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Abbreviations and acronyms used

AD(H)D	Attention Deficit (Hyperactivity) Disorder
APS	Association of Private Schools of South Africa
CSIE	Centre for Studies on Inclusive Education
DF	Degrees of Freedom
DSM-IV	Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (Fourth Edition)
DoE	Department of Education
DoH	Department of Health
DST	District-based Support Team
EENET	Enabling Education Network
HMC	Conference of Headmasters and Headmistresses
HOD	Head of Department
HSRC	Human Sciences Research Council
IEP	Individualised Education Programme
IQ	Intelligence Quotient
IQEA	Improving the Quality of Education for All
ISASA	Independent Schools Association of Southern Africa
ISC	Independent Schools Council
NAISA	National Alliance of Independent Schools in South Africa
NCESS	National Committee on Education Support Services
NCSNET	National Commission on Special Needs in Education and Training
RNCS	Revised National Curriculum Statement
RSA	Republic of South Africa
SBST	School/site-based Support Team
SD	Standard Deviation
SGB	School Governing Body
SENCO	Special Education Needs Co-ordinator
SMT	School Management Team
UN	United Nations
Unesco	United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation
Unisa	University of South Africa

Chapter 1: Introduction to the research

1.1   Introduction: background to the research

"Education is the great engine of personal development" said Nelson Mandela (1994:194). During his presidency from 1994 to 1999, education as a basic human right was enshrined in the Constitution of South Africa of 1996. The years since then have seen legislative, curriculum and policy initiatives designed to ensure and enhance access to education. One such initiative has been to address the barriers to learning that children and young people experience by building an inclusive education system. Through access and participation in an education system committed to providing quality education for all, South African learners should enjoy the personal development of which Mandela spoke. This is no small endeavour. South Africa's education history is that of segregation, inequality and exclusion. Not only were learners segregated and excluded on the grounds of race, but also on the grounds of (dis)ability. Transforming the education system will require that all stakeholders embrace beliefs and practices in education that support integration rather than segregation; equality rather than inequality; and inclusion rather than exclusion.

An important foundation of inclusive education in South Africa is the Constitution that guarantees human rights, and in particular, freedom from discrimination. The South African Schools Act of 1996 lays the legislative groundwork for inclusion and the *Education White Paper Six: Special Needs Education* of 2001 outlines a plan for building an inclusive education and training system. Subsequent policy documents and guidelines from the national Department of Education guide the implementation of inclusion in schools. In this, South Africa is not alone – inclusive education is at various stages of implementation throughout the world. Rooted in post World War Two human rights discourse and international disability awareness initiatives, inclusive education is widely practised, debated and researched. Although South Africa's context is unique, the international experience of inclusion can be used to inform local practice.

Evidence of inclusive practice in state and independent schools in South Africa is emerging (Dladla 2004; Price 2002; Cohen 2000:11; Gardener 2003:22). Whereas state schools clearly fall within the ambit of the vision of the *Education White Paper Six: Special Needs Education* (DoE 2001a), independent schools pursuing inclusion would be doing so apart from state mandate or resources. The director of the Independent Schools' Association of Southern Africa (ISASA) confirms that:

A number of independent schools are learning valuable lessons for the whole system by implementing the government's inclusive policy of mainstreaming learners with special educational needs (Hofmeyr 2002:30).

This statement, made to the press, does not give details about how many or which independent schools are implementing an inclusive policy, nor does it describe what the "valuable lessons" are. The independent schooling sector accounts for 3.2% of schooling provision in South Africa (Du Toit 2003a:393) and is comprised of both unregistered and registered schools, the latter including schools belonging to a number of associations. While independent schools are not obliged to admit learners who experience barriers to learning since, according to the Constitution, race is the only limit to exclusion (RSA 1996a, section 29(3)), schools that have chosen membership of ISASA would be constrained by The Diversity and Equity Policy of that association. This policy encourages, among other things, "inclusivity of learners with special educational needs, wherever feasible educationally" (ISASA 2002). This policy, together with the comment above made by the director of ISASA, suggests that ISASA schools warrant particular focus when considering the inclusion of learners who experience barriers to learning in independent schools. There is no published research that describes the extent to which learners who experience barriers to learning are being included in independent schools, nor the practices that facilitate their inclusion.

1.2   Motivation for the research

Due to the absence of published research on inclusion in the independent sector in South Africa, the first motivation for this research is that of filling a "void" (Fouché 2002a:102) in the research base of both inclusive and independent education in South Africa. However, the motivation extends beyond this. Much of the literature on inclusion comes from other countries, particularly the United States of America, the United Kingdom and Australia. South Africa has to find its own way to implement inclusion, given the country's unique past and the complexities of the current educational milieu. Thus, there is a need to discover what South African schools are actually doing to become inclusive. If independent schools, as Hofmeyr (2002:30) maintains, provide "valuable lessons" in the area of inclusion, then their practices merit research and their experiences deserve articulation for the possible benefit of all schools in South Africa.

Inclusive education in South African schools has the potential to contribute to an inclusive society – one which realises the constitutional values of respect for equality, human dignity and social justice.

If children and young adults learn in an environment characterised by the acceptance of diversity as an expected part of the human condition, they should be able to contribute to a society that does not discriminate, but rather accepts and values the dignity of each human being. Research that will contribute to the knowledge and implementation of inclusive education in South Africa in any way will thus have value both for education and for the wider South African society.

1.3   Objectives of the research

This research is primarily descriptive in its objective. Among the characteristics of descriptive research are having well-defined subjects, seeking to describe accurately some phenomenon and expressing frequencies (Fouché 2002b:109; Mouton & Marais 1990:43; McMillan & Schumacher 1993:266). The goal of this study is thus:

> To describe, through analysis of data collected from independent (ISASA) schools
> practicing inclusion, the extent to which learners who experience barriers to learning
> are included in these schools and the school-wide and classroom practices that
> facilitate inclusion.

There is also an exploratory dimension inherent in the research. Exploratory research takes place where there is a lack of basic information or where there is a new area requiring research. Inclusion is relatively new to South Africa and its expression in independent schools is unexplored. The research instrument and findings could serve as a basis for further research (Fouché 2002b:109; Mouton & Marais 1990:43).

To achieve the research goal a research question is formulated.

1.4   The research question

In the light of the primary goal to describe the extent and practice of inclusion in ISASA member schools, the research question is:

To what extent are learners who experience barriers to learning included in ISASA member schools and what practices facilitate their inclusion?

1.5   Research premise and hypotheses

The research is descriptive in its orientation and is not primarily concerned with testing relationships between variables, thus a research hypothesis is not formulated for this study. The investigation is, however, based on the premise that independent schools (ISASA members) are including learners who experience barriers to learning and are providing support through inclusive practice at school-wide and classroom level.

The descriptive results do lead to an investigation of relationships between some of the variables within the study. Statistical hypotheses have been formulated and tested where dependent relationships between variables can be investigated.

1.6   Research methodology

1.6.1   Research traditions and methods

Descriptive research can use both qualitative and quantitative methods (Fouché 2002b:109; Mouton & Marais 1990:43), the research question determining the appropriate method. This research question calls for numeric data and frequency analysis and was therefore conducted with quantitative methods. The data was gathered from a self-administered questionnaire sent to the principals of ISASA schools. The study focuses on inclusive practice at systems level, that is, on school-wide and classroom practices.

The research was undertaken within an empirical tradition, despite the limitations of this approach in educational enquiry. The diverse nature of institutional contexts means that it may not be appropriate to expect that successful inclusive practices could be applied in all settings (Ballard 1999:2). However, systems level research (as in this study) can be expected to contribute to an information base and to yield questions for further study (Hunt & Goetz 1997:24).

1.6.2   Research process

1.6.2.1 Preliminary stages

Having secured the permission of ISASA to conduct research into the extent and practice of the inclusion of learners who experience barriers to learning in their schools, a comprehensive literature

review was undertaken. The purpose of this literature review was to place this study in the context of inclusion research both in South Africa and internationally, to bring definition and clarification to concepts germane to the research question and to guide the formulation of the research instrument. A questionnaire was subsequently designed that would yield the data required to answer the research question. The questionnaire was adjusted with the suggestions of experts in education research and inclusive education and was further refined after a pilot study. The final questionnaire was administered during 2005.

1.6.2.2 Administration of the questionnaire

Questionnaires with a covering letter and letter of endorsement from ISASA were sent electronically to 300 ISASA schools (pre-schools excluded), thus using a comprehensive sampling strategy. A follow-up letter was sent by post to non-respondents at the end of June and the final responses were received by 31 August 2005. A 40% response rate was achieved which is in keeping with the response rate of other studies in the independent sector (for example, Du Toit 2003a:385 and Squelch 1997:130). The questionnaires were then prepared for data capture and analysis.

1.6.2.3 Data analysis

Before applying statistical analyses to the data, the schools were assessed by the researcher to establish the extent to which they were pursuing inclusivity. This was achieved by assigning a score to schools based on the number of learners who experience barriers to learning that schools include and the structures and practices they employ in support of such learners. One of four possible 'levels of inclusivity' was assigned to each school and was used in the statistical analysis.

Because the research is primarily descriptive, data analysis focused on the calculation and interpretation of means and one way frequencies. Some variables were cross tabulated and inferential statistics were used to establish whether a relationship exists between these variables. This allowed for further interpretation of the data. Data gained from three of the open-ended questions was described verbally, using the respondents' own words where possible.

The results of the data analysis were recorded and interpreted in answer to the research question. It was possible to describe both the extent of inclusion in ISASA schools and the practices that

schools employ to facilitate inclusion. To ensure clarity in the study, the concepts used require definition.

1.7 Clarification of concepts

1.7.1 Inclusion

The word inclusion has a broad meaning and is widely used in society. It has, however, acquired particular connotations in the context of educational discourse. Inclusion is used to describe the process by which all learners, and in particular learners who experience barriers to learning, have access to and participate in the general schooling system. This access and participation are the responsibilities of the education system which needs to adapt to ensure that diverse learning needs are met (Loreman, Deppeler, & Harvey 2005:2). This concise explanation of inclusion belies the complexity of the concept. It is used differently in different contexts, is expressed with different emphases and is implemented with different practices. This complexity is further explored in chapter two as a comprehensive understanding of inclusion in the South African context is offered.

1.7.2 Learners who experience barriers to learning

In the past, children and young people who experienced educational and other difficulties have been labelled as retarded, handicapped, as having problems or special needs. In South Africa, it is currently preferable to refer to learners who experience "barriers to learning" (DoE 2005e:5) or to those with "different learning needs" (DoE 2001a:7). Barriers to learning and different learning needs may arise from factors intrinsic to the learner or they may be extrinsic to the learner and located within the family, the school, the wider education system or the socio-economic and political context. These barriers may be temporary or permanent. It is noted, however, that categorising learners in terms of their disabilities, impairments, special needs or even barriers is regarded by many as being unnecessary and even offensive, suggestive of the discredited and outdated medical model of disability (Bailey 1998b:172; CSIE 2000:13; Skrtic 1991:155). Despite these objections, the identification of a barrier to learning may be necessary for the provision of appropriate support.

The term barriers to learning is used in this study wherever possible. It is, however, a preferred South African term and most international literature sources (and even some South African sources) commonly speak of disability and special needs. The latter terms are used in this study when

necessitated by the context of the literature reviewed or to facilitate understanding in the empirical study. It is also noted that children and youth at school are commonly referred to as learners in the South African context. Literature from other countries usually refers to students or pupils. The term learner is used in this study, except where the context of reviewed literature necessitates an alternative.

1.7.3 Support

Learners who experience barriers to learning require support to facilitate their access and participation in the general classroom. Support is usefully defined by the Centre for Studies on Inclusive Education (CSIE) as "all activities which increase the capacity of a school to respond to student diversity" (CSIE 2000:11). This very broad definition ensures that support is not conceived of as the interventions required by certain learners to enable them to fit into an unreconstructed education system. Instead, it focuses on the responsibility of the school to do whatever is required to meet a full range of learning needs and to overcome barriers to learning. A component of support would be various inclusive practices.

1.7.4 Practice

Practice is used broadly in this study to refer to what is actually done in schools, that is, the strategies adopted, models implemented, technical support provided, structures and procedures applied and actions carried out in the pursuit of including learners who experience barriers to learning. It is acknowledged that the successful implementation of inclusion requires, in addition to practice, that appropriate school culture and policies are in place (CSIE 2000:9). A focus on practice, however, is not only suited to the empirical design of the research. It concentrates on what is happening in schools as opposed to 'wishful thinking' or rhetoric about inclusion (Booth & Ainscow 1998:3,13).

1.7.5 Ordinary schools

The South African Schools Act categorises schools broadly either as "ordinary" or "for learners with special education needs" (RSA 1996b, section 12(3)). This study is concerned with ordinary schools, rather than special schools and it is noted that the term mainstream school is often used synonymously with ordinary school. The literature on inclusion, particularly from North America,

usefully distinguishes between general and special education, and allows for terminology such as general education classroom and general education teacher. The latter terms have been used in this study where appropriate. Mention may also be made of specialised schools, that is, schools offering specialised learning programmes (RSA 1996b, section 5(2)) like art, ballet and music. Ordinary, special and specialised schools are also found in the independent sector.

1.7.6   Independent schools

The Constitution of South Africa confirms the right of independent schools to exist, provided that they are registered with the relevant provincial education departments, do not exclude learners on the ground of race, and that they do not provide an education inferior to public education (RSA 1996a, section 29(3)). Estimates of the number of independent schools in South Africa vary. The Human Sciences Research Council noted 1 287 schools serving 391 249 learners in 2002 (Du Toit 2003a:386) and ISASA suggests that in 2005 there were approximately 2000 registered independent schools and a further possible 1000 – 2000 unregistered schools (ISASA 2005a). Defining the term independent schools is difficult, apart from the fact that they are schools "other than public schools" as defined by the Gauteng School Education Act 9 of 1995. Independent schools in South Africa would be those schools which to some extent are founded, owned, managed and financed by stakeholders other than the state (Kitaev 1999:43).

1.8   Demarcation of the study

The research is undertaken in the field of inclusive education. Most research in inclusion focuses either on systems level research (concentrating on classrooms, schools and personnel) or research at the level of individual learners (Hunt & Goetz 1997:24). This research is at systems level, and concentrates on schools and classrooms. In particular, it focuses on independent schools which have chosen membership of the ISASA. ISASA has membership beyond South Africa's borders and member schools in Botswana, Lesotho, Mozambique, Swaziland and Angola were encouraged to participate in the study, but the response was minimal. It was decided to focus only on primary and secondary schools, thus pre-schools and other early childhood education providers were excluded from the study.

1.9 Overview of the study

This thesis consists of six chapters:

Chapter 1 serves to introduce the research topic. The research problem has been formulated and the motivation and objectives of the research have been described. The reader has been introduced to the key concerns of the research and the research methodology has also been explained.

Chapters 2 and 3 report on the relevant literature. The concepts that are used in the research are investigated in order to bring the research in line with local and international trends. Chapter 2 deals with a comprehensive understanding of inclusion, with a particular focus on the South African context. It also provides background to the independent schools sector in South Africa, with a particular focus on the Independent Schools' Association of Southern Africa (ISASA). Chapter 3 describes the barriers to learning that learners may experience and describes the school-wide and classroom practices that ensure support for learners who experience barriers to learning in schools.

Chapter 4 explains the research design that is used in the study. The data collection instrument and the research process are described in this chapter.

Chapter 5 contains the body of the report. It presents the findings and analysis of the empirical investigation.

Chapter 6 contains a reflection on the completed research process, giving a summary of the main facts found in the literature review and the main findings of the empirical study. Conclusions are drawn and the limitations of the study are pointed out. Recommendations are made on the basis of the analysed and interpreted data.

