abroad as well as at two very prestigious public special needs schools in the Western-Cape. The second participant is an Occupational therapist and works as such within Education District B, lending support to learners and teachers. The last participant is the deputy head of the Division for Learning Support for Education District B and is in charge of the district-based support team and of all transfers of differently-abled learners to special needs or full-service schools.

Even though the three participants I interviewed work together at Education District B, each participant as a different function in the district-based support team and that is why I decided not to do a focus group interview with them but rather three individual semi-structured interviews, where I could focus on each participant’s individual area of expertise. Each interview lasted between 30 and 60 minutes.

4.3.2.3 Documentary research

According to Finnegan (2006: 138) secondary data in the form of documents are frequently overlooked as a data collection method.

Interviews, questionnaires, observations and experiments are all important sources of data in social and educational researcher... But they do not comprise all the forms of information gathering, despite what is implied in ‘methods’ textbooks. Existing sources, whether in writing, figures or electronic form, are also important bases for research (Finnegan, 2006).

Documentary research or secondary data, as mentioned above, is the use of existing documents in the data collection process. In documentary research you can distinguish between primary documents and secondary documents. Primary documents usually have the character of primary data, secondary documents “*typically take the form of newspaper articles, academic work and other forms of commentary or reportage that are secondary with respect to the events and accounts with which they engage and on which they report*” (Brown & Gibson, 2009). Primary documents are considered as the primary sources written or brought into being by the people directly involved with or in the period in which the phenomenon took place, in other words the “*basic and original material for providing the researcher’s raw evidence*” (Finnegan, 2006). In this case of this study the primary sources or documents are those which introduced inclusive education and were involved with creating the inclusive education policies in South Africa.

In contrast, secondary sources are considered documents which discuss or try to explain the phenomenon sometime after it took place or in other words “*somewhat removed from the actual events*” (Finnegan, 2006). In this case the secondary documents are peer-reviewed articles and books about inclusive education and the implementation thereof as well as amendments to the actual original policies.

The primary sources/documents, in the form of education policies, were mostly retrieved from the Department of Basic Education’s (DBE) website and database. The key policy documents from the DBE used were:

- White Paper 6 on Special Needs education: Building an inclusive education and training system,
- Conceptual and operational guidelines for the implementation of inclusive education: Special schools as resource centres,
- Conceptual and operational guidelines for the implementation of inclusive education: Full-service schools,
- Conceptual and operational guidelines for the implementation of inclusive education: District-based support teams,
- Guidelines for inclusive learning programmes,

- National Strategy on Screening, Identification, Assessment and Support - Operational Guidelines,
- National Curriculum statement (NCS), and
- Guidelines for responding to learner diversity through CAPS

Most of the secondary documents used in this study were retrieved from journals and Stellenbosch University's library database. Key journals used, but by no means the only journals used, were the International Journal of Inclusive Education (Francis & Taylor) and the South African Journal of Education (Educational Association of South Africa).

4.4 CODING OF DATA

Qualitative coding is an integral part of data analysis (Neuman, 1997), and can be defined as “*tags or labels*” which assign units of meaning to descriptive or inferential information compiled during a research study (Mile & Huberman, in Neuman, 1997). Coding happens when the researcher organises raw data “*into conceptual categories and creates themes or concepts*” which is then used to analyse the data (Neuman, 1997). Coding can be seen as two simultaneous activities, (1) mechanical data reduction and (2) analytic categorisation of data, through which the researcher imposes order on the raw data (Neuman, 1997).

While coding the data I gathered in this research study I used a three step coding process in which the researcher reviews the data three times while using a different coding system each time. In essence the same raw data is then coded in three passes (Neuman, 1997). The first pass or phase is called open coding, in this process I read through the data, which were transcriptions of the interviews I conducted, transcribed immediately after the data collection process. In this first ‘read-through’ I located certain themes and allocated each theme a separate ‘code’ or label in an effort to condense the mass of data into categories. After this initial read-through of the data I again consulted the literature, in particularly White Paper 6 and policy documents directed at teachers and the implementation of inclusive education.

According to Neuman (1997, 422) this process of open coding brings to the fore themes from deep within the data, which comes from the researcher's initial research question, themes in the literature, concepts used by the research participants and new thought stimulated through the immersion in data.

The second pass or phase is called axial coding (Neuman, 1997) in this process I reread the transcriptions paying particular attention to the themes I labelled or coded in my initial read-through. This process is important because during this second read-through I started looking for connections between the themes I coded and I also started to make subthemes or subcategories within themes. During this process my focus was primarily on the themes or labels I created during my initial read-through but I also searched for more themes that might not have emerged during my initial read-through. During this phase I also decided which themes to drop and which to examine in more depth. The last pass or phase, called selective coding “*involves scanning the data and previous codes*” (Neuman, 1977). I did this phase after almost all my data was gathered and selectively searched for core concepts or cases which illustrated, compared and contrasted the selected themes or labels. During this phase major themes or labels guided my search.

4.5 DATA ANALYSIS

Data analysis, as stated by Neuman (1997: 426), means to search for patterns in data, once patterns are “*identified it is interpreted in terms of a social theory or the setting in which it accrued*”. While conducting the various focus group and individual interviews and again while transcribing the interviews certain themes started to emerge from the raw data, thus for the purpose of this research study I decided to use a thematic analysis approach for analysing the data. Thematic analysis, as defined by Braun and Clarke (2006:79) is “*a method for identifying, analysing and reporting patterns (themes) within data*”. Guest et al. (2012:10) agree with this view and adds that thematic analysis moves away from “*counting explicit words or phrases and focus on identifying and describing both implicit and explicit ideas within the data, that is, themes*”. A theme captures something important about the data in relation to the research problem, and represents some level of patterned response or meaning within the data set (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

Before I could start with the data analysis for this research study I first had to make a few decisions regarding the most appropriate way to doing the analysis. In the following section I discuss these decisions which ranged from using an inductive or deductive approach to identify appropriate themes, to the level at which I would identify the themes.

In thematic analysis themes within data can be identified using one of the following two approaches, either (1) an inductive approach, or (2) a theoretical or deductive approach (Braun & Clarke, 2006). In an inductive approach, according to Braun and Clarke (2006:83) “*the themes identified are strongly linked to the data themselves*” but may bear little relation to the specific questions asked to the research participants (Braun & Clarke, 2006). This means that certain themes will emerge from the data without the researcher having specifically asked it in a direct question, Braun and Clarke (2006:83) calls this form of thematic analysis a data-driven approach. In contrast with this the second approach, a theoretical approach, would be less data-driven and tend to rather be driven by “*the researcher’s theoretical or analytical interests in the area*” (Braun & Clarke, 2006), which makes it more analyst-driven. Braun and Clarke (2006:84) also adds that when using an inductive approach the specific research questions will evolve through the coding process whereas in the theoretical approach you code for specific research questions.

Then there is also the issue of the level at which themes are being identified, according to Braun and Clarke (2006:84) there are two levels at which the themes can be identified namely; a semantic or explicit level, which means the themes are “*identified through the surface or explicit meanings of the data*” (Braun & Clarke, 2006). In other words, the researcher doesn’t look beyond the explicit answers given by the research participant, also the progression of the analytic process will go from description – “*where the data have simply been organized to show patterns in semantic content, and summarized*” to interpretation – “*where there is an attempt to theorized the significance of the patterns and their broader meanings and implications*” (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

Themes can also be identified at a latent level, where the researcher looks beyond the surface or semantic content of the data, and starts to “*examine the underlining ideas, assumptions, and conceptualisations –and ideologies – that are theorised as shaping or informing the semantic content of the data*” (Braun & Clarke, 2006). For data analysis at a latent level the development of themes involves interpretative work and the analysis which is produced is not just descriptive but is already theorized (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

For this study, I decided to use a realist method to thematic analysis, described by Braun and Clarke (2006:81) as a method which reports the experiences, meanings and realities of the

research participants. I also decided to use an inductive approach and to identify the themes at a semantic level.

4.6 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

A practical, simple definition of ethics, according to Iphofen (2009:1), “*is that they are ‘... a matter of principled sensitivity to the right of others’*”. This definition, for me, is one dimensional, because this only covers the manner in which the research participants should be treated. “*The rules of conduct recognized in respect to a particular class of human actions or a particular group or culture*” (Dictionary.com, 2012), this is the definition of ethics provided by an online dictionary, but this too is one dimensional because it only speaks to the way in which the researcher should conduct him- or herself. For me personally ethics is a more three dimensional concept. Not only should the research I propose to conduct be good according to my own moral compass but it should be applicable in today’s society and the way we as a society judge what is right and wrong. Doing ethical research doesn’t stop with doing the right research, but the researcher too has a responsibility to conduct him- or herself in an ethical manner as well as ensuring that the research participants are treated ethically. For me, as researcher, doing ethical social research entails, firstly, not doing any harm to the research participants or deceiving the participants, and secondly, not falsifying any data.

4.6.1 Research participants

As previously stated the research participants in this study are two separate groups of teachers working with differently-abled children attending mainstream schools as well as district-based support team members and special needs educators. Confidentiality will be insured for the schools and teachers potentially participating in the proposed study. Even though the teachers’ responses may be traced back to the particular participant, I will not publically reveal which participant gave which response. A code name will be given to the school, in order to also protect the school’s anonymity. Participation in this proposed study is completely voluntary and all participants will be asked to give informed consent prior to any data collection.

To be working in schools, I firstly had to obtain consent from the principals of the particular schools as well as the necessary permission from the Western Cape Education Department (WCED), as specified by the Research Ethics Committee (REC) of Stellenbosch University. I

believe that the participants faced no physical harm during the data collection process, however, as this study pertains to the training teachers receive, some of the teachers may feel criticized or uncomfortable during the data collection process

4.6.2 Responsibility of the researcher

According to Iphofen (2009:7) “*being a ‘good’ social scientist or social researcher means both not doing harm – or at least minimising it – (i.e. non-maleficence) and, hopefully, doing (some) good (i.e. beneficence). To be beneficent entails a range of action with the scientific intent of improving human knowledge about the area of human behaviour under investigation*”. I hoped that this proposed study will be of use for the scientific community, lay persons and the Department of Education. I, the researcher, intend not to deceive any of the potential participants of the proposed study; I planned on conducting myself as well as the research in an open and honest manner.

4.7 RESEARCH PROCEDURE

I have always been interested in education, not just the education one receives, but also how getting an education is made possible by the government, provincial education departments and schools. In recent years disability studies have been widely popularised and as an abled-bodied individual I wanted to know more about the quality and scope of education differently-abled individuals receive. So through doing a bit of reading and talking to relevant stakeholders this research study was conceptualised.

The research proceeded as follows:

This research study began through an extensive literature review from which I discovered the concept of inclusive education and policy documents like White Paper 6. After emerging myself in these documents the research question; “can inclusive education work in South Africa?” was formulated. I decided, through the assistance of peer-reviewed articles that the best way of answering this question would be by interviewing the individuals tasked with implementing inclusive education. It was thus decided that this study would be conducted from the perspectives of teachers and key support-team members.

Before the data collection process could start I firstly had to get consent from the WCED to conduct research in schools in the Western Cape. This consent was subsequently granted to me by Dr Audrey Wyngaard from the WCED on 21 September 2012. After I received this consent I proceeded with the sampling process, with guidance from Rolene Liebenberg from the Division for Community Interaction at Stellenbosch University, and responsible for school partnerships in this context, I decided on two schools in which to conduct the research.

After the sampling was done I proceeded to contact the two schools and subsequently received consent from the schools' principals to conduct research at their schools. Both the principals were instrumental in getting the final sample of teachers with who I finally conducted, with their consent, the focus group interviews. The support team members from Education District B were introduced to me through a family member involved in special needs education. I then proceeded, with their consent, to interview three support team members.

After the primary data was collected, through focus group and individual semi-structured interviews, I proceeded to transcribe the interviews after which the data was coded and analysed. The transcripts of these interviews are attached here as Addenda 17 through 21. The secondary data was gathered from key education policy documents, books and peer-reviewed articles on the topic. The findings were reported and comments and recommendations were also made (following chapters).

4.8 SUMMARY

This chapter focused on the research design and methodology of this study. The research methods, coding and data analysis, ethical considerations and research procedure were discussed. The following chapter will focus on the findings and the discussion of the findings.

CHAPTER 5:

RESEARCH FINDINGS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The research question that guided this study was; “Can inclusive education, in South African schools, work according to the perspectives of teachers and district-based support team members?”, and the aim was to answer this question from the perspectives of individuals, namely teachers and district-based support team members, involved with the implementation of inclusive education in different educational settings.

In this chapter I will give an overview of the research findings. I will begin by giving a brief description of the physical settings and research participants. The findings will be presented according to the main themes uncovered during analysis. I will provide an introduction of the themes and their sub-themes, following that each theme will be discussed in detail. I will end this chapter with a detailed discussion of the research findings.

5.1.1 Description of the physical settings

The context of the research participants and the schools in which this research took place is very important when interpreting the findings. In this section I will provide a brief description of the two schools where the focus groups took place as well as the office of Education District B where the semi-structured interviews with the district-based support team members took place.

The primary school is located in a rural community outside of Stellenbosch and mainly caters to the children of farm workers of the neighbouring wine farms. Most of the black and coloured learners come from families with a low socio-economic status and their parents have received, if any at all, only a basic education. The built environment of the school is wheelchair accessible through ramps, but they do not have any other resources for learners with disabilities. The primary school has on average between 30 and 40 learners per class. The inadequate resources at this school coupled with the extreme poverty in which the learners live have clear implications on their ability to learn and the opportunities afforded to them.

The secondary school is located in the heart of Franschhoek, and even though Franschhoek is considered one of the more affluent towns in the Western Cape, the school serves mainly the children of a poorer community of farm workers. These learners also mostly come from families with a low socio-economic status. The secondary school is fully bilingual with on average between 15 and 30 learners per class. It is clear from the interviews that a lack of resources and funds influence the teacher's ability to properly cater to the needs of all the learners in their classes. It was also clear that the teachers feel frustrated and not supported enough by the Department of Education. Both the primary and secondary schools run feeding schemes for those learners who receive no or only a few meals at home.

The office of Education District B is located in a small town approximately 110 kilometres from Cape Town and covers 4 municipal areas (Witbooi, 2008). This district serves 81 schools with 52 being primary schools, 13 secondary schools, 11 intermediate schools and five combined schools, with an approximate total of 107 000 learners attending schools in this district, including about 4 500 children in Grade R and pre-primary schools (Witbooi, 2008).

5.1.2 Description of the research participants

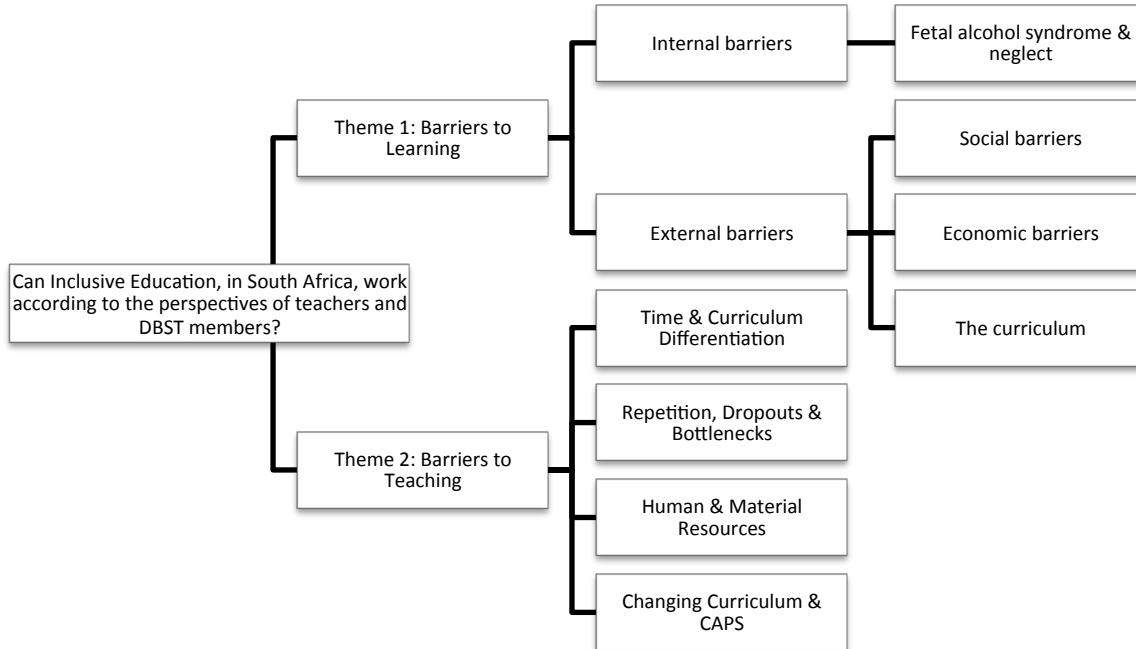
The participants from the primary school were all coloured teachers older than 35. All of the teachers have been teaching for 20 years or longer in either the foundational phase or intermediary phase. The participants from the secondary school were all white teachers younger than 30 and have been teaching in either the foundational or senior phase for ten years or less. The three district-based support team members were all highly skilled and older than 30 years of age.