1.10 Conclusion

Public perception of independent schools in South Africa has been that they are "white, affluent and exclusive" (Hofmeyr & Lee 2004:143). Research has shown that, at least since the year 2000, white learners do not make up the majority enrolment in independent schools, and the majority of independent schools charge average to low fees (Du Toit 2003a:388, 389; Hofmeyr & Lee 2004:143). Thus, independent schools can no longer be assumed to be white or affluent and it

remains to be seen if they can be assumed to be exclusive. If it can be shown that independent schools include learners who experience barriers to learning and provide support to these learners though various inclusive practices, the epithet exclusive would join white and affluent as no longer being valid descriptors of the entire sector.

This thesis describes research into inclusion in the independent sector, with particular focus on the schools belonging to ISASA. Through a comprehensive literature study of relevant concepts and an investigation into the extent and practice of inclusion in ISASA schools, the extent to which inclusion is being practised in independent schools is indicated. A review of literature in the following chapter seeks to place the move towards inclusive education in South Africa in historical and international context, leading to a description of how inclusion can be understood in the South African context.

Chapter 2: Inclusion and independent education

2.1 Introduction

The international experience of inclusion, driven in part by United Nations' initiatives, has given rise to a vast body of literature and to a rigorous debate about inclusion. Much as these influences have been felt in South Africa, the country's history, current milieu, legislation and policy will ultimately determine the expression of inclusive education here. In a quest to understand inclusion, all of these influences have to be considered. It is mainly in schools that inclusion will become a reality and both the public (state) and the independent school sectors are affected by the policy and legislation regarding inclusion. The independent school sector, as the focus of this study, also requires consideration. The literature is reviewed thematically and the progression of this chapter is represented diagrammatically in figure 2.1.
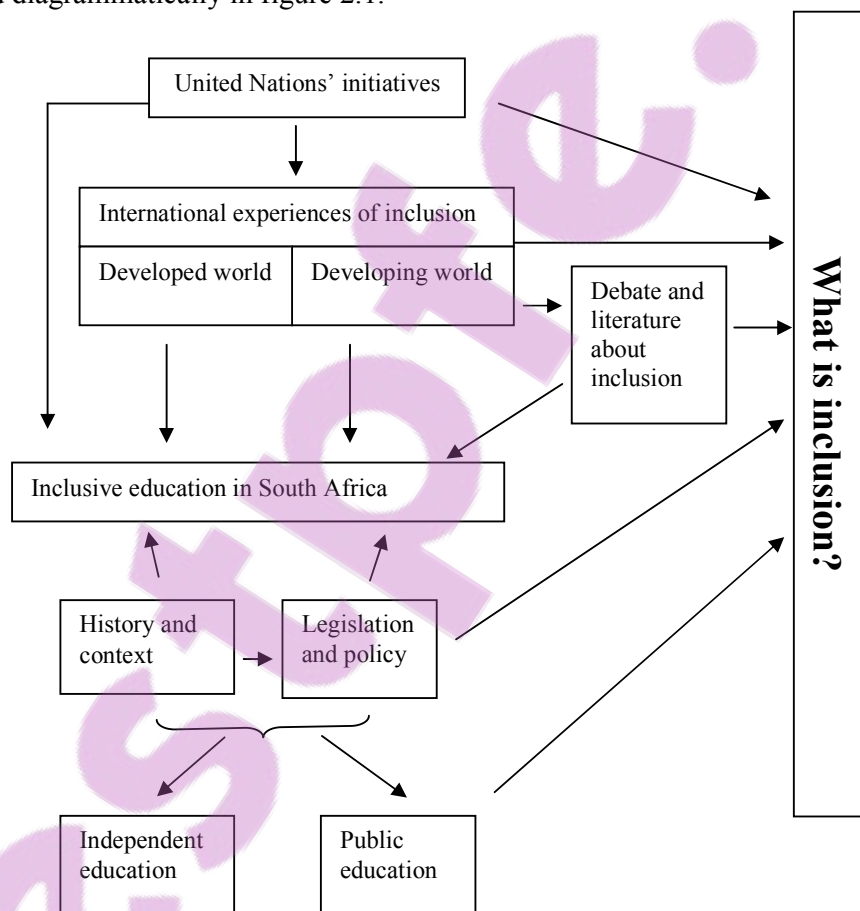
Figure 2.1   The concerns of chapter 2

2.2   Towards an understanding of inclusion

2.2.1   A historical and international perspective on inclusive education

The global trend towards inclusive education can be seen in the light of the growth of a human rights culture across the world and in the context of post World War II liberalisation and economic growth (Vislie 1995:43). The United Nations has drawn international attention to disability rights and children's rights and has also, through the United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation (Unesco), given impetus for inclusive education. Inclusion in some form or other has been practised in many countries in both the developed and the developing world.

2.2.1.1 United Nations' initiatives

The contribution of the United Nations to inclusive education is seen primarily in its focus on disability rights, children's rights and education. This has resulted not only in international awareness of these issues but also in initiatives that have seen these rights being realised.

a.   Disability rights

The United Nations has given attention to disability rights, for example by the publication of the United Nations Declaration on the Rights of Disabled Persons (United Nations 1975) and the promotion of the years 1983 to 1992 as the Decade of Disabled Persons (Dyson & Forlin 1999:30). A growing awareness of disability rights and the influence of disability advocacy has led to a critical evaluation of separate education systems for those with disabilities. The United Nations Standard Rules on the Equalisation of Opportunities for Persons with Disabilities (United Nations 1993) sets international standards for policy and action regarding people with disabilities. Rule six of the twenty-two rules relates to education and provides for equal education opportunities for people with disabilities in integrated settings. Separate special education may, according to this rule, be appropriate for some students but should be aimed at preparation for eventual inclusion.

b.   Children's rights

Children's rights have been enshrined in United Nations documents since the Charter of the United Nations in 1945 and the Universal Declaration of Human Rights in 1948. The United Nations

Declaration of the Rights of the Child (United Nations 1959) further enhanced children's right to education and subsequent publications described how these rights could be realised. More recently, the revised United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (United Nations 1989) specifies equality of opportunity in accessing the right to education and requires that this education be directed at the realisation of the full potential of every child. Article 28 specifically relates to the rights of children with disabilities to an education designed to achieve both social integration and individual development.

c.   The Salamanca Statement

The Salamanca Statement and Framework for Action on Special Needs Education was adopted by the World Conference on Special Needs Education: Access and Quality in Salamanca, Spain in 1994. This comprehensive document (referred to as the Salamanca Statement) proclaims beliefs about the fundamental right to education of every child, that all children are unique and because of this, education should be designed to take into account diverse characteristics and needs. Regular schools should be accessible to children with "special educational needs" (Unesco 1994:viii) and a child centred approach to learning should ensure that these learners are accommodated. Inclusive regular schools are seen to be a means of combating discrimination and achieving education for all in a cost effective way. The Salamanca Statement calls on governments to pursue inclusivity as education policy; the international community to endorse inclusive schooling and Unesco to support special needs education in education forums, teacher education, academic research and funding programmes.

The Framework for Action in The Salamanca Statement describes the fundamental principle of inclusive schools, which is that all children should learn together while their individual differences and learning needs are accommodated and appropriate support is provided. The role of special schools in providing resources and training is affirmed, with the understanding, however, that developing countries should promote inclusivity in schools rather than establish additional special schools (Unesco 1994:11-12). The guidelines for action put forward by The Salamanca Statement addresses, among other issues, policy and organisation, school factors, training and resources. Many of the principles and guidelines of The Salamanca Statement have been incorporated into South Africa's *Education White Paper Six: Special Needs Education* (DoE 2001a). They have also been adopted by countries in the developed and developing world in their quest for effective education for all.

d.   How United Nations' initiatives contribute to an understanding of inclusion

These United Nations' initiatives contribute some of the conceptual and philosophical concerns that could be regarded as the values and beliefs on which inclusive education rests. These include the belief that all children have a right to be educated, to be valued and respected and treated with human dignity, to be free from discrimination and, significantly, to be educated together. As they learn together, all children and young people are expected to learn and succeed and are assumed to have the ability to contribute to one another's learning and can expect schools to facilitate this (Ainscow 1995:149). Thus, inclusion is based on everyone's worth and value as a human being and the contribution that each person can make to his or her community. As children and young people are valued, their differences are acknowledged and even celebrated as being part of the human condition. Learners who experience any barriers to learning are not regarded as being qualitatively different from any other learners and their right to access is facilitated by the provision of appropriate support (Mamlin 1999:45).

These values and beliefs may form the foundation on which inclusive education rests but for a full understanding of inclusion, consideration must be given to the ways in which these values or beliefs are realised in practice in various contexts.

2.2.1.2 International experiences

When considering the international experience of inclusion, it must be acknowledged that it is probably unhelpful to make comparisons because significant differences of practice are evident both between countries (Forlin 1997:25) and within countries (Ballard 1999:1; Booth 1996:87; Booth & Ainscow 1998:4; Forlin 1997:22). Local contexts also influence how inclusion is practised and so it would be erroneous to generalise about practice across the various countries (Booth & Ainscow 1998:4). Despite this, reviewing how inclusion is practised in other countries will add to an understanding of inclusion.

a.   The developed world

Although now an international trend, inclusion had its origins in the developed world where regular and special education were relatively established. Nordic countries moved towards integration in the 1960s, followed by the United States of America (USA) and the United Kingdom (UK) in the 1970s (Dyson & Forlin 1999:25). The term inclusion was first used in Canada in 1988 to replace

the term integration and to describe the process of placing children with disabilities in mainstream schools (Thomas & Vaughn 2004:89). To illustrate inclusion in the developed world, a brief survey of trends in inclusive education in the USA, England and Australia is provided. These countries are of particular interest because much of the literature available in South Africa on inclusion and referred to in this study comes from these countries.

i.   The United States of America (USA)

As the USA dismantled racially segregated education through a 1954 Supreme Court ruling, the movement for education for children with disabilities was instigated (Petch-Hogan & Haggard 1999:128). The 1960s saw the criticism of segregated special education on the grounds of its racial bias, instructional ineffectiveness and possible social and psychological damage it caused (Skrtic 1991:149). In 1975 the Education for All Handicapped Children Act gave the right to free public education to children with disabilities in the least restrictive environment. Federal funds were made available to assist with the costs of educating those who were identified as having disabilities. The 'Regular Education Initiative' emerged in the 1980s, with a call for a merge between general education and special education services.

In 1990, the 1975 Act was amended with the passing of the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) which included the right of children with disabilities to association with non-disabled peers. The years after the passing of the IDEA has seen the growth of the 'Full Inclusionist Movement' that advocates the placement of all students with disabilities in the general classroom all day. Currently debate continues in the USA between those who believe that some separate services are necessary for some learners and those who advocate full inclusion. Inclusive practices continue to vary within this country.

ii.   England

A survey of inclusion in England can begin with The Warnock Report of 1978 which raised the issue of the placement of children with disabilities in ordinary schools (but still stating that some children would always need to be taught in special schools) (Vaughan 2002:2). Warnock suggested that one in six learners would have special needs and the result of this was an increase in the numbers of learners who were thus categorised. In 1981 the Education Act was passed which provided for mainstream education for learners who had a statement of special needs provided that

it was appropriate for the learner, for others in the school and was an efficient use of resources (Booth, Ainscow & Dyson 1998:200-201). The 1980s then saw the trend of integration or mainstreaming in different forms described by the Warnock Report. As a result of these developments in England, there has been a reduction in the number of learners who attend separate special schools and a parallel increase in the numbers of learners who have sensory or physical disabilities attending mainstream schools. The majority of learners who experience emotional and behavioural difficulties or profound learning difficulties attend separate special schools (Farrell 2001:7). In 2001 The Special Educational Needs and Disability Act (SENDA) was passed. This further encouraged mainstream schools to accommodate children with disabilities, provided that this was compatible with the wishes of parents and that the education of other children would not be compromised (Vaughan 2002:10).

iii.   Australia

Education in Australia is a matter to be legislated by the individual states. It is thus very difficult to generalise about inclusive practices in Australia as a whole. In 1985 a review of education practices (the Gow Report) suggested that there was a trend towards educating children with disabilities in mainstream schools, but that this varied both within and across the different states. The 1990s then saw a significant shift towards the implementation of inclusive education with an increase in the percentage of children with disabilities being taught in mainstream schools (Forlin 1997:22-23). Many special schools in Australia have closed and those children still served in special schools are those who have profound disabilities and who need intensive levels of support. It seems that all states have embraced the continuum of services model with a number of service options available, ranging from separate special schools to support units within schools to inclusion in regular classrooms with support (Forlin 2001:122).

Of particular relevance to this study is the report released in 2002 of a survey of the Western Australian independent school sector's response to learners who experience barriers to learning. This survey revealed that independent schools are developing inclusive policies and practices as a response to the increasing enrolments of learners who experience various learning and other special needs. In particular, new staff positions had been created, buildings had been modified and efforts have been made to prepare staff and children for inclusion (Jenkins 2002: 33).

b.   Developing countries

Although inclusion seems to be well established and well researched in the developed world, Naicker (2003:1) cautions that inclusion in the Western world should not be regarded as problem free.   In addition to the prevailing conservatism that perpetuates race, gender and ability discrimination, he notes that many children in the West who find themselves in special education classes are there because of issues of poverty, language and inappropriate education practice. Kisanji (1998:62-70) also questions the uncritical adoption of Western educational practices by other countries that fail to consider the historical and cultural contexts where these practices originated.   He maintains that customary practices and attitudes of people in the non-Western world are highly congruent with inclusive education.   In particular, the way all members of a community are valued and are expected to contribute to the community and the customary way in which schooling focuses on integration and the local context are central to an inclusive system.   This author therefore advocates integrating good practices that have emerged from the Western world with customary and indigenous practices to build inclusive education in the non-Western world.

Developing countries (like Uganda and Zambia) are making progress towards inclusion through enacting legislation (Arbeiter & Hartley 2002:63; EENET 2003:55).   However, the practical implementation of inclusive education is often hampered by insufficient teacher training, inadequate human and material resources, large class sizes and negative attitudes (Arbeiter & Hartley 2002; Silupya 2003:61; Zimba 1992:2).

c.   How international perspectives contribute to an understanding of inclusion

The experiences of other countries lead to a number of conclusions that may be relevant to inclusion in South Africa and a South African understanding of inclusion in particular.   The first is that implementing inclusion is a process.   The experience and implementation of inclusion has obviously evolved over many years.   Second, countries have had to change their educational policies and practices as legislation has sought to entrench inclusion.   In fact, legislation and policy can be seen as an important lever (Forlin 2004:9) to bring about change toward more inclusive education.   Third, inclusion is not a fixed concept.   The different experiences of various countries show that while all would be pursuing inclusion, the practical outworking of inclusion varies.   A significant area of debate seems to focus on the place and role of separate schools or services in an inclusive education system.

An international perspective is useful for placing South Africa's move to inclusive education in context. Although it has been noted that generalisations are unhelpful and contexts differ, the worldwide trend is away from segregated settings for learners who experience barriers to learning, in so far as this is possible. As a relative newcomer to inclusion, South Africa can learn much from the experiences of other countries. There should be caution, however, about the uncritical adoption of practices that have been implemented in other contexts. The South African context is unique and, although aspects of policy and implementation may echo that of United Nations' initiatives and international practices, inclusion in South Africa will also be unique. It also should not be assumed that inclusion is uncritically accepted in Western countries. Both the theoretical assumptions and the practical outworkings of inclusion are matters of significant debate in the literature.