5.2 INTRODUCTION OF THE THEMES

Two main themes with several sub-themes emerged from the primary and secondary data I gathered. They were topics mentioned on several occasions and according to the research participants contribute to the failure to fully include all learners in mainstream education. The main themes were constructed from placing sub-themes with a similar focus together under same main heading. The two main themes were (1) barriers to learning, and (2) what I call barriers to teaching.

The diagram below illustrates the two main themes as well as their sub-themes.

Diagram 5.1 Illustration of themes



5.2.1 Barriers to learning

As mentioned above, barriers to learning as defined by the Department of Education (2005:34) is

[...] the difficulties that arise within the education system as a whole, the learning site and/or within the learner him/herself which prevent both the system and the learner needs from being met. When, based on objective evaluation made by an educational authority, it is ascertained that teaching and learning are hampered where such needs are not met, educationally sound measures must be applied.

Thus, barriers to learning are any barriers or obstacles, either internal or external, which prevent a learner from fully benefitting from his or her right to an education. It is important to note that learner here refers to, all children of compulsory school going age who are attending a mainstream primary or secondary school. In this section there is no distinction between differently-abled and able-bodied learners as most of the learners attending the schools where

this research was conducted have not been formally classified as differently-abled learners and all learners regardless of their individual capacity to learn experience a number of different barriers to learning at any given point in time.

From the data gathered the main theme of barriers to learning was constructed from several sub-themes relating to both internal barriers as well as external barriers.

5.2.1.1 Internal barriers to learning

In this discussion internal barriers are seen as physical and intellectual disabilities located in the child. The participants mostly discussed learners with intellectual disabilities and made no mention of learners with physical disabilities. The internal barrier to learning that was reported by the research participants was intellectual disabilities ranging from fetal alcohol syndrome (FAS) and cognitive arrears due to pre-natal neglect mostly conceptualised within the context of poverty. It can be said that the internal barriers can be influenced by some of the external barriers.

Almost all the participants reported that they perceive neglect and FAS as the greatest barrier to learning experienced by the learners they are working with. Neglect is defined as the failure to provide for a child's basic needs (Roger-Adkinson & Stuart, 2007). Some learners attending the schools that form part of this study experience or have experienced neglect in that, according to the participants, some parents cannot adequately provide food, shelter and health care to their children. This neglect also includes pre-natal neglect where mothers didn't have access to health care, pre-natal vitamins or basic sustenance during pregnancy as well as to mothers who took part in high risk behaviour like drinking, using drugs or smoking during pregnancy. FAS can be seen as one of the manifestations of this high risk behaviour.

According to one participant; "it [FAS] is a very big problem in mainstream schools, especially in the Western Cape" (Transcript, line 823). South Africa is the country with the highest reported rates of FAS world-wide, with 49 cases per 1000 births in the Western Cape alone (May *et al.*, 2005). FAS is a birth defect which causes learning and behavioural problems and is commonly associated with "*heavy, episodic (binge) drinking that produces high blood alcohol concentrations (BAC); advanced maternal age; high gravidity and parity; unstable marital*

status; cigarette use; and use of other drugs” (May *et al.*, 2005). According to Roger-Adkinson & Stuart (2007: 149) there exists four criteria according to which FAS is diagnosed;

1. *Growth retardation, that is, below the tenth percentile for weight, height or head circumference at some point during development.*
2. *Characteristic facial dysmorphia, including absent or indistinct philtrum (groove in upper lip), thin upper vermillion (lip) and shortened palpebral fissures (eye openings).*
3. *Damage to the central nervous system, manifested as developmental delays, mental retardation and cognitive and/or behavioural problems.*
4. *Evidence of maternal drinking during gestation.*

According to the Nutrition Health Centre at Stellenbosch University (2013: 1) “*the brain and nerve abnormalities found in children with FAS often manifest as hyperactivity, irritability, attention deficit disorder, distractibility and taking longer than normal to complete tasks*”.

According to the participants from the primary school the learners in their classes are often incapable of comprehending some of the most basic exercises in the curriculum and frequently repeat grades. In order to accommodate the learning styles and needs of these children the participants apply curriculum differentiation by giving the learners basic exercises on a level two or three grades lower than the grade in which they are. The teachers also report that FAS sometimes goes undiagnosed in some of the learners and that those learners are then perceived as naughty, having ADHD or simply as being ‘slow’.

5.2.1.2 External barriers to learning

External barriers to learning are seen, in this study, as any or all social and economic factors that cause learning breakdown. The external barriers to learning reported by the research participants were (1) social barriers, (2) economic barriers, and (3) the ever-changing curriculum and CAPS.

These social barriers include the social circumstances and context of learners as well as the social construction of disability and special needs. According to the research participants learners experience learning breakdown because they simply cannot cope with the pace and curriculum in the mainstream. These learners would be better suited in a special needs school or proficiency school where their particular skills and talents could be developed. Because of the social

construction of disability and special needs there is a huge stigma attached to having special needs or a disability.

“...because they feel ashamed of it, they think their child will be branded as stupid or dumb. There is a huge stigma attached to special schools” (Transcript, line 484).

As is evident through the quote above, stigma mostly affects the parents of learners especially in close knit communities, like the ones in this study. Stigma is a concept that is very difficult to define and has different interpretations throughout different disciplines. Stigma as defined by Link and Phelan (2001: 363) is a “*co-occurrence of its components – labelling, stereotyping, separation, status loss and discrimination*”. Stigma is a social construction which, according to Dovidio, Major and Crocker (2000:3) “*involves at least two fundamental components; (1) the recognition of difference based on some distinguishing characteristic, or “mark”; and (2) a consequent devaluation of the person*”.

Thus, parents of learners perceived as something other than normal according standards set by society may feel the pressures of status loss when their children are labelled as disabled or as having a weaker intellectual ability. Because of this stigma parents do not want to send their children to special needs schools or proficiency schools in fear of what their community would think. There is also a stigma attached to receiving meals at school through the feeding scheme, some of the learners receive their only daily meal through the feeding scheme. Other learners also feel ashamed of not bringing lunch from home.

Learning does not only happen at school but also at home and in the community. According to White Paper 6 (2001: 7) barriers to learning also occur because of the “*non-recognition and non-involvement of parents*”. The way the curriculum is set-out calls for maximum involvement of parents. Unfortunately the financial and social circumstance for some of the learners in South Africa is of such a nature that it makes it impossible for parents to be fully involved. Learning breakdown also happens because learners are unable to cope with the curriculum as they simply do not have the ability to grasp the work. The needs of these learners will be better accommodated in specialised centres of learning but unfortunately special needs and proficiency schools are very expensive and in high demand resulting in waiting lists for up to several years.

This also directly links with the economic barriers to learning. These barriers refer to learners experiencing learning breakdown because they don't have the necessary funds or transport to be enrolled in a special needs or proficiency school or their family simply doesn't have the money to provide the learners with adequate nutrition and clothing. Economic barriers to learning also refer to under resourced schools. Some schools, like the primary and secondary schools in this study, simply do not have the money to provide their learners with even the most basic learning materials. The teachers also have to educate, discipline and care for 30 to 40 learners in one class room on their own without any assistance as the schools cannot afford to employ assistants.

“Her mother really wants to send her to a special needs school but there isn't one nearby and it is too expensive ... sometimes there is a waiting list or parents don't have the money [to send their children to special needs schools]” (Transcript, line 821).

One of the participants reported that some children sporadically miss school because they don't receive meals at home and are thus too hungry or too weak to come to school. The teachers also report that being hungry at school negatively influence the learners' attention span and make them feel tired which results in them falling asleep at their desks. Both the schools however have feeding schemes through which they provide meals for learners who really need it. Some of the learners feel too ashamed or shy to take their meals because of the stigma, as discussed above, attached to being poor.

Another external barrier to learning reported by the participants is the ever-changing curriculum. Since the implementation of inclusive education in 2001 the curriculum has changed several times, with new international trend frequently adopted by the education system which simply can't work in South Africa. The constant curriculum changes are confusing for all the learners, not only for the differently-abled learners. One participant states that the learners have just come to terms with a new programme or curriculum when sudden changes disrupt the learning process.

With the implementation of CAPS it has also become evident to both the teachers and district-based support team that the assessments and work is confusing for the children and that they spend more time coming to grips with the programme than actually learning. There is also the perception that the curriculum and CAPS is very fast paced.

5.2.2 Barriers to teaching

There exist no formal definition for the ‘barriers to teaching’ but I define it as any difficulties that may arise within the school or educational setting which prevent the educator from performing his/her duties as an educator and which prevents that educator from adequately teaching the learners in his/her class. The most significant barriers to teaching the participants experienced was issues regarding (1) repeats, drop-outs and bottlenecks, (2), time and curriculum differentiation (3) inadequate human and material resources and (4) the changing curriculum and CAPS.

5.2.2.1 Repetition, dropouts and bottlenecks

In this section I will discuss a sub-theme of the main theme, barriers to teaching. This sub-theme, repetitions, dropouts and bottlenecks, were discussed the most frequently by the research participants.

“We brag that each year a 100 000 learners start grade one but then we complain that only 20 000 grade 12’s pass... those children [one’s that are ‘progressed’] fall through the cracks” (Transcript, line 170).

The implication of this quote is most severe and according to the research participants is one of the major problems of inclusive education as well as the education system as a whole.

Repetition is when a learner has to repeat a grade because he or she has not successfully achieved the outcomes of a specific grade. The Department of Education report that repetition is much greater in higher grades than lower grades and according to the Department (2011: 4) this is because learners have not mastered basic skills in primary schools but have nonetheless been progressing from grade to grade.

“Because some children’s learning time is not just a year and you are forced to send the child through a phase in four years [because he/she already repeated one grade in the phase] while knowing that another year would have made a difference in the child’s progress” (Transcript, line 47).

According to the participants from the primary school this is because learners are only allowed to repeat a grade once in a phase, meaning only once in a three year period. So once a learner has already repeated a grade there is no other option than to simply promote that learner to the next phase even though he or she has not mastered the basic skills or achieved the outcomes of that phase. The Department of Education (2011: 4) also report that in 2007 a third of all children had repeated a grade, with more learners repeating grades in the FET phase (grades 10 to 12).

Dropouts, as indicated by its very unambiguous title refer to learners who drop out of school. In South Africa schooling is compulsory from the beginning of the year in which children turn seven until the end of the year in which they turn 15, or otherwise from grade one to grade nine or 15 years of age, whichever comes first. This means that all learners of seven years of age have to be enrolled in a school and once a learner turns 15 he or she can choose to leave school. This happens quite frequently, with the Department of Education (2011: 6) reporting that only about 40% of youths receive some qualifications at the Further Education and Training (FET) level, meaning that about 60% of youths have no other qualification beyond that of a grade 9 level. According to the Department of Education (2011: 5) there exists a strong correlation between repetition and dropout and that repetition is a good indicator for dropout, meaning that it is more likely for a learner to drop out of school if he or she has repeated a grade. Learner retention rates, roughly described as the opposite of dropouts and defined as a learner's continuation in the formal schooling system until the completion of the compulsory schooling phase (Department of Education, 2011), indicate that most learners complete compulsory schooling until grade nine after which most learners drop out of the formal schooling system.

As evident through the quote below and according to the research participants it frequently happens that learners are being progressed to the next phase without mastering the necessary skills needed to achieve the outcomes in higher grades, which then results in bottlenecks forming in grade eight and nine.

“...we had to put a number of learners through [to the next grade] because they already failed in that phase and eventually a lot of those learners bottlenecked at grade eight...”
(Transcript, line 97)

Once learners reach grade eight and nine they can no longer progress and that is why, according to the participants, so many learners drop out of school at the end of grade nine. The participants also reported that a lot of the learners who repeated a grade in the foundational phase most likely also repeated a grade in the intermediary phase meaning that they are already two years older than their fellow classmates, a problem which also arises in grade eight and nine when most of the learners should be 14 or 15 but end up being 16 or older. Some of the teachers reported that this sometimes causes behavioural problems, which leads to disruptions in class and is considered a major barrier to teaching.

5.2.2.2 Curriculum differentiation and time

The participants see the value of curriculum differentiation because some of the differently-abled learners in their classes are improving and catching-up to where their peers are. The participants attempt to accommodate the learners in their classes as far as possible. However, the participants from the primary school reported that the class sizes are a very big problem especially because lots of learners are just too far behind their peers. This is as a result of the learner promotion policy in which a learner can only fail once in each phase so teachers sometimes sit with four to six different skill levels in one classroom. The implication in essence is that they have to work out six different lesson plans for one class. This also takes up too much of their already limited time,

“... you are sitting in a class with four, five different levels [of support needed]”
(Transcript, line 32).

Because of the very diverse learner needs within one classroom some of the learners get neglected and because of them either being bored (due to the repetitive nature of the work so that the “weaker” learners can catch up) or being too far behind (because they can only fail once in a phase so sometimes they still can’t do the work they were supposed to know two grades lower, and the current work is too difficult) they cause disciplinary problems, which takes more time away from the teacher actually teaching. Both abled-bodied and differently-abled learners cause disciplinary problems it is not limited to one group.

The participants reported that even though the curriculum is supposed to be learner based and learner paced, some of the learners are left behind because of the amount of assessments and

exercises they need to work through in a certain amount time. Time is general was also reported as a major problem as the participants have too much administration to also work through in conjunction with curriculum differentiation and other responsibilities at the schools. The secondary school participants especially felt that too much of their time is spent organising fund raisers to supplement the school budget as example of activities that deviates from their core teaching responsibilities.

5.2.2.3 Human and material resources

The participants mentioned that classes are too big which limits the teachers' ability to attend to all the learners who require additional assistance or particular support. There is a very big demand for assistants in the class or even more ELSEN teachers.

"... send us other audio-visual materials and resources, like sounds and recordings and maybe models or something because with IE you want to use different teaching methods in order to help everyone..." (Transcript,729).

As evident from the quote above teachers often do not have the correct material resources to adequately implement inclusive education. At the moment the teachers at both the primary and the secondary school only have a blackboard in their classroom and have to share a 'floating' projector with several other teachers. According to the participants, inclusive education will not be successful without the necessary resources.

5.2.2.4 Changing curriculum and CAPS

The Department of Education (2009: 16) believes that the success of a curriculum is very much determined by what teachers think about it and about the changes made to the previous curricula. The implementation of a curriculum is also dependent on teachers and how they understand and make sense of it (Department of Education, 2009).

The participants reported that they feel immense pressure and experience a lot of uncertainty when it comes to the curriculum. Since 1994 the curriculum has changed several times, the first significant change resulted in the curriculum following an OBE approach, which according to the participants was complicated and difficult to implement because they didn't receive sufficient

training. The participants also report that the changes in the curriculum happen so fast that it is difficult to keep up with the different requirements imposed on them.

5.3 DISCUSSION OF THE RESEARCH FINDINGS

This section is structured in such a way to illustrate the participants' answer to the research question, "can inclusive education, in South African schools, work according to the perspectives teachers and district-based support team members?" it is however first necessary to discuss the research participants' perspectives on inclusive education.

All the participants were asked to define inclusive education in their own words. What was interesting was that the two groups of teachers had a very short definition for inclusive education which in most cases were variations of the following; "*[i]nclusive education means the inclusion of everyone*" (Transcript, line 468), *their definitions were also immediately followed with; "but, it is only good in theory and not in practice"* (Transcript, line 803) and/ or "*inclusive education is not very realistic*" (Transcript, line 470). The DBST members, however all gave more comprehensive definitions that focused on the child's right to learn as well as their role in inclusive education. One participant in particular responded with: "*inclusive education ... is that all children can learn, has the potential to learn, and we must help them get access to the curriculum so that they can learn. We must look at how to minimize their barriers to learning so that they can learn*" (Transcript, line 871).

From their responses it seems as if teachers view inclusive education as something imposed on them from above, referring to the Department of Education, and that they need to change in order to comply with certain rules and regulations set forth by the Department. Whereas the DBST members viewed inclusive education in a more positive light and saw themselves as change agents for a more inclusive education system in which all children's rights and capabilities are considered. The reason for these different attitudes towards inclusive education may be due to different levels of training and a difference in familiarity with inclusive education at a policy level. As mentioned previously the teachers who received training before 2001 did not have inclusive education as part of their course work as inclusive education was only implemented after 2001. The teachers who studied after 2001 were more familiar with inclusive education but still felt that their training, in terms of inclusive education, was not sufficient. The participants

also mentioned that the only training they received in terms of inclusive education, after the implementation thereof in 2001, was during CAPS training which they only received this year (2013) and lasted only for about two hours.

“CAPS touched on it [inclusive education]. When we had CAPS training it touched on it... we had only two hours during CAPS training” (Transcript, line 11).

This means that after the implementation of inclusive education in 2001 most teachers had only heard about it until receiving CAPS training 12 years after it was implemented. At the time of these interviews not all the teachers have received CAPS training yet, which limited their understanding thereof even further. The DSBT members are however tasked with supporting not only learners but also teachers within an inclusive setting and were appointed to the task team because of their extensive knowledge on the topic. That may be why their definitions of inclusive education not only described what it is but how it can be achieved and also their role in the implementation thereof.

All the participants, both the teachers and DBST members, are of the opinion that inclusive education can in fact work provided that changes be made in how it is currently conceptualised and implemented. The primary school teachers, however, are very frustrated and of the opinion that the Department of Education and those managing inclusive education are aware of all the pitfalls and know that inclusive education is not working.