2.2.2 The debate about inclusion

Debate on inclusion abounds in the literature. Some authors are opposed to inclusion because they wish to see the continuation of separate special education services. Borrowing from Brantlinger (1997:430), the term traditionalist is useful to describe these authors because many of them would not regard themselves as anti-inclusion, rather, that inclusion should be only one option available to families. Some of the traditionalists' concerns with inclusion are described below, with particular reference to studies that support their views. Brief mention is then made of those who oppose inclusion because they see it as an assimilationist quest that still falls short of the equality rights of people with disabilities. These authors are critical of the inclusion programme, not because they want separate services to continue, but because inclusion may focus on access and support but in an unreconstructed system. Attention is then given to the benefits of inclusion described by those who promote inclusion and to the studies that undergird their position. Comment is offered on these diverse perspectives with suggestions as to how the debate on inclusion can inform an understanding of inclusion.

2.2.2.1 Views of those opposed to inclusion

a.   The views of traditionalists

Traditionalists, or those who advocate the continuation of separate special services for learners who experience barriers to learning, cite the lack of empirical support for the efficacy of inclusion; the

fact that inclusion does not allow for parental choice; and a general education system that is unprepared and ill-equipped to serve the needs of all learners as reasons to be critical of inclusion.

i.   Inclusion lacks empirical support

In their survey of published research, Kavale and Forness (2000:288) contend that the efficacy of inclusion lacks empirical evidence. They feel that much of the argument in favour of inclusion operates within a post-modern framework that eschews empiricism in favour of a more subjective knowing. Similarly, Lingard (1996:40, 41) is concerned that the traditional approach to special needs education, albeit ineffective in some cases, is being abandoned in favour of an approach that is not properly described or substantiated. He criticises Ainscow (1995), for example, for suggesting that children will flourish in integrated settings provided that teachers change the way they teach, without actually providing examples of how these changes could or have been effected.

These researchers would thus argue that the evidence does not show that separate special education should be abandoned in favour of inclusion. Additional objections to inclusion are voiced by those concerned about parental choice.

ii.   Inclusion represents a lack of parental choice

Full inclusion expects that all learners be placed in the general education classroom. Opponents of this idea suggest that it leaves no room for "individual judgements" (Shanker 1994: 40) based on what is best for the child with disabilities and the other children in the classroom in the light of the nature and severity of the disability.   Fuchs and Fuchs (1998:313) criticise those who call for full inclusion for their presumption in speaking for all learners and their parents. They maintain that parents need options and question whether the regular classroom is really able to accommodate everyone.

Authors voicing these concerns are not necessarily opposed to inclusion, but opposed to it as mandated policy where parents have no choice. Parents of children who experience barriers to learning may be unconvinced that their children would receive the support they need in mainstream schools. The fact that many mainstream schools may be unprepared or ill-equipped to provide the necessary support is a concern often voiced.

iii.   An unprepared and unsupportive general education system

Various authors have examined the general education system and its provision for learners who experience barriers to learning and have found the system lacking. As they have considered human resources and the support and programmes provided for these learners, they have found much to criticise about inclusive education. Their concerns include:

- Inflexible school structures that are incompatible with inclusive practice (Fuchs & Fuchs 1994:302; 1998:310; Katsiyannis, Conderman & Franks 1995:281; Kavale & Forness 2000:287);

- Inadequate training and negative attitudes of teachers (Kavale & Forness 2000:287; Lloyd, Wilton & Townsend 2000:51; Shanker 1994:39);

- Lack of adequate support for those who experience barriers to learning (Bailey 1998a:47; Corbett 2001:55, 58; Kavale & Forness 2000:285; Lingard 1996:44; Lloyd et al. 2000:52; Shanker 1994:39; Zigmond & Baker 1995: 245 – 250);

- Inadequate academic progress by those who experience barriers to learning (Kavale & Forness 2000:286; Manset & Semmel 1997:178);

- Negative social experiences for those who experience barriers to learning (Lloyd et al. 2000:52; Kavale & Forness 2000:284);

- Ineffective inclusive practice (Fuchs & Fuchs 1998:310; Kavale & Forness 2000:287), including lack of differentiated learning for those who experience barriers to learning (Gerber 1996:166; Lingard 1996:41).

It is evident that there is a large body of literature based on research that is equivocal, if not critical of inclusive education. The concerns and criticisms raised by traditionalists need to be given due consideration, but in the light of a similarly large body of literature that promotes inclusion. There are those, however, who believe fully in inclusion but are critical of the inclusive practice that they observe.

b.   Other critics of inclusion

There are those who criticise inclusion as it is currently conceived because of a perceived focus on issues of access and participation and not the radical restructuring of the education system. Slee (1996:111,113), for example, notes that inclusion and integration remain in the domain of the experts in the field of special needs and that there is insufficient critique of the regular education

system and special education practices. He is concerned that inclusion is simply the re-articulation of special education. In this view, while the discourse on inclusion is about support, accommodation and integration for some learners who are categorised as having special needs (or equivalent) rather than diversity in the mainstream (Booth & Ainscow 1998:238), it falls short of the ideal.

Inclusion is thus called into question by those traditionalists who see value in separate education services for learners who experience barriers to learning and also by those authors who feel that it does not represent a radical enough change of the education system. South Africa, coming lately to inclusion, could well benefit from considering these critiques and so create a system that avoids the shortcomings of other education systems. In defence of inclusion, however, is research that validates the quest for inclusive education.

2.2.2.2 Views of those who are in favour of inclusion

Those who support inclusion find fault with separate special education for various reasons and see a number of benefits to inclusive education.

a.   Criticism of separate services

Identifying and withdrawing certain learners who are deemed to have special needs for separate special education is problematic for a number of reasons, some conceptual and some practical. Those concerned with human rights and equality would question whether a separate special education system is congruent with the aim of democratic education (Brantlinger 1997:425). Importantly, separating some learners for separate education locates the problem of poor performance in the learner rather than in the quality of the instructional programme. It thus exempts the teacher and the school from critically examining the ways in which schools themselves contribute to school failure.

Those traditionalists who advocate separate special services and who question the empirical foundations of inclusion are met with the rebuttals of those authors who are proponents of inclusion. King-Sears (1997:1), for example, mentions Sobsey and Dreimanis (1993) who claim that separate services did not emerge as a result of empirical investigation. Thus requiring empirical evidence for inclusion before dismantling separate services reflects inconsistency. In addition, Brantlinger

(1997:433) suggests that those like Fuchs and Fuchs (1995:298) and, more recently, Kavale and Forness (2000:288) who would like an empirically substantiated blueprint before implementing inclusion, rest their arguments on the faulty assumptions that disability is an agreed upon and innate condition requiring unique instruction in a separate setting. Bratlinger (1997:440) further maintains that traditionalists seem to assume that special education is an integral part of education rather than an "evolved practice".

Practically, separating learners can have negative consequences and be instructionally ineffective. Wang, Reynolds and Walberg (1988:248−250) notice the disruption and lack of continuity in instruction that occurs when learners are segregated. Brantlinger (1997:425) finds that there is no evidence of the efficacy of pull-out services, a fact that traditionalists like Fuchs and Fuchs (1995:25; 1998:315) admit. Separate services have also been criticised by Walther-Thomas and Brownell (2001:176) for their lack of meaningful context and fragmented and poorly conceived instruction resulting in learners' needs not being effectively met. Lipsky and Gartner (1996:766, 767) say that special education limits the expectations of the children it serves because by labelling them as disabled, "their capacity is denied".

Separate special education services rest on the assumption that some children learn differently and require a different pedagogy. Those who advocate inclusion maintain that effective learning strategies are essentially the same for all learners whether they have special needs or not (Bradley, King-Sears & Tessier-Switlick 1997:52; Christensen 1996:68; Thomas 1995:108). This argument reinforces placement in general education classes for all learners and precludes general education teachers from saying that they do not have the skills necessary to teach those who experience barriers to learning.

Inclusion can be justified not only in terms of the shortcomings of separate special education, but also in terms of its beneficial effects.

b.   The benefits of inclusive education

Inclusive education is seen as having benefits to all learners, both those who experience barriers to learning and those who do not. Teachers and other professionals have also been found to benefit, as do parents and the wider community.

i.   Learners who do not experience barriers to learning

Learners who do not experience barriers to learning and who learn in inclusive classrooms may benefit from the development of skills and personal attributes. Noteworthy are the appreciation of diversity and increased tolerance for those who are different, the formation of social relationships with those with disabilities and the development of qualities such as compassion and improved self-concept (Lipsky & Gartner 1996:787; Morgan & Demchak 1998:26).

Although critics of inclusion have maintained that inclusion lacks empirical support, there have been studies that show that learners do not suffer loss of instructional time nor is their academic performance negatively affected by having learners who experience barriers to learning in the general classroom (Bradley et al. 1997:14; Giangreco 1997:203; King-Sears 1997:3). In fact, they may benefit from the varied learning strategies that may be utilised in a diverse classroom. Learners may develop self-esteem by being involved in a peer-tutoring programme and having the opportunity to teach others the skills and activities they have mastered (Morgan & Demchak 1998:26).

These benefits accruing to learners who do not experience barriers to learning are desirable, but because inclusion has come to be associated with learners who do experience barriers to learning, it would be most important to establish that these learners would benefit from being educated in an inclusive setting.

ii.   Learners who experience barriers to learning

Being taught in an inclusive classroom rather than in segregated special classrooms may have many benefits for those who experience barriers to learning. These benefits can be attributed to having peer role models (Morgan & Demchak 1998:26); experiencing opportunities for developing life skills throughout the school day (Schnorr, Black & Davern 2000:12); taking part in a diverse world (Petch-Hogan & Haggard 1999:129); having expectations raised (Giangreco 1997:203) and exposure to a broad curriculum (Morra, in Lipsky & Gartner 1996:782; Giangreco 1997:203).

In terms of academic performance, Baker, Wang and Walberg (1994:13) found that special needs students who are educated in regular classrooms do better academically than comparable students in non-inclusive settings. This is borne out by Peterson (in Bradley et al. 1997:13) who found that

students with disabilities who were placed in mixed ability classrooms showed greater academic improvement, greater class participation and fewer discipline problems than those in homogeneous ability groups. Specifically, gains have been shown in the acquisition of skills and meeting learning objectives (Morgan & Demchak 1998:26).

Gains in social skills of learners who experience barriers to learning in inclusive settings are noted by numerous authors. In particular, these learners have the opportunities to become involved in meaningful social relationships with their non-disabled peers (Katsiyannis et al. 1995:281; Lipsky & Gartner 1996:785; Morgan & Demchak 1998:26). Appropriate behaviour and language can be developed in inclusive settings (Morra, in Lipsky and Gartner 1996:782) and independence is encouraged (Petch-Hogan & Haggard 1999:129). Significantly, self-esteem is enhanced when these learners are taught in inclusive classrooms (Burello & Wright, in Lipsky & Gartner 1996:785). There is also evidence that learners who experience barriers to learning and who are educated in the mainstream rather than in self-contained settings find more employment opportunities after school (Bradley et al. 1997:12; Giangreco 1997:203).

Thus, in contrast to the views of traditionalists, other authors have shown that learners are not disadvantaged, but actually benefit from being taught in inclusive classrooms. Teachers also appear to benefit from teaching in inclusive settings.

iii.   Teachers

Teachers who support inclusion have noted professional benefits to themselves. Lipsky and Gartner (1996:779) report on the 1995 National Study in the USA where it was found that teachers who were involved in inclusive programmes were positive about professional outcomes like the development of new teaching strategies and improved sense of collegiality. Hunt and Goetz (1997:14) report on studies conducted by Giangreco et al. (1993) and Bogdan and Biklen (1992) into teachers' attitudes and experiences of inclusion. Teachers perceived benefits of inclusion that included an awareness of the importance of the teacher as a positive role model, a sense of pride at being receptive to change and a growth of confidence in their teaching ability. The teachers reflected positively on their interactions with students with disabilities, including their changed perceptions of the placement of the students in their classrooms and their increased knowledge of ways of teaching them. Similarly, Giangreco (1997:203) notes increased teacher reflection and willingness to learn; pride in openness to change and recognition of the importance of a welcoming

attitude and the need to model acceptance as some of the impact that inclusive education has had on teachers.

The benefits of inclusion may be felt beyond the classroom as inclusion positively impacts families and communities.

iv.   Parents and communities

When inclusive schools have established partnerships with parents, the impact on parents has been to involve them as team-members in the planning of education programmes for their children. As a result, they have enjoyed decision-making; having the opportunity to express their opinions and empowerment in their relationship with professionals (Giangreco 1997:204). Other benefits to families include the fact that children in the same family can go to the same school, which is more economical and eliminates the need to send some children away from home to special schools. The isolation of families who have children who experience barriers to learning can be eliminated and these families can enjoy support and relationships with other families.

Inclusive education is a more cost effective way of educating children. Communities can thus benefit from the economies associated with inclusive, rather than separate education (Unisa 2003:6,7) and community support is increased when schools serve all the children in that community (Unesco 1994:13). An important benefit to the community is the development of inclusive and welcoming attitudes that should be characteristic of a diverse society. If children learn more than just tolerance at school, but learn to value the contribution and participation of all people, inclusive schools will contribute to the development of inclusive societies.

It is evident that there is significant debate about inclusive education. The challenge is not only to understand why such contradictory findings have been made, but to use the debate to clarify what inclusion is or should be.

2.2.2.3 The debate on inclusion and its contribution to understanding inclusion

Attempts to reconcile opposing views of inclusion have been made by authors like Bailey (1998a:46) who suggests that some of the controversy may be avoided if special education is conceived of as a service rather than a place. He promotes the concept of supported inclusion

which means placement in the neighbourhood school in the regular class with whatever support services the child needs to "have both equity of treatment and equity of outcomes". Calling for support in inclusive classrooms is not unique, but this author does bring a useful emphasis when he urges the debate about inclusion to move from issues of placement to issues of support. Attempts have also been made to explain the contradictory findings of inclusion research. Kavale and Forness (2000:285), for example, mention a study done by Soodak et al. (1998) who found that the discrepancies found in teacher attitudes to inclusion may be based on the attributes of the teachers and school conditions. Less experienced teachers and those who were not used to differentiating instruction were less positive about inclusion. The type of disability was also seen to be a major determinant of teachers' attitude, physical disability engendering more favourable response than academic or emotional and behavioural difficulty.

In instances where inclusion has been criticised, it has been suggested that poor quality or partial implementation has occurred (Giangreco, in Florian 1998:21). Zollers, Ramanathan and Yu (1999:158) maintain that in instances where inclusion has been showed to be ineffective, there has been a lack of administrative support or a lack of resources or inadequate training of general education teachers or insufficient classroom support and teacher collaboration. The debate about inclusion is highly relevant to the quest for an understanding of inclusion particularly as it raises issues of what actually counts as inclusion (Dyson & Millward 1999:153). It seems that much of the debate about inclusion is inherently concerned with full inclusion as mandated policy. Ultimately, full inclusion is a still theoretical construct, as most countries still seem to have at least some separate special education services. Whether these separate services have a moral and educational right to exist and whether parents should have the right to allow their children access to these services remain a matter of debate beyond the scope of this study.

The strong criticisms of inclusion point to the need for an understanding of how schools have to change if they are to provide relevant support to diverse learners and their teachers. In particular, concerns about the attitudes of teachers and learners and their willingness to embrace diverse learners need to be addressed. The traditionalists (who have been shown to question aspects of inclusion) help to clarify how inclusion should be understood. They raise the importance of school restructuring and change as important aspects of inclusion, and the fact that effective individual support is pivotal in an inclusive school. Their criticism of teachers' practice and attitudes points to the need for adequate training for inclusion to be successful. They also warn against unplanned and unmethodical interventions that do not address the unique learning needs of some learners. Thus,

rather than using the criticisms of the traditionalists as justification for shunning inclusion, these criticisms can be harnessed to inform better inclusive practice.