“I get the feeling that they know it isn't working in the mainstream, they know, but they won't talk because at the end of the day they will sit without a job” (Transcript, line 264).

As is evident from the quote above, the primary schools' teachers feel that those “higher up” are only invested in their own livelihoods and that is why the inclusive education policy has not been reviewed or changed because to the teachers it is obvious that it is not working.

It was argued that the education system as it is now should also change, for instance the teachers report that the education system is very performance driven and that is why a lot of learners are being mainstreamed and “pushed” through the system. This is particularly evident in the senior phase where learners cannot cope with their workload and are sometimes so far behind their peers that they simply drop-out of school when they are in grade 9.

The teachers from the primary school feel that inclusive education should be more tailored to the specific social context of learners in South Africa, especially learners living in poverty and who face adverse social, economic and personal problems. The secondary school teachers agreed with this view and added that learners should receive more support during early childhood development and the foundational phase of primary school as that is the optimal time for acquiring vast amounts of knowledge. A strong foundation should be laid at an early age on which can be built in the intermediary and secondary phases. The secondary school teachers also believe that learners should be tested or evaluated early on in the foundational phase which will help in the development of individual education programmes which can prevent that learners fall through the cracks or get lost in the system. All the teachers also felt that the parents' role in the education of their children should be highlighted and that the parents have to take responsibility for intellectually stimulating their children in the period before they are enrolled in grade R as well as throughout their schooling.

All the participants felt that certain barriers, discussed in the previous section, prevent inclusive education from working and only once those barriers are considered and eradicated will inclusive education be successful. In particular the participants from the two schools felt that at the moment barriers that prevent teachers from fully implementing inclusive education, called barriers to teaching, are not being considered by the Department of Education and District-based or institutional-based support teams and that instead of seeing the teacher as a barrier to learning for the child, rather examine why teachers are struggling and also experience certain barriers.

The participants from both schools are also of the opinion that more financial and material resources must be made available to schools if they are expected to implement inclusive education. The teachers from the secondary school argued that for effective learning, differently-abled learners need alternative teaching methods and other resources like audio-visual materials, not just simply text books like they have now. The teachers and DBST members agreed that teachers need teaching assistants and the schools need more funds for the successful implementation of inclusive education.

According to the teachers the disadvantages and problems of inclusive education have to be addressed, whereas the DBST members felt that there should be a renewed focus on the advantages of inclusive education in order for it to be successfully implemented. The biggest

disadvantage of inclusive education reported by the teachers is unfortunately the essence of the inclusive education policy. According to the teachers inclusive education is “too inclusive”, in that certain learners just simply don’t have the ability to cope with the fast pace of the curriculum and the scope and amount of work being covered in mainstream schools. Some learners are being mainstreamed when they should actually be in a special needs or proficiency school. According to one participant, “the fact that those special needs schools and proficiency schools receive so many applications and are so full can already tell you that there is something wrong with inclusive education” (Transcript, line 609). The teachers also report that mainstreaming mostly happens due to several factors which include the beliefs and attitudes of parents, long waiting lists at special needs and proficiency schools and other issues regarding access to special needs and proficiency schools like finances and transport.

Another factor which negatively influences the implementation of inclusive education and the school system in its entirety, according to the teachers, is the ever-changing curriculum. One participant reported that the learners are only coming to terms with the curriculum and their workload when the curriculum changes and then the learners have to catch up again. This is however not a negative aspect for the DBST members, as they believe that a curriculum is a dynamic changing thing which should be updated regularly with new teaching techniques and strategies learnt from other countries. This is however directly opposed to the argument made by the primary school teachers, who believe that we should not adopt any more policies from other countries as they do not fully consider the social and economic circumstance of some of the learners. It was also found that even though inclusive education and the notion of a curriculum being learner based and learner paced, is the cornerstone of the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS), not much time was spent on explaining inclusive education and the teacher’s role in inclusive education during the CAPS training.

According to the DBST members it is crucial that all learners be accommodated in the mainstream and that learners shouldn’t be segregated or excluded, learners and their parents should always have a choice in where to receive an education and it is the teacher and support personnel who have to adapt their teaching styles in order to ensure that they experience no barriers to learning. The DBST members also believe that by acquiring new teaching methods teachers could stay updated and knowledgeable about different education policies and then be

better equipped and more confident to accommodate differently-abled learners in their classrooms.

In conclusion, the perspectives of the teachers and DBST members differed completely, but something both groups agreed on was that inclusive education has the potential to work in South Africa provided that certain barriers to learning and teaching are addressed and as long as teachers and other support personnel receive adequate training. The participants are also of the opinion that schools need more resources, not only in terms of funding but also teaching materials and human resources. Therefore, inclusive education is in fact a viable option for the South African education system provided that it is reformulated to fit in with the social and economic circumstances of the learners.

In the table below the different perspectives of the teachers and DBST members, as separate groups, are presented.

Table 5.1 Differing perspectives of the teacher and DBST members, as separate groups.

	Teachers	DBST members
The definition of IE	Views IE in a negative way, as the inclusion of everyone and as imposed by the DOE.	Views IE in a positive way and defines the different stakeholder's roles and the capabilities of the learners.
Knowledge of IE	Very limited knowledge and amount of training on the subject.	Experts in the field of IE.
Focus	Mostly focused on the negative aspects and disadvantages of IE.	Mostly focused on the positive aspects and advantages of IE.
Curriculum	Viewed it as ever-changing, confusing and fast paced.	Viewed it as a pacemaker, which should constantly change in order to keep up with a changing South Africa and teaching techniques.
Success of IE depends on	Eradicating barriers to teaching.	Eradicating barriers to learning.

CHAPTER 6:

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

As mentioned before this research study explored the perspectives of individuals, namely teachers and DBST members, who are tasked with the implementation of inclusive education. The research findings suggested that there exist several barriers, to both teaching and learning, which negatively influences the implementation of inclusive education, which ultimately affects the viability of inclusive education in South African schools.

In the following chapter I will give concluding remarks, discuss the strengths and limitations of the study as well as make recommendations for further study.

6.2 CONCLUDING REMARKS

As mentioned above, this research study set out to explore the perspectives of individuals tasked with implementing inclusive education in South African schools. The research problem that informed this study was: “can inclusive education, in South African schools, work according to the perspectives of teachers and district-based support team members?”. I set out to answer this question by studying the education system, including teacher education, in South Africa, as well as views on disability and special needs. It was necessary to understand the historical development of special needs education and education provision as well as how historical events and international trends influenced this development.

With South Africa’s history of discrimination and segregation it was not strange to learn that special needs education was a vastly under-resourced and neglected sector, with “non-white” learners not only being segregated based on race but also based on disability. Through this study it became clear that special needs has always been viewed as something undesirable or something to fear, with “normal” people pitying those considered hopeless and feeling superior to those viewed as abnormal or broken, reinforcing the medical of model of disability. The

medical model of disability views disability as a result of an impairment or loss in bodily function. This is evident through the development of special education which started as a charitable undertaking by churches and other organisations with the national government only getting involved and providing resources for these schools in 1900. In the subsequent years, special education was, however, still marked with neglect and a lack of provision with most of the limited funds demarcated for white learners only.

The end of apartheid saw not only wide-scale transformation within the education system but also in society's view and understanding of disability. With democratisation a renewed emphasis on equality and human rights as well as international trends of inclusion resulted in a total paradigm shift not only in the education department but also in the way in which disability and special needs was conceptualised. The cornerstone of inclusive education in South Africa is White Paper 6 which was published in 2001 after an extensive study was conducted on the national education system. White Paper 6 defines special needs as any obstacle or barrier that prevents a learner from reaching his/her full potential. These obstacles are called "barriers to learning" and range from physical and social barriers like disability, illness and poverty to systemic barriers like the school's built environment, curriculum and teachers.

As mentioned above the social model of disability defines disability as a relationship between the individual with the "impairment" and a discriminatory society (Shakespeare, 1996). Thus, disability is not the impairing factor but rather the views of society and the notion of normality is what causes the "impairment". This model also views disability as a social construct and does not attribute the disability to the individual, as in the case of the medical model, but rather views disability as being created by the social environment of the individual and therefore necessitating social change. By using a social constructionist framework one can see how the social contexts of individuals will influence their world view.

The role and models of Education, also informed the theoretical framework of this study. Three models of education were discussed; the first was the human capital model, which views education from an economic perspective and believes that education is only important in so far it can benefit the economy. It sees education in terms of returns on investment, with education being the investment and economic gain, be it for the individual or the whole society, the return.

This model doesn't consider individual learning needs and abilities and it seems that differently-abled learners would not make as good of an investment as their able-bodied counterparts, which then leads to questions about the quality of education differently-abled learners would receive.

The second model of education is the human rights model, which directly links with the social model of disability. This model views education as a basic human right and believes that schooling is the vehicle through which to exercise that right. The responsibility of the government is highlighted in this model because it is the government's obligation to fulfil basic human rights. This model, however noble has a few fundamental flaws. Having a right and actually fulfilling that right is two very different things. Having access to a school doesn't necessarily mean that a child would receive a worthwhile education there. Factors like teacher training, unsafe school environments and basic service delivery is not considered in this model. More importantly, different ability levels is also not factored in, because it is argued that all learners must have access to schooling, but doesn't account for learning happening in other informal settings as well.

The last model of education is the capabilities model. This model believes that individuals should be capable of living a life they consider worthwhile and this can be achieved through expanding on the capabilities a person has. This model critiques the rights model which sees education as a fundamental human right and argues that the right to an education should rather be the right to capabilities through education. Enriching the capabilities of individuals will empower them to fulfil not only their right to an education but their other rights as well.

According to Richards (2006:74) the research method of a study is informed by the research question which in turn is informed by the purpose of the study. The purpose of this study was to understand inclusive education as it is conceptualised and implemented in South Africa. The research problem or question which ultimately stemmed from this purpose was; "can inclusive education work in South Africa?". According to this it was decided that the best way of answering the question was to study the perspectives of individuals implementing inclusive education within educational settings, which in South Africa is teachers. Upon doing a preliminary literature review, it was found that within the new inclusive education paradigm teachers are not the only role players in the implementation of inclusive education but that

district-based support teams, whose job it is to support learners and teachers, are also key to the implementation process. It was thus decided that the scope of the study would include both teachers and district-based support team members working in schools and education districts in the Western Cape.

From the purpose and scope of this study it was apparent that a qualitative research methodology was the most appropriate methodology from which to conduct the research. As mentioned above a common feature of a qualitative research study is that it aims to create understanding from data as the analysis proceeds (Richards, 2006), as opposed to testing a pre-emptive hypothesis as is the case with quantitative research designs. As a better understanding of the perspectives of teachers and DBST members were required it was decided that the best way to gather the data was through focus groups interviews and in-depth semi-structured interviews. As the research progressed it became evident that a better understanding of the perspectives of the research participants as well as the South African education system and the place of inclusive education within that system was required. That resulted in a comprehensive literature review through documentary research. After the data was gathered the interviews were transcribed and the data coded. Thematic analysis was used to analyse the data.

From the data it was found that the teachers and the DBST members had opposing views, not only of the definition of inclusive education but also their role in the implementation thereof. The teachers viewed inclusive education as yet another policy adopted from other countries and imposed on them by the government and the Department of Education. Even though they report that they have always had an inclusive philosophy to education they haven't had sufficient training in terms of what inclusive education is and how they should implement it. The DBST members on the other hand had a more comprehensive understanding of inclusive education as well as of what their role with regards to the implementation thereof is. Even though it is 12 years since White Paper 6 was published, teachers are not that familiar with what inclusive education is and their role in it. Whereas the district-based support teams have a clear understanding of it but don't actually work with the teachers and learners on a daily basis so there is a limited time in which knowledge can be transferred from the support team member to the teachers. Overall the teachers had a much more negative view of inclusive education whereas the DBST members were more positive. Both the teachers and DBST members agreed that

certain barriers prevent the successful implementation of inclusive education. They however disagreed as to the nature of these barriers; the teachers viewed them as barriers to teaching experienced by the teachers, while the DBST members viewed them purely as barrier to learning experienced by the learners and that teachers where one of the systemic barriers to learning most frequently experienced.

There was no clear yes or no answer to the question; “can inclusive education work in South Africa?” but rather that it has the potential to work provided that certain things with regard to the conceptualisation and implementation thereof change. It was found that, only once teachers received the appropriate training and barriers to teaching and learning are minimalized or eradicated that inclusive education can work.

6.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the research findings and all I have learned the following recommendations can be made:

Teachers need to receive more training in terms of their role in an inclusive education system, with detailed discussions on what is expected of them and how they can achieve it. It is also imperative that teachers stay abreast of the development of new teaching techniques and that they frequently receive training in order to fully develop their potential, which may also help minimize barriers to teaching.

All learners should be evaluated early on to determine their individual ability and learning needs in order to fully develop their strengths and limited barriers to learning, which may result in less repetition of grades and fewer dropouts. It is also suggested that compulsory schooling start from Grade R and not Grade one, as it currently does, and also that it doesn't end with Grade nine but continues to Grade 12. It was argued that the only reason why learners dropout in Grade 9 is because the system has failed them. If compulsory schooling was until the end of Grade 12 it could possibly decrease the number of out of work, unskilled youth in South Africa. All schools should focus on learner's ability and realise that formal schooling may not be the best way to fully develop their potential, but that their skill sets should be expanded.

Finally, I think that it would also be beneficial to always pilot test new curricula before implementing it in schools, in order to test its viability and minimize confusion and stress on the part of the teacher.

6.4 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

A limitation of this study is that the voices of the learners and their parents were not heard. Because of the limited scope of the study on teachers and DBST members were interviewed. Learners and their parents can be considered as a third party in the successful implementation of inclusive education. It could have provided richer data and a better understanding of the barriers to learning experienced by learners if they were also consulted. As White Paper 6 places great emphasis on parent involvement in inclusive education, it would have been interesting to explore the parents' understanding thereof as well as what they consider as the most significant barriers to learning.

A final limitation of this study can be seen as the limited focus on the day to day workings of the DBST and the progress, if any, made by the learners they work with regularly. Interviews with different DBST's from different education districts could have provided a fuller understanding of the work they do. It could also have provided richer detail and a deeper understanding of barriers to teaching if teachers and support personnel from full-service and special needs schools were interviewed. And it could have provided a better understanding of why a distinction between full-service schools and mainstream schools are made.

6.5 STRENGTHS OF THE STUDY

The participants of this study provided valuable insights on their understanding of inclusive education and their perspectives on the successful implementation thereof. This study provided the participants with an avenue through which to express their problems and concerns with regards to inclusive education and the way in which it has been implemented.

The study also highlighted the important aspects, like appropriate training and systemic barriers to learning and teaching, which may hinder the further implementation of inclusive education as perceived by those who have to practically implement it.

6.6 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Based on the limitations discussed above, this section will recommend research avenues which can be pursued further.

Further research can be done in schools which were part of the initial pilot tests before inclusive education was implemented. It would especially be of value to compare what those teachers' perspectives are and if the learners in those schools have benefitted from it.

It would also be of value to conduct a detailed study on repetition and dropouts; especially with regards to factors which influence dropouts as well as what happens after learners exit school in Grade nine.

Finally, a study could also be conducted on the training prospective teachers receive from colleges of education or universities in order to evaluate if it is sufficient in terms of preparing them for working in classes with several different levels of support needed and curriculum differentiation.

6.7 CONCLUSION

In this final chapter, I drew the different parts of this study to a conclusive whole. I gave an overview of how the study was developed and how it was executed. I also revealed the limitations and perceived strengths of the study as well as discussing my recommendations and recommendations for further research study.

The process of completing this research study was an enlightening one, I set out to satisfy my own curiosity about inclusive education and the quality of education differently-abled learners receive in mainstream schools and have achieved just that in relation to also awaking an even deeper curiosity of curriculum development and teacher training.

To conclude, a definitive yes or no answer was not found for the research problem but it was found that from the perspectives of teachers and DBST members inclusive education can work in their schools and education district provided that barriers to teaching and learning are addressed.

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ADDENDUM A: DESC ETHICAL CLEARANCE FROM STELLENBOSCH UNIVERSITY

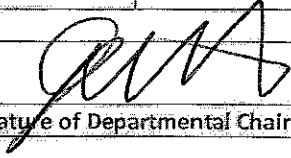
DECISION OF DESC


Referral to Research Ethics Committee: Yes / No

[In the case of a referral to the RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE, this checklist and its supporting documentation should be submitted, as well as the full application for ethics review, together with its supporting documentation, avoiding unnecessary duplication of documentation. Also list the ethical risks that are related to the research proposal that is submitted for review, together with the DESC's proposals to avoid or mitigate these ethical risks. Clearly indicate in a note exactly what ethical clearance is requested for.]

If no referral is required, state any DESC conditions/stipulations subject to which the research may proceed (on separate page if space below is too limited): *[Or stretch table below if required]*

Any ethical issues that need to be highlighted?	Why are these issues important?	What must/could be done to minimize the ethical risk?
Should it become necessary to include children, a full application to the REC will be required		Follow standard protocols

J H VORSTER	
Print name of Departmental Chair	Signature of Departmental Chair
Date 17/10/2012	

HE PROZESKY	
Print name of second member of DESC	Signature of second member of DESC
Date 17/10/2012	

DOCUMENTS TO BE PROPERLY FILED IN THE DEPARTMENT AND (E-)COPIES SEND TO SU RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE OFFICE. ON RECEIPT OF THIS COPY, THE RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE SECRETARIAT WILL ISSUE A RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE REGISTRATION NUMBER.