Those who advocate inclusion emphasise the value of learners being educated with their peers in heterogeneous general classrooms, in their neighbourhood schools and not in separate or self-contained classrooms. They also indicate that an understanding of inclusion should incorporate aspects such as co-operative learning, collegial relationships among staff and parents, valuing diversity and creating inclusive societies.

These aspects of inclusion can be deduced from the research and debate on inclusion. Other authors, however, make explicit their understanding of inclusion, often by highlighting practices that they believe are not inclusion.

2.2.3   Inclusion according to authors in the field of inclusion

The development of inclusion in education has given rise to a vast body of literature on the subject. Many authors have, over the years, offered their definitions or understandings of inclusion. There is often emphasis on what inclusion is not (i.e. it is not mainstreaming, integration or dumping) and yet there is no absolute consensus about what inclusion is. Some authors advocate full inclusion and there are those who advocate a continuum of services. What emerges from the literature is that inclusion has many components and is a very broad concept.

2.2.3.1 Inclusion is not mainstreaming

Many authors are keen to distinguish inclusion from mainstreaming and yet there is not always consensus on a definition of mainstreaming. Davern, Sapon-Shevin, D'Aquanni, Fisher, Larson, Black and Minondo (1997:32) say that mainstreaming is when those with mild disabilities are included in the general classroom depending on the level of support available while those with severe disabilities remain in special classrooms. The *South African Education White Paper Six: Special Needs Education* (DoE 2001a:17) distinguishes between mainstreaming (or integration) and inclusion by saying that mainstreaming is about helping learners to adapt to the existing system, the focus being on the changes that the learner needs to make in order to fit in to what is seen as the normal classroom. Murphy (1996:472) says that mainstreaming selects learners to integrate into the classroom, depending on the needs of the learners and what is demanded in the regular classroom.

It is noted, however, that some authors, like Garvar-Pinhas and Schmelkin (1989) use the term mainstreaming in the context that other authors use the term inclusion.

Inclusion, in contrast to mainstreaming, emphasises the school's responsibility to change and adapt to meet the needs of diverse learners. The needs of learners determine the support that the inclusive school provides; the level of support available does not determine which learners can be accommodated. Authors who promote inclusion are therefore keen to make clear that on both a philosophical and practical level, inclusion is not the same as mainstreaming. They are also seen to distance inclusion from integration.

2.2.3.2 Inclusion is not integration

Integration, sometimes known as assimilation, is premised on a normalising principle and looks for ways to support learners who experience barriers to learning so that they can 'fit' in what is assumed to be normal society. Abled people determine what is normal in a school and what the curriculum should comprise and then provide support to help disabled people meet these expectations. Adaptations are made for individual learners or groups of learners, without fundamentally altering the curriculum offered to all children (Sebba & Ainscow 1996:9). Like mainstreaming, the focus is on the learner and the so-called problems of the learner.

As a practice, integration is sometimes used to refer to learners who experience barriers to learning having time with their non-disabled peers in certain activities (like physical education and excursions) but also spending time in resource rooms or special education classrooms (Murphy 1996:472). It is noted, however, that the term integration is sometimes used synonymously with mainstreaming and even with inclusion (Hall 1997:118; Hornby, Atkinson & Howard 1997:68).

Inclusion, in contrast to integration, sees that learners experience barriers to learning that arise from numerous sources, not least of which is the education system itself. It is thus committed to addressing and, if possible eliminating the barriers that learners experience. As a result, inclusive schools evaluate physical access, teaching and assessment strategies, leadership styles, curriculum and materials and change whatever is necessary to decrease exclusion and increase participation. Inclusion is more than access with support; it involves the restructuring of schools and the deconstructing of accepted notions of disability.

2.2.3.3 Inclusion is not transfer or dumping

If learners are transferred from special education to mainstream education and special education practices (like labelling, categorising and segregating) are transferred with them, this is not inclusion (Barton 1998:84). Nor is inclusion a merge between special and general education (Ballard 1999:1). It is not about merely providing access into mainstream schools for learners who have previously been excluded, nor is inclusion about closing down an unacceptable system of separate provision and dumping those learners in an unchanged mainstream system (Barton 1998:84). Inclusion is about the deconstruction and radical re-conception of education towards ways of ensuring the participation of all learners. It is also about the provision of human and material support that enables all learners to succeed and to fulfil their potential.

By setting inclusion apart from mainstreaming, integration and transfer, these authors emphasise the need for schools to restructure themselves so that the needs of diverse learners can be met. What remains at issue, however, is what counts as inclusion, that is, how much or how little inclusion is necessary for a school or education system to earn the title inclusive.

2.2.3.4 What counts as inclusion

Some writers are adamant that nothing short of full inclusion deserves to be called inclusion. Others would not be so prescriptive and would see inclusion as one of a number of options, especially for learners with severe physical, emotional or intellectual impairments.

a.   Full inclusion

Those who advocate full inclusion are of the opinion that inclusion means that all learners, irrespective of the barriers to learning that they face are educated in the general classroom with their chronological peers all day. Participation, making friends and developing understanding should accompany the presence of learners who experience barriers to learning (Hall 1997:130). In an inclusive school, there are no self-contained classrooms, learners are not withdrawn from classes for support and those who need additional support receive this from special education teachers working collaboratively with general education teachers in the general education classroom. Teaching methods emphasise co-operative learning and peer support structures. A full inclusion school has the same proportion of learners who experience barriers to learning as the community it serves and it would embrace a "zero rejection" (Sailor 1991:9) policy with regard to admission.

If full inclusion defines inclusion, then few schools and education systems in the world could be regarded as inclusive. Perhaps full inclusion is more useful as a vision or a goal, but with the understanding that practical realities may mean that inclusion will not be full inclusion in the foreseeable future and that inclusion may need to be one of a number of options.

b.   Continuum of services

Western Australia and some states in the USA offer a range of services with various placement options ranging from inclusion in regular schools to placement in special education facilities. The best interests of the child determine the appropriate educational programme (Forlin 1997:25; Katsiyannis et al. 1995:280). In such a continuum of services model, full inclusion becomes one of a number of possible ways in which learners who experience barriers to learning can be accommodated (Aiello & Bullock 1999:99). Separate settings or classrooms would be acceptable in certain instances with the focus on individual need or even parental choice (Fuchs & Fuchs 1998:312; Lunt & Norwich 1999:44, 45).

Full inclusionists would say that a continuum of services dilutes true inclusion in that it does not abolish a separate education system for some learners. The extent to which a continuum of services counts as inclusion should possibly be evaluated in the light of support rather than placement. Many authors (for example, Bailey 1998a:46; King-Sears 1997:2) contend that inclusion is not about place, but about the quality of educational provision that leads to success. The continuum may also be evaluated in the light of the way in which it views learners, i.e. whether it uses a deficit model to explain why some learners do not succeed at school and whether it classifies learners in ways that lead to discrimination and devaluation. It is of concern that Fuchs and Fuchs express the continuum as a hierarchy and say that the effectiveness of special education should be measured as learners move "… up the continuum into regular classrooms" (Fuchs & Fuchs 1998:315). These authors even represent their continuum not merely as a variety of options, but as an inverted triangle with the regular classroom at the top. Little attention is given to the processes whereby learners may find themselves categorised and then placed down the continuum and the consequent devaluation of learners who find themselves placed anywhere other than at the top of the continuum in the regular classroom.

It may therefore be more useful to conceive of inclusion as a process and a goal rather than merely a place. It is evident, however, that inclusion is a multi-faceted and complex concept about which there is no absolute consensus. Having considered numerous perspectives, it is now possible to articulate an understanding of inclusion.

2.2.4   What is inclusion?

The foundations for a comprehensive understanding of inclusion have been laid by considering insights derived from United Nations initiatives, international experiences, research and debate in the field of inclusion and the general body of literature on the topic. Different authors emphasise different aspects when defining inclusion and it is clear that inclusion means different things to different people (Dyson & Millward 1999:152; Ferguson & Ferguson 1998:302; King-Sears 1997:2; Loreman et al. 2005:2; Swart, Engelbrecht, Eloff & Pettipher 2002:176).

Some authors emphasise access, belonging and participation in the general classroom for all learners with an underlying culture that values diversity. They say that inclusion is:

- Increasing participation and reducing exclusion from curricula, culture and communities (Ainscow 1999:9; Ballard 1999:2; Booth 1995:102; Burden 2000:30; CSIE 2000:12; Davern et al. 1997:32; Hall 1997:130);
- Learners who experience barriers to learning attending their neighbourhood schools and being taught in the general education classroom (CSIE 2000:12; Giangreco 1997:194; Hall 1997:130; Idol 1997:384; Morgan & Demchak 1998:26; Murphy 1996:469; Sailor 1991:10);
- Valuing diversity and creating heterogeneous classrooms (Ballard 1999:169; Burden 2000:30; Corbett 2001:55; CSIE 2000:12; Davern et al. 1997:32; Loreman et al. 2005:2);
- Determined by a school culture or ethos (Hall 2002:33; Zollers et al. 1999:157);
- Premised on the expectation that all children can learn (Kluth, Biklen & Straut 2003:11);
- Premised on the understanding that learners can contribute to one another's learning (Ainscow 1995:149; Davern et al. 1997:35).

Other authors focus on the organisational implications of inclusion with an emphasis on school restructuring and improvement and the role of policy and legislation. They say that inclusion is:

- Improving schools (CSIE 2000:12; Ainscow 1999:12);
- A process (Ainscow 1995:153; Barton 1998:84; Burden 2000:30; Dyson & Millward 2000:135; Gameros 1995:15; Parrilla 1999:94);
- Changing and restructuring schools (Ainscow 1999:14; Ballard 1999:169; Davern et al. 1997:31; Dyson & Millward 2000:135; Ware 1995:127);
- Initiated and entrenched by legislation and policy (Burden 2000:36; Forlin 2004:9; Hall 2002:32).

There are those who emphasise support and define inclusion in terms of the ways in which support is facilitated various levels. They say that inclusion is:

- Dependent on support (Davern et al. 1997:31; Hall & Engelbrecht 1999:231; Hay 2003:135);
- Dependent on training in requisite knowledge, skills and attitudes (Bothma, Gravett & Swart 2000:204; Hall & Engelbrecht 1999:231);
- About diverse learners requiring diverse and even individualised learning strategies (Ferguson & Ferguson 1998:307; Giangreco 1997:194; Rief & Heimburge 1996:1);
- Dependent on teachers who can modify their plans and activities (Ainscow 1995:149; O'Shea 1999:179);
- Characterised by co-operative learning strategies (Sailor 1991:10; Hornby et al. 1997:72);
- Characterised by collegial staff team relationships (Ainscow 1995:151; Davern et al. 1997:37; Ferguson & Ferguson 1998:307; Ware 1995:127);
- Dependent on effective collaboration with parents and community resources (Belknap, Roberts & Nyewe 1999:183; O'Shea 1999:179; Grove & Fisher 1999:209).

Although by no means exhaustive, these examples do indicate that two important emphases need to be maintained when seeking a comprehensive understanding of inclusion. The first is that of school and system-wide restructuring and improvement towards greater effectiveness and the second is that of ensuring access through individually relevant support. Both are underpinned by the beliefs and

attitudes that would characterise inclusive culture and are initiated and entrenched by policy and legislation. This is diagrammatically represented in figure 2.2.

Inclusion is …

… School and system-wide restructuring and improvement towards greater effectiveness	AND	… Meeting diverse needs in the general classroom by providing appropriate support

Underpinned by

Inclusive culture or ethos
and
Inclusive policy and legislation
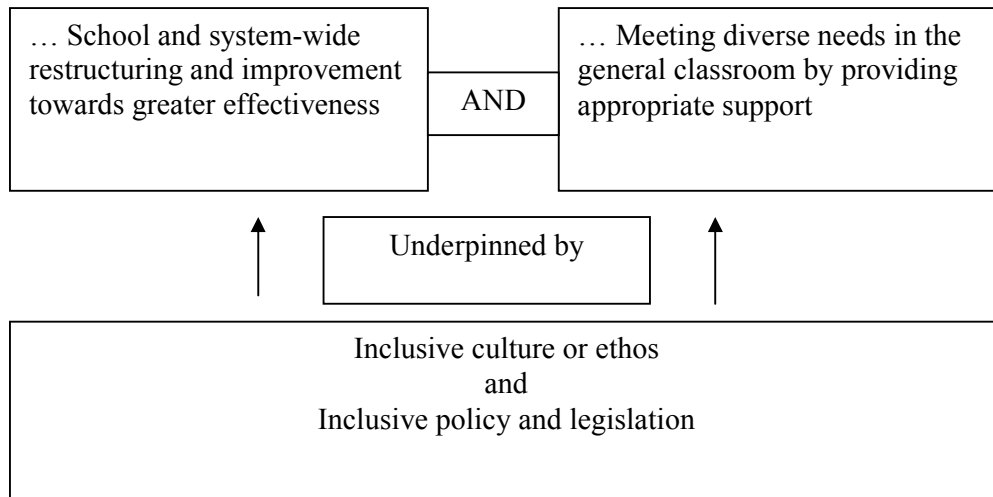
Figure 2.2   The essential components of inclusion

Without a focus on the need for radical restructuring of schools and the school system, inclusion becomes mainstreaming. Schools have to focus on how they change to address any barriers to learning that learners may experience. Without a focus on meeting individual needs through the provision of appropriate support, inclusion becomes dumping.

The various components deduced from historical and international experience, the debate on inclusion and mentioned by various authors then become expressions of both school restructuring and the provision of support.

Inclusion can thus be depicted diagrammatically and is represented in figure 2.3.

Inclusion is …	
School and system-wide restructuring and improvement towards greater effectiveness through…	Meeting diverse needs in the general classroom by providing appropriate support through…
Increasing participation and reducing exclusion (particularly of those who experience barriers to learning) from curricula, classrooms, culture and school communities	
Training in requisite knowledge, skills, values and attitudes	
Developing collaborative team relationships among staff, with parents and other stakeholders	
Making necessary modifications to instruction, the curriculum and the environment	
Understanding that inclusion is both a process and an outcome	

Underpinned by…

Inclusive culture that values diversity and welcomes all learners as contributing members of the school community

Inclusive policy and legislation that initiates and entrenches inclusive practice

Figure 2.3   Inclusion

This broad understanding of inclusion is drawn from various writers in the field of inclusive education. It is also congruent with what has been presented about historical and international trends in inclusion and the debate on inclusion. It comprehensively answers the question 'what is inclusion?' but still lacks the South African context that is important to this study and therefore inclusion should be viewed in the light of South Africa's educational history and experience.

2.2.5   Inclusive education in South Africa

As racially segregated education was dismantled and replaced with a unitary system that needed to contribute to nation building, so the separate education system for those learners who were deemed to have special needs was re-evaluated with a view to creating an inclusive approach to education. This section of the literature review grounds the move towards inclusive education in the South African context by describing the education system of South Africa and then focusing specifically on special education. The legislative and policy framework in which inclusion functions is

mentioned, with particular attention given to *Education White Paper Six: Special Needs Education* (DoE 2001a).

2.2.5.1 Education in South Africa

Although it is acknowledged that the field of education encompasses many aspects, including higher education and training, early childhood education and adult basic education and training, the focus of this study is on schooling in the areas known as general and further education and training. An appreciation of the historical, social, political and economic context in which education functions is important to an understanding of education in a country. Booth and Ainscow (1998:9) confirm this. In their comparative international study on inclusion, they asked what they needed to know about the local and national context in order to comprehend the process of inclusion in any particular country. It is beyond the scope of this study to provide an in-depth account of the complex interplay of factors that have given rise to the education system of today, but a brief historical account should orientate the reader.

a.   Education prior to 1994

In the decades before 1994, education, and schools in particular, had been the locus of significant struggle against apartheid, notably the uprisings of 1976 and the school boycotts of the early 1980s. The legacy left by the apartheid state thus included a scarred and deeply divided education system. Different race groups had separate education departments, and white education was administered by four provincial education departments. The so-called independent homelands also had their own education departments. Past racial imbalances meant that education was not equally funded across all racial groups, with white education receiving a disproportionately high per capita spending (Christie 1985:99). The inequitable division of resources meant that some schools were highly resourced and others were not. Independent schools (or private schools as they were known then) served a small percentage of learners and separate special schools served (mainly white) children who were deemed to have special needs. Many changes have occurred since 1994.

b.   Education since 1994

Education is administered by a single national education department and nine provincial education departments. It is compulsory for all children between the ages of seven and fifteen to be in schools

and provincial education departments have to ensure that there are sufficient places in schools to meet the need. In addition to unifying education across the country, the post apartheid education department has made significant changes to the curriculum. In particular, it has introduced Outcomes-Based Education, first through Curriculum 2005 and more recently the streamlined Revised National Curriculum Statement (RNCS) for grades R (reception year) to grade 9. A new curriculum for learners in grades 10 to 12 – the Further Education and Training band – begins with grade 10 in 2006.

Significant challenges still face education in South Africa, one of which, according to Prinsloo (2001:345) is that of teachers who lack the motivation and enthusiasm to meet the needs of all the learners in South Africa's classrooms. This can be attributed to the significant changes that teachers have had to face. Outcomes-Based Education has posed challenges in its implementation in terms of designing learning programmes, finding resources and learning new ways of assessing. As a result, teachers experience feelings of inadequacy and powerlessness, in spite of training initiatives from education departments. Compounding this is the diversity that teachers now face in their classrooms and their lack of training in the knowledge, skills and attitudes required effectively to teach all learners (Bothma et al. 2000:201). Thus, efforts in training in inclusive education and Outcomes-Based Education need to be sustained and enhanced to ensure that teachers can accommodate diverse learners in inclusive classrooms.

An independent sector still serves a small percentage of South African learners, and it is being increasingly monitored and regulated through Umalusi, the body responsible for quality assurance in education. Although separate schools for learners who experience barriers to learning still exist, legislation, policies and guidelines are moving South African education towards a system that can address barriers to learning within ordinary or mainstream schools.

c.   Special education

The special education system inherited by the post apartheid education department was not equally developed for all race groups. The result is that special schools and classes have been well established and well resourced to serve white (and to some extent 'coloured' and Indian) learners living with disabilities or impairments. In addition to these special schools, many (white) learners were taught in self-contained classrooms or through a pull-out system. The majority of (black) learners were served by education departments that did not provide quality special education

services. In fact, most of the schools that were established for black learners who experienced barriers to learning were not established by the state but by churches and other humanitarian organisations. As a consequence these learners were included in the general system by default, but did not benefit from the support that is necessary in an inclusive system. It was only in the early 1990s that remedial teaching was offered to a limited extent in black schools (Nkabinde 1993:110 – 111). As a result, barriers to learning went unrecognised and were not addressed and learners experienced repeated failure and eventually dropped out of school (Donald, Lazarus & Lolwana 2002:297). There were (and still are) also learners who, because of the barriers to learning they experience, do not attend school (Pendlebury & Enslin 2004:45).

An inclusive education system that will address past discrimination and disadvantage has been envisaged and expressed in policy and legislation.

2.2.5.2 Legislative and policy framework in support of inclusion

a.   The Constitution

The Constitution of South Africa affirms the fundamental principles that are foundational to inclusive education in this country. These principles are of human dignity, equality and the advancement of human rights (RSA 1996a, section 1(a)), freedom from discrimination (RSA 1996a, section 9(4)) and the fundamental right to basic education (RSA 1996a, section 29(1)). The right to education is given legislative expression in the South African Schools Act.

b.   The South African Schools Act

The South African Schools Act was enacted in 1996 and sets "uniform norms and standards for the education of learners at schools" (Preamble, South African Schools Act, RSA 1996b). It makes allowance for an inclusive education system in South Africa through the following provisions:

- Public schools must admit learners and "serve their educational requirements" without discrimination (Section 5(1));
- No admission test may be used to determine the admission of a learner to a public school (Section 5(2));

- Where learners have "special education needs", the rights and wishes of the parents must be taken into account when determining their placement (Section 5(6));

- Where it is "reasonably practicable", learners with "special education needs" should be served in the mainstream and relevant support should be provided for these learners (Section 12(4));

- Physical amenities at public schools should be made accessible to disabled learners (Section 12(5)).

In the year that the South African Schools Act was promulgated, The National Committee for Education Support Services and National Commission on Special Needs in Education and Training (NCESS/NCSNET) were appointed by the Minister of Education and the Department of Education to investigate and make recommendations about special needs and support in education in South Africa.

c.   The NCESS/NCSNET report

The NCESS/NCSNET report recommended that the separate special and ordinary education systems be integrated (DoE 1997:i, 55). Some of the ways that the committee saw this being realised, like building modifications, curriculum development, staff training and intersectoral collaboration would be included in the *Education White Paper Six: Special Needs Education* (henceforth referred to as the White Paper), which was published in 2001.

d.   The *Education White Paper Six: Special Needs Education*

i.   The content of the White Paper

The White Paper arose from the need to respond to the fact that learners with different learning needs were not adequately accommodated in the South African education system. It was found that the relatively small number of special schools only served learners who had been medically diagnosed as disabled and those who experienced difficulties due to other factors (like poverty) found themselves without the necessary support. The White Paper estimates that at the time of publication only 20% of learners with disabilities were accommodated in special schools. Not only was there inadequate provision of special schools in the light of the number of learners who experience difficulties, but also disparity among the provinces. The White Paper was published

after a consultative process and outlines a national strategy to include and accommodate those who experience barriers to learning.

The White Paper is based on the following principles:

- All children and young people can learn and need support;
- Difference, including different learning needs, is valued as part of the human experience;
- Education can be enabled to meet the needs of all learners;
- The home and community form an important source of learning;
- Attitudes, behaviours and teaching methodologies will have to change to meet the needs of learners;
- Participation of learners in the educational process should be maximised;
- The individual strengths of learners should be encouraged.

An inclusive education system acknowledges the different levels of support required by different learners and should be organised to provide this. To this end, the following strategies are to be implemented:

- Improve special schools and convert them to be resource centres;
- Reach the large number of disabled children and young people who are not in the school system;
- Convert about 500 primary schools to be full service schools that are capable of responding to the full range of learning needs;
- Introduce management and teachers in mainstream schools to the inclusion model with a focus on early intervention in the Foundation Phase (grades R – 3);
- The establishment of district-based support teams (DSTs) to provide support services;
- The implementation of an information programme to support inclusion;
- A funding strategy is to be developed.

The White Paper addresses extrinsic and intrinsic barriers to learning, with a particular focus on ways in which the education system may itself be a barrier to learning. It details the framework for establishing an inclusive education and training system through capacity building and the expansion of provision and access in all education sectors. In acknowledging the financial challenges that are involved, the White Paper outlines a funding strategy that includes national and provincial spending

and the mobilisation of donor funding. Building an inclusive education and training system is a 20 year developmental goal and short, medium and long-term strategies are described that will address barriers to learning and accommodate diverse learning needs in South Africa.

The White Paper aligns South Africa with developments in inclusive education internationally and draws on the foundations laid by United Nations initiatives and, in particular, the Salamanca Statement.

ii.   The White Paper and the Salamanca Statement

The White Paper has included many of the key recommendations of the Salamanca Statement of 1994 and in this regard South Africa can be seen to be pursuing policies congruent with international trends. For example, the following areas are identified by the Salamanca Statement for governments to give attention to: early identification and intervention when barriers to learning are experienced; the importance of the participation of parents and the need for teacher education to meet the needs of inclusive classrooms (Unesco 1994:ix). All of these are included in the strategic plan outlined in the White Paper. Particular note is made of the South African approach to increasing access. Consistent with the Salamanca Statement's advice that developing countries should build inclusive schools, rather than try to expand a separate special system as a cost effective way of expanding access, the White Paper describes the conversion of some existing schools into full service schools that can, with the support of DSTs and neighbouring special schools, serve learners with diverse learning needs. It is envisaged that these full service schools will be able to accommodate the many children living with mild to moderate disabilities who are currently out of school. The Salamanca Statement sees that special schools have a role to play, not only in educating a small number of learners who cannot be adequately served in ordinary schools, but also as resource centres that can provide inclusive schools with valuable human and material resources. The White Paper has embraced this and foresees that, after an audit of special schools, they will be upgraded to improve the quality of the education they provide for learners with high support needs and will be converted into resource centres.

The White Paper is not only congruent with the Salamanca Statement, it also shows evidence of the theoretical perspectives of authors in the field of inclusion internationally.

iii.   The White Paper and inclusion theorists

As a policy statement, the White Paper reflects the thinking of many researchers and theorists in the field of special needs education. By rejecting the medical approach to disability and emphasising the barriers to learning that the education system itself causes, the White Paper echoes positions taken in the writing of Ainscow (1995), Skrtic (1995), Christensen (1996), Booth and Ainscow (1998) and Ballard (1999). The term barriers to learning that is used in the White Paper is also used in *The Index for Inclusion*, published by the Centre for Studies on Inclusive Education (CSIE) in 2000. It is noted, however, that the CSIE uses the term barriers to learning and participation. Ultimately inclusion is more than ensuring that learners with various barriers to learning are taught in regular classrooms. It is also about these learners being accepted and feeling a sense of belonging within the school community. Mordal and Strømstad (1998:106) ask in this regard,

> … is this child really included as a full member of the school community, or have we only made superficial adaptations which leave the child just as isolated as in a special class or special school?

There is evidence that the White Paper does regard participation as an integral part of an inclusive system (DoE 2001a:16) and yet has chosen to emphasise learning needs and barriers to learning.

The White Paper could be criticised by those who advocate a full inclusion approach to inclusion. Full inclusionists eschew any notion of separate special schools, as their position is that all children, irrespective of the severity of their disabilities should be educated in regular classrooms alongside their non-disabled peers. They would contend that so long as special schools exist, there will be the assumption that there are some children who cannot be taught in regular classrooms and the justification for exclusion will remain. Full inclusionists would thus disagree with the White Paper's proposed maintenance of special schools that will serve certain learners who experience barriers to learning. Van Rooyen and Le Grange (2003:154) voice this critique of the White Paper as the irony of the conditional acceptance of inclusion, noting the conditions that learners have to meet in order to be included in either ordinary, full service or special schools.

The fact that the White Paper envisages an inclusive education system that still maintains separate special schools is not the only concern that emerges. There are also theoretical and practical questions that the White Paper does not answer.

iv.   Concerns arising from the White Paper

The White Paper only claims to provide an outline or a framework (DoE 2001a:5) for an inclusive education and training system and the many questions that the White Paper raises are perhaps details that fall outside its scope. However, international experience suggests that clarification will be required on issues like parental choice (for example, Lunt & Norwich 1999:46 write about parents having the right to choose mainstream or special classes) – will parents of learners who experience barriers to learning have the right to choose whether their children are to be taught in full service or special schools/resource centres? Practical concerns are many, for example it has been noted that some provinces have very few special schools (DoE 2001a:13) and yet special schools/resource centres are conceived as integral to the support that full service schools will need. Only time will tell whether the timeframes envisaged by the White Paper are realistic and whether sufficient funds can be generated from the sources described to implement an inclusive education system. Only three years after the publication of the White Paper, for example, a disparity has been noted between the government's policy aim of educating learners who experience barriers to learning and the funding allocated by provincial education departments to this priority in their budgets (Macfarlane 2004:13).

Of particular concern to this study is the complete absence of any mention of independent ordinary schools in the White Paper. Independent special schools are mentioned as they are to be audited along with other special schools but no hint is given as to how these independent special schools will feature after that. This omission is noteworthy in the light of the Salamanca Statement, which exhorts governments to plan to educate all persons "… through both public and private schools" (Unesco 1994:13). The role of ordinary independent schools in an inclusive education and training system in South Africa thus remains unexplored, leading to questions like whether independent ordinary schools will have access to support from national and provincial education departments, DSTs, full service schools and state special schools/resource centres.

These and other questions may be answered by the Department of Education as time progresses. Already, in the few years that have elapsed between the publication of the White Paper and this study, the Department of Education has published a number of policy documents and guidelines for the practical implementation of an inclusive education and training system.

v.   The White Paper and subsequent Department of Education publications

Since the publication of the White Paper in 2001, other documents have been published by the Department of Education that begin to flesh out the policies of the White Paper. Of note is the *Draft Conceptual and Operational Guidelines for the Implementation of Inclusive Education* (the second draft was published in 2002). This document provides a thorough discussion of critical issues in inclusion and also very practical guidelines for the implementation of inclusion. With a focus on grades R to 9, the *Curriculum 2005 Assessment Guidelines for Inclusion,* also published in 2002 describes how barriers to learning can be addressed in assessment. Also very practical in its orientation, it guides teachers and institutional support teams into adaptations and modifications that can be made in assessment to address barriers to learning. 2005 saw the publication of conceptual and operational guidelines for the implementation of full service schools, special schools as resource centres and DSTs. Draft guidelines for curriculum adaptations of the curriculum were also published and comment invited.

Other publications for schools that are not directly concerned with inclusion have inclusion and inclusive principles integrated into their content. For example, the *Teacher's Guide for the Development of Learning Programmes* (DoE 2003) describes inclusivity as an underlying principle of the curriculum and explains how barriers to learning should be identified and addressed in the design of learning programmes in the various learning areas.

These documents are evidence that inclusion is conceived as an integral part of ordinary education in South Africa and teachers are expected to plan teaching and learning in such a way that fosters access and participation. However, even in these early years of South Africa's move towards inclusive education, reticence and even resistance towards inclusion has been noted among teachers.

2.2.5.3 Research on inclusion in South Africa

Consideration must be given to the studies that have revealed reservations among teachers about the implementation of inclusion in South Africa. There is evidence of negative attitudes towards inclusion among teachers (Bothma et al. 2000:203; Swart et al. 2002:181). These negative attitudes can be attributed to teachers' lack of training in the skills and knowledge required to implement inclusion (Hall 2002:36; Swart et al. 2002:180); a sense of having policy changes imposed on them (Bothma et al. 2000:203); and a concern over inadequate resources and facilities (Hall 2002:34; Swart et al. 2002:180). Teachers in South Africa face change at societal and educational levels.

They are required to make significant changes to their teaching practices through the implementation of the Outcomes-Based curriculum. In addition, they are also expected to include learners who experience barriers to learning in their classrooms and to teach effectively. These changes occur within the broader context of South Africa's transformation (Swart et al. 2002:185).

The need for effective in-service and pre-service training emerges from the research (Bothma 2000:204; Burden 2000:37; Hall 2002:36; Swart et al. 2002:186). Not only will teachers need the knowledge and skills for the practical implementation of inclusion in classrooms, attention will need to be given to developing the attitudes and predispositions necessary for inclusive practice. In addition, the need for support for teachers within the inclusive system is highlighted in the research (Hay 2003:137; Swart et al. 2002:186). The White Paper acknowledges the need for training and support of teachers and makes provision for this through school/site-based support teams (SBSTs), DSTs and special schools functioning as resource centres (DoE 2001a:29).