Note: Departments are requested to provide staff members and students with a list of professional Code(s) of ethics and guidelines for ethically responsible research relevant to their field of study on which they can indicate by signature that they have familiarised themselves with it. The last item in the list should be the 'Framework policy for the assurance and promotion of ethically accountable research at Stellenbosch University'.

With thanks to the Department of Sociology and Social Anthropology, Stellenbosch University of the initial concept.

ADDENDUM B: CONSENT FROM THE WESTERN CAPE EDUCATION DEPARTMENT



REFERENCE: 20120921-0059

ENQUIRIES: Dr A T Wyngaard

Miss Mariska de Winnaar
Division for Research Development
Stellenbosch University

Dear Miss Mariska de Winnaar

RESEARCH PROPOSAL: EDUCATION FOR ALL: A CASE STUDY EXPLORING INCLUSIVE EDUCATION FROM THE PERSPECTIVE OF TEACHERS

Your application to conduct the above-mentioned research in schools in the Western Cape has been approved subject to the following conditions:

1. Principals, educators and learners are under no obligation to assist you in your investigation.
2. Principals, educators, learners and schools should not be identifiable in any way from the results of the investigation.
3. You make all the arrangements concerning your investigation.
4. Approval for projects should be conveyed to the District Director of the schools where the project will be conducted.
5. Educators' programmes are not to be interrupted.
6. The Study is to be conducted from **21 January 2013 till 29 March 2013**
7. No research can be conducted during the fourth term as schools are preparing and finalizing syllabi for examinations (October to December).
8. Should you wish to extend the period of your survey, please contact Dr A.T Wyngaard at the contact numbers above quoting the reference number?
9. A photocopy of this letter is submitted to the principal where the intended research is to be conducted.
10. Your research will be limited to the list of schools as forwarded to the Western Cape Education Department.
11. A brief summary of the content, findings and recommendations is provided to the Director: Research Services.
12. The Department receives a copy of the completed report/dissertation/thesis addressed to:

**The Director: Research Services
Western Cape Education Department
Private Bag X9114
CAPE TOWN
8000**

We wish you success in your research.

Kind regards.

Signed: Dr Audrey T Wyngaard
for: **HEAD: EDUCATION**

DATE: 21 September 2012

ADDENDUM C: EXAMPLE OF INFORMED CONSENT FOR SCHOOL PRINCIPALS



UNIVERSITEIT • STELLENBOSCH • UNIVERSITY
jou kennisvenoot • your knowledge partner

STELLENBOSCH UNIVERSITY CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH

Education for all: A case study exploring inclusive education from the perspective of teachers

You are asked as the principal of _____ to give your consent for a research study conducted by Mariska de Winnaar (MA Sociology), from the Sociology and Social Anthropology Department at Stellenbosch University, to take place at your school. All the results obtained from this study will be contributed to my MA thesis. Your school was selected as a possible research site in this study because your school meets following criteria; (1) the school has inclusive educational practices, (2) differently-abled learners are, currently, enrolled in the school, and (3) the differently-abled learners are sharing the same learning environment, i.e. classroom, as the enrolled able-bodied learners

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study is to find out whether or not inclusive education can work, what the pitfalls are as well as any advantages or disadvantages from the perspectives of teachers working in an inclusive school.

If you give your permission, as the principal of the school, for research to take place at your school the following will happen:

- Possibly all your teachers, with their permission, will be interviewed
- I will document the full history and background of your school, and
- Investigate your school's inclusive practices

The interviews will take no longer than one to two hours depending on the amount of information gathered from one participant at any time. Follow-up interviews may be required if the allotted time for the interview expires. Participants will be asked to give permission for the interviews to be recorded.

CONFIDENTIALITY

Any information that is obtained in connection with this study and that can be identified with you will remain confidential and will be disclosed only with your permission or as required by law. Confidentiality will be maintained by means of anonymity of all research participants. The schools will also be given code names, so the answers given by the teachers cannot be linked to the schools in anyway.

No personal information will be released to anyone; however the research results will be released to my research supervisor and lecturers from the Sociology and Social Anthropology Department.

With the permission of the teachers the interview(s) will be audio-recorded, to be transcribed so that the researcher has all the relevant facts discussed in the interview on record. All recordings will be deleted as soon as the thesis is completed or the data no longer necessary to the thesis (recordings will be stored for up to a month, before being deleted).

You can choose whether or not your school be part of this research study. If you volunteer your school as a research site, you may withdraw your consent at any time without consequences of any kind. The teachers may also refuse to answer any questions they don't want to answer and still remain in the study. The investigator may withdraw you from this research if circumstances arise which warrant doing so.

IDENTIFICATION OF INVESTIGATORS

If you have any questions or concerns about the research, please feel free to contact Mariska de Winnaar at 15299422@sun.ac.za or Mr. Jacob du Plessis (research supervisor).

RIGHTS OF RESEARCH SUBJECTS

You may withdraw your consent at any time and discontinue participation without penalty. You are not waiving any legal claims, rights or remedies because of your participation in this research study. If you have questions regarding your rights as a research subject, contact Ms Maléne Fouché [mfouche@sun.ac.za; 021 808 4622] at the Division for Research Development.

SIGNATURE OF RESEARCH SUBJECT OR LEGAL REPRESENTATIVE
--

The information above was described to me, the school principal by Mariska de Winnaar (Researcher) in English/Afrikaans and I, the principal of the research site am in command of this language or it was satisfactorily translated to me. I, the principal of the research site was given the opportunity to ask questions and these questions were answered to my satisfaction.

I hereby give my permission for research to be done at _____
where I am the school principal.

Name of School Principal

Signature of School Principal

Date

SIGNATURE OF INVESTIGATOR

I declare that I explained the information given in this document to _____.
He or she was encouraged and given ample time to ask me any questions. This conversation was
conducted in English/Afrikaans.

Signature of Investigator

Date

ADDENDUM D: EXAMPLE OF INFORMED CONSENT FOR RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS



UNIVERSITEIT • STELLENBOSCH • UNIVERSITY
jou kennisvenoot • your knowledge partner

**STELLENBOSCH UNIVERSITY
CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH**

**Education for all:
A case study exploring inclusive education from the perspective of teachers**

Informed consent form for teachers

You are asked to participate in a research study conducted by Mariska de Winnaar, MA Sociology, from the Department of Sociology and Social Anthropology at Stellenbosch University. The results of this study will contribute to my MA thesis. You were selected as a possible participant in this study because you are a teacher at a mainstream school which is identified as having inclusive educational practices.

1. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study is to find out whether or not inclusive education can work, what the pitfalls are as well as any advantages or disadvantages from the perspectives of teachers working in an inclusive school.

If you give your permission, as the principal of the school, for research to take place at your school the following will happen:

- Possibly all your teachers, with their permission, will be interviewed
- I will document the full history and background of your school, and
- Investigate your school's inclusive practices

The interviews will take no longer than one to two hours depending on the amount of information gathered from one participant at any time. Follow-up interviews may be required if the allotted time for the interview expires. Participants will be asked to give permission for the interviews to be recorded.

2. PROCEDURES

If you volunteer to participate in this study, we would ask you to do the following things:

You will be interviewed for approximately 1 to 2 hours, based on the answers you provide. The interview will take place at the school or a location which is most convenient for you. There may be follow-up interview(s) if the researcher deems it necessary.

3. POTENTIAL RISKS AND DISCOMFORTS

The researcher doesn't foresee any potential risks to the participants' being. Any discomforts that may arise will be from the questions posed to the participant and will be dealt with immediately. The participant can stop the interview at any time if any discomfort may arise and also remove them from the study at any point. The interviews will also take place at a location and time that best suits the participant as not to inconvenience the participant.

4. POTENTIAL BENEFITS TO SUBJECTS AND/OR TO SOCIETY

There are no potential benefits to the participants personally, but the information gathered will greatly assist the researcher in completing her MA degree in Sociology. The researcher also hopes that this study will benefit the South African education system.

5. PAYMENT FOR PARTICIPATION

The research participants will not receive any payment for participation.

6. CONFIDENTIALITY

Any information that is obtained in connection with this study and that can be identified with you will remain confidential and will be disclosed only with your permission or as required by law. Confidentiality will be maintained by means of anonymity of all research participants. The schools will also be given code names, so the answers given by the teachers cannot be linked to the schools in anyway.

No personal information will be released to anyone; however the research results will be released to my research supervisor and lecturers from the Sociology and Social Anthropology Department.