It is evident that inclusion in South Africa will have a unique flavour, given this country's history, the legislation and policy that informs inclusive practice and the challenges and opportunities of the post-apartheid classroom. It has also been shown that inclusive education in South Africa has been influenced by international trends, United Nations publications and the theoretical and practical perspectives offered by authors in the field.

What remains is to reconsider the understanding of inclusion articulated in section 2.2.4 in the South African context.

2.2.5.4 Inclusion in the South African context

Inclusion in South Africa is described diagrammatically by figure 2.4.

Inclusion in the South African context is …	
School and system-wide restructuring and improvement towards greater effectiveness through…	Meeting diverse needs in the general classroom by providing appropriate support through…
Increasing participation and reducing exclusion (particularly of those who experience barriers to learning) from curricula, classrooms, culture and school communities	
Training for staff at school and district level in requisite knowledge, skills and attitudes, and in particular, understanding the barriers to learning that South African learners experience	
Developing collaborative team relationships among staff and with parents; with DSTs and other community organisations	
Making necessary modifications to instruction, the curriculum and the environment	
Understanding that inclusion is both a process and an outcome	

Underpinned by…

| Inclusive culture that values diversity and welcomes all learners as contributing members of the school community.

Constitutional values of equality, freedom from discrimination and the right to education would help to shape inclusive culture. | Inclusive policy and legislation that initiates and entrenches inclusive practice.

The *Education White Paper Six: Special Needs Education* (2001); the South African Schools Act (1996) and various policy guidelines would ensure that inclusion is implemented and sustained. |
|---|---|

Figure 2.4   Inclusion in the South African context

Because of South Africa's unique context, inclusion in South Africa may be different from elsewhere. Its implementation will face unique challenges and will display unique emphases. It would seem important that at this early stage of inclusion in South Africa that all efforts towards greater inclusivity in schools be acknowledged and encouraged. These efforts may fall short of an ideal and in the future, once inclusion is established, there may be a place for a more critical approach that would discriminate among efforts and find some to fall short of true inclusion. To embark on the journey towards inclusion, South African schools need to begin the process of school improvement and restructuring towards greater effectiveness in providing quality education for all.

Schools need to take responsibility to address barriers to learning by facilitating access and participation. This may involve a paradigm shift in acknowledging that the onus is on the school to be accessible to learners, not on learners to fulfil conditions before schools will accept them. This means that schools ensure that teaching, learning and assessment strategies are cognisant of different learning and cognitive styles as well as providing whatever human and material support that learners may require in order to achieve success.

An understanding of inclusion in South Africa has been built through an examination of historical and international trends in inclusion, the research and literature on inclusion and relevant South African legislation, policies and guidelines. Arriving at a comprehensive understanding of inclusion is important as it places this study in the context of wider research and it provides a framework within which to interpret the results of the study. Specifically, this understanding of inclusion has been used in the empirical study to generate criteria by which independent schools can be assessed in terms of the extent to which they are pursuing inclusion. Because the focus of this study is inclusion in the independent sector, and in ISASA schools in particular, attention is now given to describing the independent sector in South Africa, with particular focus on ISASA and its policy on diversity.

2.3   Independent education in South Africa

2.3.1   Introduction: The size of the sector

It is difficult to arrive at an accurate number of independent schools in South Africa (Hofmeyr & Lee 2004:147). Provincial databases record independent schools that submit annual survey returns, and not all independent schools do so. The Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) had a confirmed database of 1 287 registered independent schools in 2002 (compared to the Department of Education's register of 1050 independent schools after 2001) (Du Toit 2003a:385). By counting primary and secondary schools separately, it is suggested that there were a minimum of 1 951 registered independent schools in South Africa in 2004. There could be some two to three thousand additional unregistered independent schools in the country (Hofmeyr & Lee 2004:153). It is, however, not always easy to define an independent school.

2.3.2   Definition and classification

Arriving at a comprehensive definition of an independent school in the South African context is not straightforward.   Kitaev (1999:43) suggests a broad definition that would apply to developing countries:

> 'Private schools' includes all formal schools that are not public and may be founded, owned, managed and financed by actors other than the state, even when the state provides most of the funding and has considerable control over these schools.

Although helpful, this definition can only be used with qualification in South Africa. The aspects of founding, ownership, management and finance require contextualising.   Independent schools in South Africa are privately owned, but public schools on private property (like some farm or Catholic schools) are deemed to be public schools by the South African Schools Act (Section 14(1)). In most other countries, such schools would be regarded as private schools (Hofmeyr & Lee 2004:144). When it comes to management, the state influences independent schools through registration requirements; management audits for schools receiving subsidies and, most recently, requirements for accreditation with Umalusi. At least 14 pieces of national legislation relating to education, labour and tax impact on the management of independent schools (Hofmeyr & Lee 2002:83). The majority of independent schools in South Africa today are in the low to average fee category (charging between R0 and R6 000 per learner per annum) (Du Toit 2003a:387), suggesting reliance on state subsidies for income (Hofmeyr & Lee 2004:161).

The only common factor across all independent schools in South Africa is that they are not public schools. Various ways of classifying independent schools has been suggested. Muller (1992) grouped independent schools in historical context, broadly noting the religious schools that were established in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries, most of which were white and Protestant; the 'new' schools that were established after 1980 for various reasons; and other schools, including those offering alternative education philosophies. Du Toit (2003) in compiling the HSRC report on the independent sector used an economic typography and classified independent schools according to four school fee categories. Hofmeyr and Lee (2004:153) distinguish between registered and non-registered independent schools and then, among registered schools, distinguish between those which belong to associations and those that do not. These authors estimate that less than half of all registered independent schools are affiliated to an independent schools' association. Kitaev

(1999:45) suggests a five-fold typology based on the origin and purpose that independent schools could have in common. These are described in the South African context as follows:

- Community schools

Based in the community, such schools complement public schools by providing for differentiated demand or even unmet demand where there are no state schools. Twenty-eight percent of independent schools in South Africa classify themselves as community schools (Hofmeyr & Lee 2004:155).

- Religious schools

Over 46% of South African independent schools are religious (Hofmeyr & Lee 2004:155). These would include Christian (Catholic, Protestant and Evangelical), Jewish, Muslim and Hindu schools.

- Spontaneous schools

Kitaev (1999:46) regards such schools as usually unregistered and providing low quality education, but meeting a demand by those with no other access to education. In South Africa, these would be the 'fly-by-night' independent schools that have gained notoriety since the late 1980s (Muller 1992:342).

- Profit-making schools

Profit-making schools comprise 5% of all independent schools in South Africa and are based in urban areas. Some are very competitive and pursue high academic results and others, known as 'street academies', cater for lower income learners (Hofmeyr & Lee 2004:155).

- Schools for expatriates or specific ethnic groups

This type of school has not grown significantly in South Africa. There are, however, schools that serve particular non-South African language groups, like German or Greek schools and others that follow overseas curricula.

There are other groupings of independent schools in South Africa, not mentioned by Kitaev. These would include the non-religious schools established in the 1980s specifically in response to the crisis in black education, for example the New Era Schools Trust (NEST) schools (Muller 1992:342). There are also schools that meet the demand for alternative education approaches, like the Waldorf and Montessori schools. Such alternative schools comprise 5.5% of independent

schools. Finally, home-based and 'virtual' schools are part of the independent sector in South Africa. Independent special schools are not noted as a separate category in any typographies. Categories of independent schools are represented in figure 2.5.

Independent schools by category
(Percentages from Hofmeyr and Lee (2004:155))

Other
15.5%

Community Schools
28.0%

Alternative Schools
5.5%

Schools for profit
5.0%

Religious Schools
46.0%
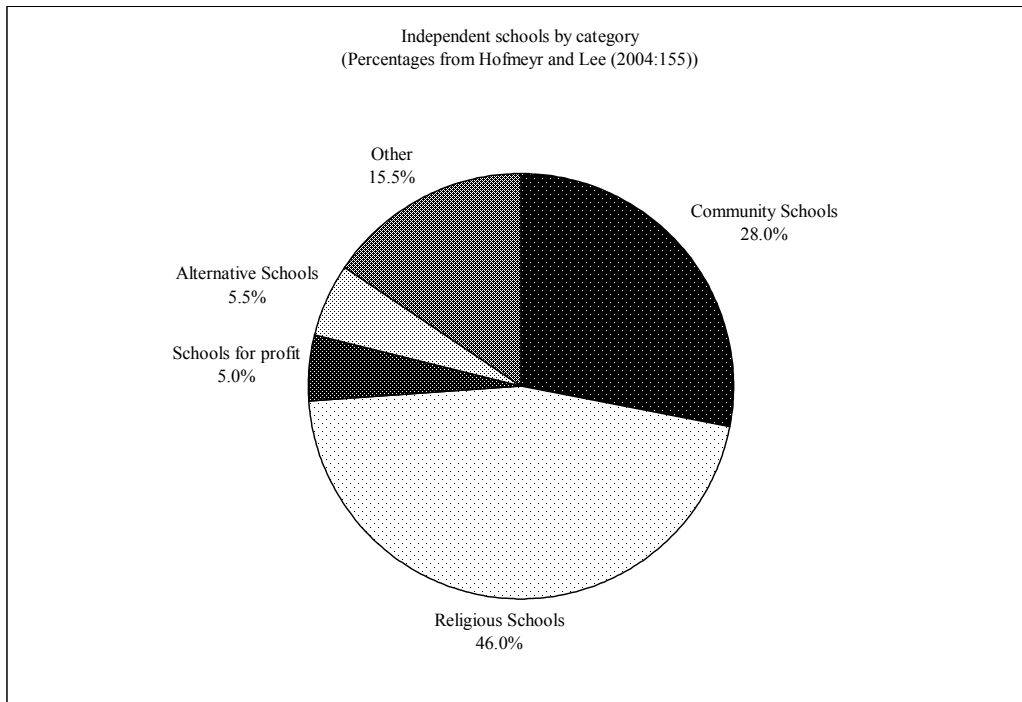
Figure 2.5   Independent schools by category

2.3.3   Growth in independent education in South Africa since 1990

The independent school sector has seen significant growth, particularly in the years between 1990 and 1999 (Du Toit 2003a:390). Internationally, growth in private or independent education is attributed to the need to meet excess demand or differentiated demand for education (Hofmeyr & Lee 2002:78). Meeting excess demand is usually the experience in developing countries where the state system cannot accommodate the demand for education. Differentiated demand is noted in developed countries where parents seek alternatives to public education. In South Africa, excess demand has been associated with black communities and differentiated demand with white communities. The growth in independent schools since 1990 has, however, been attributed to a demand from black communities for differentiated education (NAISA 2004).

More than half of all current independent schools registered with the provincial departments of education since 1990. Of the 687 independent schools registering between 1990 and 2002, 397

were low to average fee schools (i.e. charging annual fees of between R0 and R6 000 per learner). Such low to average fee schools predominantly serve historically disadvantaged learners (Du Toit 2003a:388 – 389). The independent sector in South African education is comprised of a majority of schools that charge less than R6 000 per annum and serves a learner population of which the majority is black.

Independent schools have, over the years, found it advantageous to form associations that can represent their collective interests. As a result, many independent schools belong to, or are affiliated to at least one national or provincial independent schools' association.

2.3.4   Independent schools' associations

Various independent schools' associations are constituted in South Africa. These are often religious in nature (for example, the South African Board of Jewish Education and the Association of Muslim Schools); they may reflect a particular teaching methodology and curriculum (for example, the School of Tomorrow) or, in the case of ISASA, represent any independent school that qualifies for membership. The independent schools' associations are themselves associated. The National Alliance of Independent School Associations (NAISA) is comprised of nine national associations (six religious associations, two alternative education associations and ISASA) and seven provincial associations (Joint Liaison Committees in Eastern Cape, Free State, Gauteng, KwaZulu-Natal, Mpumalanga and Western Cape, and the Limpopo Independent Schools Association). Since ISASA is the focus of this study, a brief history of this organisation is offered.

2.3.4.1 ISASA

a.   Background

ISASA traces its origins to the organisations formed in the twentieth century to protect and promote the interests of private education in South Africa. In the years after 1910, there was a perceived need for private schools to present a united front in the face of the strengthening public school system, the threat of Afrikaner Nationalism and the tension between the private and public school sectors (Squelch 1997:37). So, in 1929, the first meeting of the HMC (Conference of Headmasters and Headmistresses) was held. The aim of the HMC was to "forward the aims of all Diocesan schools and private schools for Europeans in South Africa" (HMC Report 1929:8, quoted in

Squelch 1997:37). In the post-war years, there is evidence of growing concern over State control in education, particularly with regards to language requirements. The issue of compulsory bilingualism in the Transvaal, although not rejected in principle by the HMC, was seen as an encroachment on the freedom of independent schools. The perceived threat to independent schools was voiced by the Right Reverend G.H. Clayton at the HMC conference in 1950 when he said "There is no place for [private schools] in the future as envisaged by our present rulers" (quoted in Squelch 1997:46). A potentially divisive issue was whether private schools should accept state subsidies or not. Some rejected subsidies as they feared increased state control in the schools; others relied on the subsidies for their existence. Other issues that concerned the HMC in these years included the need for facilities for science teaching and the decline of faith in learners in member schools. Of particular concern in the 1960s and 1970s was the issue of the admission of learners of all races to member schools and in 1977 the Conference adopted a resolution favouring the removal of restrictions on admitting learners who were not white (Randall 1982:192).

In 1974 the Association of Private Schools of South Africa (APS) was formed by the HMC to replace the Natal Private Schools Association and the Standing Committee of the Associated Church Schools as a more representative body. The 1980s saw a particular concern of the HMC to provide bursaries to black learners to enable them to attend conference schools. In 1988, the APS was restructured to form the Independent Schools Council (ISC). This council worked with the HMC to advance the interests of private education in South Africa. The head of an ISC school was automatically a member of the HMC. Towards the end of the 1990s, the distinction between the HMC and the ISC had become blurred and restructuring again became necessary. The result was the formation of ISASA in 1999 as an umbrella organisation for independent schools. The two constituent members of ISASA are the Southern African Heads of Independent Schools Association (SAHISA) and the Southern African Bursars of Independent Schools Association (SABISA). Significantly, it was decided in 1999 to abolish the religious requirements of membership that had previously been upheld by the HMC and by 2001, less than half (44%) of ISASA's member schools were faith-based schools (Hofmeyr & Lee 2004:154). ISASA, as an umbrella body, also has a number of interest groups, like those of chaplains and librarians. These groups have no voting power and cannot influence the structure of ISASA.

b.   Membership of ISASA

At the beginning of 2005, ISASA noted that it had 498 schools as members with 476 in South Africa (ISASA 2005a). The majority of ISASA schools (53%) are not in the high fee category (Hofmeyr & Lee 2004:154) and most of the growth in ISASA membership from 1999 to 2002 came from schools charging less than R12 000 per annum (Hofmeyr & Lee 2002:79). ISASA schools thus serve a range of socio-economic communities. There are a variety of religious, and non-religious schools; pre-primary, primary and high schools (and combinations of these); co-educational and monastic; ordinary, special and specialist schools; and those offering alternative educational approaches. Independent schools that apply for membership of ISASA must fulfil certain criteria and must abide by ISASA's Code of Ethical Practice. In addition to this Code of Ethical Practice, ISASA has also published a policy on diversity and equity.

c.   The Diversity and Equity Policy of ISASA

ISASA has formulated a statement to address racism and discrimination and affirm the values of diversity, democracy, social justice and human rights. This statement, The Diversity and Equity Policy of ISASA (ISASA 2002) defines diversity, racism, sexism, elitism and transformation in its preamble; expresses ISASA's position which is that racism and discrimination contradicts both social justice and ethical educational practice; and provides ways in which transformation can occur. It concludes with a list of "Principles of Good Practice for Members Schools" which aims to provide a basis for equitable and diverse school communities.

This study is particularly concerned with the inclusion of learners who experience barriers to learning in ISASA schools, so while the Diversity and Equity Policy of ISASA as a whole deals with diversity broadly, only those aspects relevant to the study are highlighted. First, "ability: physical, intellectual and psychological" (ISASA 2002:2) is listed in the preamble of this policy as an aspect of diversity. ISASA's position as stated in section two of the policy is that diversity should be "celebrated" (ISASA 2002:3). Second, in order to implement transformation and promote a culture of diversity, the policy states that ISASA believes it important that schools be "inclusive" communities. Specifically, "Inclusivity of learners with special educational needs, wherever feasible educationally" is encouraged in section three of the policy (ISASA 2002:3). In the conclusion, the policy states, "Schools that effectively exclude or do not serve well particular segments of the population cannot be considered to be of high quality, irrespective of their

examination results and sporting achievements" (ISASA 2002:4). Finally, the seventh point of the "Principles of Good Practice for Members Schools" states that schools should value each individual child and "teach to varied learning styles, abilities and life experiences" (ISASA 2002:5).

These points clearly outline ISASA's expectation that its member schools include, among others, learners who experience barriers to learning and also address the barriers that learners experience. However, according to the Communications Co-ordinator of ISASA, schools are not required to have any inclusion policy for membership. This means that while member schools are encouraged to be inclusive of learners who experience barriers to learning, they are not compelled to do so. Inclusion would be considered as a quality indicator in evaluating schools, but a school would not lose its membership if it was not inclusive. ISASA does, however, view negatively any policies that schools have that effectively exclude learners.

2.3.5   Independent schools: Special needs and exclusion

2.3.5.1 Special needs education in independent schools

The independent sector in South Africa has a long history of providing for the needs of learners who experience barriers to learning and the first schools for learners who experience barriers to learning were private endeavours (Henning 1993:13; Siebalak 2002:19). Examples cited are St Vincent's School for the Deaf, the Hope Home for Crippled Children and Little Eden Home for Mentally Retarded Children. Currently, a number of independent schools are specialised or remedial schools (*Independent Education* 2005:76). The White Paper alludes to these special independent schools by mentioning the need for an audit of these schools, along with state special schools (DoE 2001a:21). Despite these initiatives, the independent sector is often associated with exclusivity and elitism.

2.3.5.2 The exclusive nature of independent education

The high fees charged at many independent schools has earned the sector the epithet of elitist or exclusive as it is perceived that only the very wealthy can afford to send their children to independent schools (Henning 1993:13, 22; Robbins 2000:21). However, in 2002 it was noted that only 13.8% of independent schools charged fees in excess of R18 000 per annum (Du Toit 2003a:387) and both Catholic and Jewish independent schools are noted for their willingness to provide education to children of their religions, irrespective of their ability to pay fees (Barrell

1985:11, 12), even though this causes financial strain on the school. Despite this, fees are not the only criteria by which learners may be excluded from independent schools. Independent schools retain the right of setting their own admission criteria so long as they do not discriminate on the grounds of race. So while one of the justifications of the existence of independent schools is that they provide a choice for citizens, the fact remains that inadequate academic performance, barriers to learning, lack of proficiency in the language of instruction or non-conformity with a dominant religion may also mean exclusion, however much a learner or parent might like to "choose" a particular school. While acknowledging that various factors may lead to exclusion from independent schools, the focus of this study is the inclusion of learners who experience barriers to learning.

2.3.6   Independent schools and inclusion

Inclusion has been shown to be an international trend in education and a South African policy initiative. The independent sector in South Africa seems not to have remained aloof from this trend. There is evidence that ordinary (or mainstream) independent schools are seeking to include learners who experience barriers to learning. For example, ordinary independent schools are seen to advertise that they have various facilities for special needs, including wheelchair access, therapists and remedial teachers (*The South African Schools Collection* 2004:60 − 69). Furthermore, NAISA claimed in its submission to the Minister of Education, N. Pandor, that independent schools have introduced policies and programmes that have benefited the whole education system. First in its list of such policies and programmes is "inclusivity for learners with special needs" (NAISA 2004:12). The extent of this inclusivity in ISASA schools and the practices that facilitate inclusion are assessed by the questionnaire administered as part of the empirical study.

2.4   Conclusion

This chapter has sought to arrive at an understanding of inclusion through a discussion of historical and international trends in inclusive education, a review of the debate about inclusive education and a consideration of the points of view of authors in the field. Although these allow an understanding of inclusion in general terms, they are insufficient for the South African context and the South African experience must inform an understanding of inclusion that is applicable locally. Inclusion has been shown to rest on values, attitudes and beliefs about society, schools and learners. It is given shape and direction by policies and legislation. In practice, inclusion is restructuring schools

and providing support to learners through various strategies that facilitate access and participation. A significant challenge faced by South Africa in the implementation of inclusion seems to be the training of teachers in the knowledge, skills, values and attitudes required for successful inclusion. The independent sector has been shown to be a small but significant sector in the South African education system. Although sometimes regarded as exclusive, ordinary schools within the sector seem to be making the changes necessary for them to be able to include learners with diverse learning needs. Their inclusion will require the provision of support at school-wide, classroom and individual level. At each of these levels, practices that facilitate access and participation have been identified and described in the literature. The following chapter considers the barriers to learning that South African learners experience and addresses the practices that facilitate their inclusion in ordinary schools.

Chapter 3: Learners who experience barriers to learning and the practice of inclusion

3.1   Introduction

South Africa has begun the process of transforming its education system to be inclusive of learners who experience barriers to learning. In doing this, the country is aligning itself with policies and practices that have been implemented internationally and endorsed by the United Nations. Inclusion has been shown to be a multi-faceted concept and one that means different things in different contexts. Essentially, it is concerned with the process whereby schools become accessible and responsive to the learning needs of diverse learners. Authors internationally and locally have described how this process may be realised through the practical implementation of school-wide and classroom strategies that support learners in inclusive schools. Because of differing contexts, not all practices would be relevant to all South African schools, whether state or independent. South Africa can, however, benefit from the accumulated experience of other countries which have implemented inclusive education.

Forlin (2004:10), in an address to South African teachers and other stakeholders, was concerned that her audience did not lose sight of those who should benefit from inclusion. She asked that they remember, "Whose school is it anyway?" Thus, before discussing inclusive practice, it seems important to focus on the learners themselves, and in particular, those who experience barriers to learning.

3.2   Learners who experience barriers to learning

3.2.1   Introduction

There are problems inherent in any discussion that labels or categorises some learners as being disabled, having special education needs or even experiencing barriers to learning. While some authors (for example, Thomas 1995:104; Dyson 1994:53) would envision an education system that does away with any notion of special need, others (for example, Bouwer & Du Toit 2000:247) continue to see special need or disability as something that can be identified in certain learners with a view of planning and implementing interventions that can address the need. The connotations of the terminology used to describe learners have to be considered.

3.2.2   Terminology

Few would question that a word like retarded is offensive and has negative connotations. But in 1968, the forward thinking author Lloyd Dunn (who advocated the abolition of separate special classes) confidently used the term "the retarded" to describe the learners who he wanted to see taught in general education classrooms (Dunn 1968:5). The trend in language is that terms to do with difference are continually re-described, in order to retain a positive connotation. Hall (1997:113) calls this a "semantic drift". As terms acquire negative connotations, they are re-described by a temporarily neutral term. Phrases like learning difficulties and special education needs replaced retarded and were temporarily acceptable, but now have also acquired pejorative status (Thomas 1995:105). The negative connotations that these words acquire can partly be explained by their association with a medical model that has labelled people in terms of their deficits. An example of this process is noted by Davie (1996:54) who comments on the situation in England where learners require a statement of special needs in order to access special education services. He notes that the administrative procedure has become known as 'statementing' and 'statemented' has become an adjective for learners. Thus, labelling and stigmatisation continue under a new name.

In the light of these observations, mention is now made of terms commonly used in the literature on inclusion today. They are briefly described and their contexts noted.

3.2.2.1 Disability, handicap and impairment

The terms disability, handicap and impairment are found in discourse about inclusion. These words have sometimes been used interchangeably and they have, depending on context, acquired pejorative connotations. Disability is commonly used in literature from the USA. The legislation that enforces inclusion is The Individuals with Disabilities Education Act of 1999 and terms like learning disability, severe disability, and physical disability are how many American authors describe learners who experience barriers to learning. South Africa also uses the term disability, defined for the benefit of a popular audience as "when one or more parts of a person's body do not work the way they should" (*Soul City* 2002:2). Some people prefer the term person with a disability, rather than disabled person to indicate that disability is not the only defining characteristic of the person.

The word impairment rather than disability is sometimes used to describe an individual pathology e.g. loss of a limb or organ or a physiological condition such as a chronic illness (Burden 2000:29). Disability could then come to mean the social structures that render those with impairments unable to participate equally, in line with the social model of disability described below. Or the term disability may refer to any characteristic that limits function and handicap then becomes the word that focuses on the limitations of the environment that prevents people from participating equally. Disability is not necessarily a neutral term, though. Funk, an American disability rights advocate quoted in Lipsky and Gartner (1996:764) speaks of society's perceptions that those with disabilities are "deviant, incompetent [and] unhealthy". When considering the barriers to learning that South African learners experience, it becomes evident that disability, however defined, is a barrier, but not the only barrier that learners may contend with.

3.2.2.2 Special needs

Special needs was a term coined by Warnock in England in 1978 specifically to locate the problems that learners experienced, not with individual disability, but within the schooling system (Christensen 1996:74; Thomas & Vaughn 2004:16) and so encourage the system to change to adapt to the needs and characteristics of learners. But instead of the system changing, special needs replaced previous labels and sorting and separating of learners continued. The essential problem with the term is that, contrary to Warnock's intentions; it still implies a deficit model of learners. Ballard (1999:169) mentions Fulcher (1995) in this regard, saying that special educational needs signifies deficit and failure and locates the problem within the learner rather than focusing on problems with teaching and school organisation that lead to failure. Special needs also implies that only a specialist can meet the needs. This notion disempowers classroom teachers who may feel that they are not trained to help learners who have special needs, that is, needs that are not ordinary. This in turn reinforces a separate system as learners are referred elsewhere to ensure that their special needs are met.

Despite these concerns, the term special needs is still used in the South African context. The White Paper that describes the building of an inclusive education system is that of "Special Needs Education" (DoE 2001a). Although stating its preference for the term learners who experience barriers to learning, the White Paper itself uses the term learners with special needs (DoE 2001a:36) and the assessment guidelines for Curriculum 2005 require that the front page of learners' portfolio

includes information on "LSEN Code/ or Description" (DoE 2002c:15). There is, however, little trace of the term in more recent publications from the Department of Education (e.g. The *Teacher's Guide for the Development of Learning Programmes* (DoE 2003)).

The concept of individual needs has been mooted as an alternative to special needs (Welding 1996:116) since all learners are likely to experience the need for additional support at some time. This may be regarded as an attempt to correct the categorising of learners implicit in the label special need and to focus on the learner and not the label. Bradley et al. (1997:51) suggest that programmes and interventions could be labelled instead of children and then needs determine access to programmes. Lingard (1996:43), however, notes that there is no evidence that would suggest that changes in terminology would fundamentally alter attitudes and classroom practices. Despite this, it does seem useful to use terminology that does not imply a deficit model, and barriers to learning may be a more acceptable term.

3.2.2.3 Barriers to learning

Barriers to learning is the preferred term in South Africa to explain why some learners do not experience learning success. The term attempts to do what Warnock failed to do, that is, locate problems in the shortcomings of the system or the society. Even when a learner has some impairment or disability, the barrier is seen to occur in the interaction of the learner and the system as a whole and the learner's worth and dignity is upheld. The focus then becomes addressing the barrier, not fixing a deficient learner. Barriers may be addressed through intervention and support for learners as well as by critical examination of the education system and societal problems that cause barriers. It also may be preferable to speak of learners who experience barriers to learning, rather than learners with barriers to learning to indicate a move from a medical paradigm that locates deficit with a learner.

Actual terminology may, however, be less important than the paradigms with which people work when dealing with diverse learning needs.

3.2.3   Paradigms

Labelling and classifying learners according to disability or special need is often derived from the paradigm or model that dictates how learners and the barriers they experience are perceived. Two paradigms or models (the medical model and the social model) are generally described in the

literature. A third approach, the systemic approach, may be the most useful for understanding barriers to learning.

3.2.3.1 The medical or deficit model

The medical or deficit model of understanding difference is widely described and widely reviled in the literature. Such an understanding approaches educational difficulties much as a doctor approaches a medical problem. The learner is treated like a patient who needs diagnosis and treatment. The problems with this medical approach to educational difficulties are many. Although identifying that a learner may be experiencing difficulties would be good educational practice, the notion that experts may be required to diagnose this as a problem is itself problematic. The hegemony of experts in the field has been questioned, for example, by Brantlinger (1997:441). There are issues of the unequal power relations between those who have disabilities or experience barriers and the experts who make a career of studying and treating them. Critics ask whose interests the experts serve as they label learners and then prescribe the therapy or medication to treat the condition. The diagnosed condition often requires the learner to be separated from his or her peers for some or all of the school day in order to receive specialist intervention (treatment) (Lipsky & Gartner 1996:764; Loreman et al. 2005:22). Failure of intervention is ascribed to incorrect diagnosis, an incorrect form of intervention or the fault of the theory that underpinned the diagnosis (e.g. cognitive or behavioural approaches) (Bayliss 1998:63). Significantly, the focus of this model is on deficit, or what is wrong with learners. It assumes that the learners who do not experience barriers to learning are normal and those who do, are not normal or are deficient (Barton 1997:233). Failure is thus located within the person, not the system.

Bailey (1998a:49) suggests, however, that the medical model deserves reconsideration. Drawing on the work of Eastman (1992) and Oates (1996), he says that the medical model is about "diagnosis, prognosis, selection of interventions, and review of the efficacy of our professional programmes" and suggests that special education teachers (if not all teachers) should effectively diagnose, evaluate strengths and weaknesses and design interventions and evaluate them in order to improve them. He thus sees that there are strengths to the medical model that can be harnessed. Despite these considerations, a social model to explain difference is currently preferred by many.

3.2.3.2 The social model

In contrast to the medical model, social approaches focus on the social construction of difference: that it is a function of comparison rather than inherent in an individual (Minow, in Lipsky and Gartner 1996:789). Disability can be understood in terms of social context and what a society values (Donald et al. 2002:293). The role of the societal context in the emergence of disability category has been well documented. Gartner and Lipsky (1987:386), for example, noted a growth in learners classified as somehow handicapped in America in the post Sputnik years. The pressure to raise academic standards in the context of the Cold War led to the increased categorisation of learners who were not able to achieve these standards. Similarly, the emergence and high profile of the condition known as AD(H)D (Attention Deficit (Hyperactivity) Disorder) has also been noted with caution (Booth & Ainscow 1998:192). Again, the societal context may lend itself to the description of an organic cause of behaviours that are regarded as disruptive in precision run classrooms and (middle class) homes.

Another facet of the societal model focuses on the disability that results from society's failure to acknowledge or adjust to the needs of people with disabilities rather than the failure of the person with a disability to adjust to society (Barton 1994:15; Hall 1997:86). Hence a person is only disabled (or handicapped) by the restraints imposed by society. When applied to education, it could refer to an inflexible curriculum, for example, that does not allow for alternative assessment, or to inaccessible school buildings and facilities that prevent learners from participating in school life. It could also refer to the attitudes, prejudices and stereotypes that people have that lower expectations, lead to patronising and ultimately exclusion of others who are different.