With the permission of the teachers the interview(s) will be audio-recorded, to be transcribed so that the researcher has all the relevant facts discussed in the interview on record. All recordings will be deleted as soon as the thesis is completed or the data no longer necessary to the thesis (recordings will be stored for up to a month, before being deleted).

7. PARTICIPATION AND WITHDRAWAL

You can choose whether to be in this study or not. If you volunteer to be in this study, you may withdraw at any time without consequences of any kind. You may also refuse to answer any questions you don't want to answer and still remain in the study. The investigator may withdraw you from this research if circumstances arise which warrant doing so.

8. IDENTIFICATION OF INVESTIGATORS

If you have any questions or concerns about the research, please feel free to contact Mariska de Winnaar at 15299422@sun.ac.za or Mr. Jacob du Plessis (research supervisor)

9. RIGHTS OF RESEARCH SUBJECTS

You may withdraw your consent at any time and discontinue participation without penalty. You are not waiving any legal claims, rights or remedies because of your participation in this research study. If you have questions regarding your rights as a research subject, contact Ms Maléne Fouché [mfouche@sun.ac.za; 021 808 4622] at the Division for Research Development.

SIGNATURE OF RESEARCH SUBJECT OR LEGAL REPRESENTATIVE
--

The information above was described to me, the research participant by Mariska de Winnaar in my language of choice (Afrikaans/English). I the research participant was given the opportunity to ask questions and these questions were answered to my satisfaction.

I hereby consent voluntarily to participate in this study and I have been given a copy of this form.

Name of Participant

Signature of Participant

Date

SIGNATURE OF INVESTIGATOR

I declare that I explained the information given in this document to _____
He/she was encouraged and given ample time to ask me any questions. This conversation was conducted in Afrikaans/English.

Signature of Investigator

Date

ADDENDUM E: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR SCHOOLS

**Good in theory but not in practice:
Exploring perspectives on inclusive education**

Interview Schedule for Franschhoek High School and Lynedoch Primary School teachers.

=====

Personal views and experiences / *Persoonlike sienings en ervarings*

1. Have you had any training with regards to inclusive education? *Het u enige opleiding ontvang met betrekking tot inklusiewe onderwys?*
2. What are your personal feelings toward inclusive education? *Wat is u persoonlike gevoelens teenoor inklusiewe onderwys?*
3. Do you have any concerns relating to the effectiveness of inclusive education in general and more specifically in your school? *Het u enige bekommernisse met betrekking tot inklusiewe onderwys oor die algemeen en meer spesifiek in u skool?*
4. What is your perspective on inclusive education? *Wat is u perspektief oor inklusiewe onderwys?*
5. Do you think inclusive education is practical? *Dink u daar is enige praktiese waarde in inklusiewe onderwys?*
6. Which advantages do you think inclusive education has? *Wat dink u is die voordele van inklusiewe onderwys?*
7. Do you perceive any disadvantages with regard to inclusive education? *Voorsien u enige nadele met betrekking tot inklusiewe onderwys?*
8. Do you think you are prepared to be an inclusive/ special needs educator? *Is u bereid om 'n inklusiewe of "spesiale behoeftes" onderwyser te wees?*
9. Do you think that you meet the needs of inclusive educator? *Voldoen u aan die vereistes om 'n inklusiewe onderwyser te wees?*
10. Do you think inclusive education is fair, to both differently-abled and able-bodied learners? *Dink u inklusiewe onderwys is regverdig teenoor beide anders-bekwaamde en "normale" leerders?*
11. Do you think that inclusive education policies have a political agenda? *Dink u dat beleide met betrekking tot inklusiewe onderwys 'n politieke agenda het?*
12. Do you think that inclusive education can work? *Dink u inklusiewe onderwys kan werk?*

13. What are some of the common concerns about inclusive education? *Wat is 'n paar van die algemeenste bekommernisse oor inklusiewe onderwys?*
14. Do you receive extra training with regards to inclusive education? *Kry u ekstra opleiding met betrekking tot inklusiewe onderwys?*
15. Do you feel comfortable being an inclusive educator? *Voel u gemaklik om 'n inklusiewe onderwyser te wees?*
16. What kinds of problems do you face being an inclusive educator? *Watter tipe probleme staar 'n inklusiewe onderwyser in die gesig?*
17. Do you feel confident in your ability being an inclusive educator? *Het u vertroue in jou vermoë om 'n inklusiewe onderwyser te wees?*

Inclusive education in practice / Inklusiewe onderwys in die praktyk

18. Are there any differently-abled learners in your class at present? *Is daar enige anders-bekwaamde leerders in jou klas op die oomblik?*
19. How are the differently-abled learners doing in class? *Hoe vorder die anders-bekwaamde leerders in jou klas?*
20. Do the differently-abled learners use the same curriculum as the able-bodied learners in your class? *Maak die anders-bekwaamde leerders gebruik van die dieselfde kurrikulum as die "normale" leerders in u klas?*
21. What types of disorders do the differently-abled learners in your class have? *Aan watter tipe gestremdhede lei die anders-bekwaamde leerders in u klas?*
22. How do you implement inclusive education in your classroom/school? *Hoe implementeer u inklusiewe onderwys in jou klaskamer / skool?*
23. Do all the learners in your classroom receive the same amount of attention? *Ontvang al die leerders in u klas dieselfde hoeveelheid aandag?*
24. Do you need to give special attention to some of the learners? *Moet u aan sommige van die leerders spesiale aandag gee?*
25. Are those students differently-abled or able-bodied learners? *Is daardie leerders anders-bekwaamde of "normale" leerders?*
26. Is it possible that you may neglect some of the learners? *Is dit moontlik dat u 'n sommige van die leerders in u klas afskeep?*
27. Do you sometimes need to stay after school to help some of the learners? *Is dit soms nodig vir u om na skool te bly om sommige van die leerders te help?*

28. Are those learners differently-abled or able-bodied? *Is daardie leerders anders-bekwaamd of "normale" leerders?*
29. How do the rest of the class act towards the differently-abled learners? *Hoe hanteer die ander kinders in die klas die anders-bekwaamde leerders?*
30. Do you think the needs of all the learners in your classroom are being met? *Dink u daar word voldoen aan al die behoeftes van die leerders in jou klas?*
31. How long has your school been practicing inclusive education? *Hoe lank gelede is inklusiewe onderwys by u skool geïmplementeer?*

ADDENDUM F: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR DBST

**Good in theory but not in practice:
Exploring perspectives on inclusive education**

Interview Schedule for DBST members.

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Personal views and experiences / *Persoonlike sienings en ervarings*

1. What did you study?
2. Did you receive any extra training or do extra courses in order to become a special needs teacher?
3. While you were still studying, did you do any course work on inclusive education (IE)?
4. What does IE mean to you?
5. What does it involve to be a special needs teacher?
6. Is this very time consuming or can you present a lesson and expect the learners to understand and do the work?
7. So do you do this all alone or do you receive help?
8. From what I hear there are 30 to 50 learners in a mainstream class, do you think that the learners you educate would be sufficiently accommodated in a mainstream class?
9. Do you think it is unfair to either group of learners, differently-abled or able-bodied, to be educated in the same classroom?
10. Do you think that IE is a realistic or good option for South Africa?
11. The learners in your special needs class, did they follow the normal curriculum or did you make up your own lessons did you have any guidelines?
12. Do teachers at mainstream schools have assistants?
13. I am not sure how familiar you are with Education White Paper 6 and IE, but it says that special schools will be turned into resource centers, can this be only in an supplementary role?
14. So how exactly will this work? Are the learners in those special school supposed to go to mainstream or IE school or are they staying there but the school lend support to the teachers of the mainstream school?
15. In your opinion, can a learner with autism go to a mainstream school?
16. What about children with FAS?
17. Do you think children with FAS receive the support they need in mainstream schools?

18. I heard that teachers only received about two hours training on IE during their CAPS training. Do you think that is sufficient?
19. I also heard that there is a lot of red tape when it comes to getting a child evaluated and that it sometimes takes years before a child is transferred to a special school. Is this the case?
20. So do you think the timeframe of WP6 is realistic, can it be fully implemented in the 20 year timeframe?
21. Do you think that IE in SA, consider the history of SA, has a political agenda?
22. Do you think IE is a viable option for SA?
23. Can you tell me more about the district-based support team (DBST)?
24. Do you think all of this is placing more stress on teachers and making their workload even bigger?
25. Do you think the learners also have a responsibility to make IE work?
26. Is it realistic to expect a teacher to sit with a class of 50 with several different ability levels and to still work with the learners individually and check up on everyone and to ensure that the stronger learners don't get bored or held back?
27. Is there a difference between a mainstream school and a normal school?
28. If you had to answer yes or no, can inclusive education work?
29. Would you like to make any final comments?