However, Morris in Slee (1996:110) maintains that while an emphasis on the social dimension of disability does focus on the environmental barriers and social attitudes that are disabling, the individual's experience of his or her body and the reality of his or her physical difference can be denied. This would indicate that a systemic approach to understanding barriers to education is needed.

3.2.3.3 The systems approach

The systems approach understands barriers to learning as resulting from a complex interplay of learners and their particular contexts, including the reality of impairments or disabilities, socio-

economic restraints and realities, wider societal factors, including values, attitudes and policies, institutions and people. These realities may result in learners having differing learning needs.

The White Paper notes that learners may have different learning needs as a result of intrinsic or extrinsic barriers to their learning (DoE 2001a:17). While it may be useful to consider these separately, the systemic perspective must be maintained because of the complex interaction of the various internal and external barriers to learning. It may be useful to conceive of internal and external barriers to learning as depicted in figure 3.1.

The learner who experiences intrinsic barriers to his or her learning

The family

The school and the education system

The community and wider society
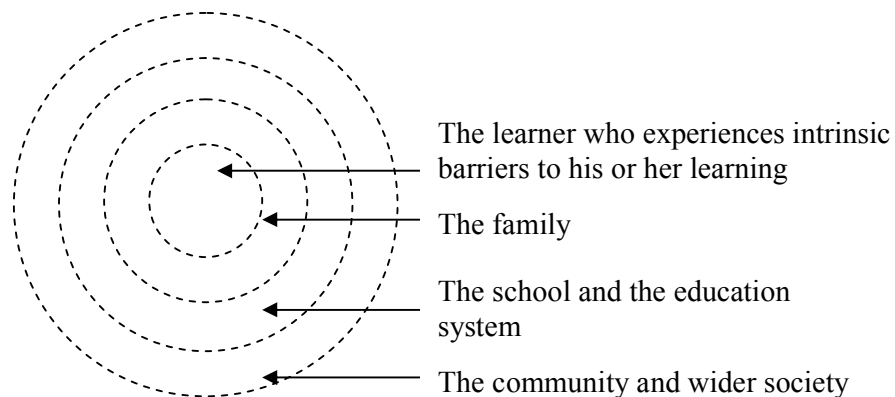
Figure 3.1   Barriers to learning in systemic context

Thus, any learner's experience will arise from the interaction of the various systems of which he or she is a part at any particular point in time (Green 2001b:8). These systems are interrelated as indicated by the dashed lines in the diagramme. This means that learners with motor impairments who require wheel-chairs will experience this barrier differently depending on the family of which they are a part, the extent to which their schools facilitate access and participation and the resources in the communities and societies in which they live (Feldman, Gordon & Snyman 2001:146). For ease of study, however, the various factors leading to barriers to learning can be considered separately, beginning with barriers arising from within the learner.

3.2.4   Factors leading to barriers to learning

3.2.4.1 Intrinsic barriers

Intrinsic barriers would include various impairments, intellectual ability and psycho-social disturbances. The nature and scope of the various impairments and conditions that would be

regarded as intrinsic barriers have been well documented in both educational and medical literature (Coovadia & Loening 1984; DSM-IV 1994; Engelbrecht & Green 2001; Kapp 1991). It is estimated that approximately 10% of the world's population has some physical, mental or sensory impairment, although differences in classifications make it difficult to determine this accurately (McLaughlin & Ruedel 2005:4). The list of intrinsic barriers to learning identified for the questionnaire used in this empirical study is derived from the following:

Physical impairments
- disorders of various organs or systems;
- motor impairment;

Chronic illness (including asthma, tuberculosis, HIV/AIDS and other illnesses)

Sensory impairments
- Sensory impaired: blind or partially sighted;
- Sensory impaired: deaf or hard of hearing;

Neurological and developmental impairments
- AD(H)D;
- Autism spectrum disorder;
- Epilepsy;

Psycho-social disturbances
- Emotional and behavioural disorder;

Differing intellectual ability
- Intellectual impairment;
- Giftedness;
- Learning disability;
- Difficulties with language (reading, writing, spelling) and or numeracy.

Teachers who encounter learners with these intrinsic barriers in their classrooms need to know not only the effect of the impairment on learners' performance, but also the side effects of medication and the interventions necessary for seizures and other emergencies. This knowledge will enable teachers to plan accommodations that will enable access and participation (Feldman et al. 2001:134). Some learners may experience no intrinsic barriers to their learning, but find that extrinsic barriers are such that they require support to learn effectively.

3.2.4.2 Extrinsic barriers

Extrinsic barriers are those factors that arise outside the learner, but cause the learner to experience barriers to learning. These are factors to do with family and its cultural, social and economic context; the school and the education system; and society at large. The list of extrinsic barriers to learning identified for the questionnaire used in this empirical study is derived from the following:

Factors to do with the family, including:

- Lack of parental involvement in education;
- Poverty and social isolation;
- Inadequate shelter and nutrition (Hall 2002:34);
- Language barriers and illiteracy;
- Family problems (like separation, divorce, illness or death);
- Lack of nurture and emotional support;
- Family violence (Porteus, Clacherty, Mdiya, Pelo, Matsai, Qwabe, & Donald 2000:10, 12).

Factors to do with the school and the education system, including:

- Inflexible curriculum. Examples include authoritarian classroom management (Kruger & Van Schalkwyk 1997:21), inflexible teaching methods, inappropriate or irrelevant teaching and learning support materials.
- Language and communication barriers, particularly not learning in the mother tongue, resulting in delayed cognitive development and poor scholastic performance, diminished self-esteem and inadequate teaching and learning because communication is difficult (Bothma et al. 2000:203; Donald et al. 2002:219).
- Inaccessible and unsafe environments, including the location of schools and lack of transport (Pretorius 2001:25); lack of access for those with motor or sensory impairments; physical and sexual violence at schools (DoH 2003:90) and gangsterism (Lazarus, Daniels & Engelbrecht 1999:51; Sathiparsad 2003:101); health concerns at schools like inadequate lighting, ventilation, sanitation and clean drinking water.
- Inadequate and inaccessible support services – poorly resourced schools often have inadequate assistance from support services (Donald et al. 2002:241).
- Inadequate or inappropriate training of teachers and managers. South African teachers have been found to need information about inclusion as well as practical training in the implementation of inclusive educational practices (Hall 2002:36).

- Non recognition of parents, resulting in a lack of communication to parents about the support needs of their children, so denying them the opportunity of becoming informed role players in their children's development (DoE 2005e:13).

Factors to do with society, including:
- Negative attitudes and stereotyping of difference (race, gender, ability, religion etc);
- Inadequate policy and legislation to deal with disability (DoE 2001a:18);
- Few employment opportunities for people with disabilities;
- Inadequate health systems (DoE 2002b:132; Donald et al. 2002:206);
- Poverty (the effects include malnutrition, early school leaving and poorly resourced schools);
- HIV/AIDS (the effects include children, particularly girls, being removed from school because of a drop in income or to care for the sick (Piot & Thompson 2004:40), orphans and child-headed households).

Various factors arising from within learners or from their familial, educational and social contexts can thus be seen to cause barriers to learning. An inclusive education system recognises that these learners require support and so will make whatever changes or accommodations needed to ensure their access and participation. Such a system values difference and acknowledges its responsibility to meet differing learning needs. As inclusive schools seek to celebrate the diversity of learners and ensure education opportunities relevant to different learning needs, they face a dilemma, known in the literature as the dilemma of difference.

3.2.5   Barriers to learning: The dilemma of difference

This exploration of barriers to learning has revealed two equally valid, but seemingly contradictory emphases. The first is that labels and categories have been shown to be discriminatory, stigmatising and sometimes lead to exclusion. A move away from categories and labels would take the focus off the learner as the source of a problem and force critical evaluation of the schooling system. The second is that recognising difference and identifying difficulties or barriers usually precede the provision of appropriate support and support is essential to address the barriers that learners experience. A dilemma emerges in that the acknowledgement of difference for the purpose of providing an individually relevant education could become the basis for discrimination and even

exclusion from the general education classroom. This dilemma is expressed as the dilemma of difference by authors like Ferguson and Ferguson (1998:304) and Lunt and Norwich (1999:39).

In other words, too much saying that everyone is the same will result in some learners not receiving the support they need to overcome the very real barriers that they experience. Too much saying that everyone is different will result in a focus on what separates rather than on what unites and fragmentation and exclusion is the result. Thus, an inclusive school has the Herculean task of identifying barriers and providing appropriate support while at the same time not labelling, marginalising or discriminating against learners. Difference should be accepted, even celebrated but not so that this results in fragmentation of learners and the perpetuation of a 'them and us' mentality. It is in the day-to-day practice of inclusion that these dilemmas have to be worked out.

3.3 The practice of inclusion

3.3.1 Introduction: The importance of a focus on the practice of inclusion

Having established that a number of factors cause learners to experience barriers to their learning, attention has to be given to the ways in which these learners are to be included in schools. As mentioned in chapter one, the development of inclusive schools requires inclusive policy, practice and culture. The literature reviewed in this section focuses on inclusive practice, with only brief mention of policy and culture. A focus on practice ensures that attention is given to what is actually done in schools and classrooms, rather than what policy writers think ought to be done. It is possible that there can be a discrepancy between inclusive rhetoric and inclusive practice and while inclusion may be the language of policy documents, exclusion may remain the experience in the classroom and in the wider school (Ferguson & Ferguson 1998:303; Muthukrishna 2003:viii; Slee 1995:31; Väyrynen 2003:40). While it may be relatively easy to change policy to reflect a vision for an inclusive school, this does not guarantee any change in practice (Ainscow 1999:69; Blenkin, Edwards & Kelly 1997:222; Booth & Ainscow 1998:13; Burden 2000:30). Nutbrown (1998:173) comments on schools in the UK where teaching is occurring in ways that ensure that all children are reaching their potential. This she attributes to adults who "turn their responsibility from the rhetoric of *policy* into the reality of *experience*". Thus, although beliefs and attitudes are important, the key to successful inclusion will be improved methods of dealing with diversity in classrooms (O'Shea 1999:179).

A study of practice is advocated by Ainscow, a leading author and researcher in the field, (Armstrong 1998:49) and is also recognised as being important to policy development and school improvement. Slee (1995:30) has said that those who plan education and write policy have much to learn from "developments and practices on school sites". He contends that this is important to leadership and policy formation. Ferguson and Ferguson (1998:307) say that "scholarship of practice" is required for school improvement. Hopkins, Ainscow and West (1997:263) in their discussion of a project in the UK that is concerned with school improvement state strongly that it is innovation in practice (not policy) that impacts on learner progress and achievement. Finally, the Salamanca Statement itself justifies a focus on practice when it says, "The dissemination of examples of good practice could help to improve teaching and learning" (Unesco 1994:24). In the light of this emphasis, only a brief discussion of inclusive culture and policy is offered and the focus of this section is on inclusive practice.

3.3.2   Inclusive culture and the practice of inclusion

Inclusive practice cannot be considered apart from inclusive culture. Inclusive school practice should grow out of, and reflect an inclusive school culture. In turn, a school's inclusive culture is shaped by its inclusive practices. Zollers et al. (1999:157) actually maintain that practice is just one part of inclusive culture. Although there may be little consensus about a definition of organisational culture, it is generally considered to include the values, attitudes and behavioural norms of an organisation (Jones in Zollers et al. 1999:159). Belief influences action, and norms and values determine behaviours. Much of what happens in an organisation like a school is determined by the culture of that organisation. It is thus understandable that much attention is given in the literature about inclusion to the issue of culture. O'Shea (1999:179), for example, maintains that the importance of attitudes and beliefs should not be underestimated in making inclusion work.

Certain beliefs about learners and schools seem to be fundamental to successful inclusive practice. Inclusive culture is characterised by respect, acceptance of all, a belief that all learners can succeed and a celebration of difference. Inclusive schools have a culture that encourages collaboration, risk taking, a commitment to ongoing improvement and restructuring, innovation, problem solving, reflective practice, and a democratic and empowering attitude towards teachers and learners (Zollers et al. 1999:164). Other factors noted by Zollers et al. (1999:167) in the school that they studied were a strong sense of community, a sense of shared responsibility for educating its

learners, the deliberate fostering of a nurturing environment through personal attention and respect, and everyone working together for a common purpose.

Organisational culture is intangible, but the policies that arise from the organisation will reflect that organisation's culture and will influence its practices. Inclusive school policies may therefore be an indication of a school's commitment to inclusion.

3.3.3   Inclusive policy and the practice of inclusion

Policies play a valuable role in schools in providing guidelines for actions and procedures. They can be public statements that ensure accountability and can provide the rationale and framework for change. New members of a school community can quickly be orientated in the accepted practices of the organisation by referring to policy documents. Policies are the means by which consistency in practice can be ensured and direction for practice given. Policies also have a regulatory function in that they determine budget and resource allocations and organisational structure and function. The process of policy formation is a valuable opportunity for participatory decision making and the articulation of the school's values.

Having a specific inclusion policy may be necessary to secure inclusion within the school's development plan (Hall 2002:32) and ensure the implementation of inclusive practice. Such a policy could include the school's aims, practices and provision for learners who experience barriers to learning. Specifically, an inclusion policy could address issues like discrimination, harassment and negative attitudes, and issues of access and the physical environment of the school (Lazarus, et al. 1999:64). It could also include some determination of the budget allocations and the use of funding to support learning, particularly in the provision of personnel (Corbett 2001:57). Roaf (1998:125) suggests that the inclusion policy include criteria for success by which the school can measure improvement on an annual basis.

Whether or not an inclusion policy is necessary, other school policies should reflect the school's commitment to inclusion. Assessment, admissions and language policies, as well as financial policies and codes of conduct should include provisions for those who experience barriers to learning and an inclusive philosophy may be integrated into a school's vision and mission statements. The empirical study will determine the extent to which such policies are in place in

independent (ISASA) schools in South Africa. Inclusive policies may determine inclusive practice, and, in turn be determined by practice.

3.3.4   Inclusive practice

3.3.4.1 Introduction

An inclusive school ideally welcomes all learners into the general education classroom. An inclusive classroom would thus be characterised by a diverse learner population. Therefore, inclusive practice in schools and classrooms refer to those practices that facilitate effective teaching and learning for all learners in the school community. In particular, literature on inclusive practice has focused on the adaptations that schools can make in their organisation, in staffing arrangements and in curriculum, instructional and assessment techniques that would support learners who experience barriers to learning in the general classroom.

The inclusive practice in schools that effectively supports learners who experience barriers to learning operates at three levels. These are school-wide, classroom and individual level practices that facilitate inclusion. All such practices should support teaching and learning, maximise access and participation and enable diverse learners to actualise their potential. It must be emphasised, however, that these practices do not operate in a vacuum. Inclusive practices in schools rest on the foundations laid by legislation and policies made at national and provincial level and depend on support available in the community. The values and attitudes of the society will be felt in schools and a culture of non-discrimination needs to permeate through to schools. Much as it is useful to describe support in different levels, these levels are not discrete and mutually influence each other. For example, school culture will determine the extent that diversity is welcomed in classrooms and assistive devices needed to ensure access and participation for individual learners may need to be procured at community level.

This survey of inclusive practice draws on literature from overseas and South Africa, as well as policy documents and guidelines from the Department of Education in South Africa. It thus seeks to describe both what can (or should) be implemented by schools pursuing inclusivity. Not all practices would be relevant, or even applicable in all schools, given that the experience and implementation of inclusion will be different in different schools, depending on their unique contexts (Baker & Zigmond 1995:165, 176; McLeskey & Waldron 2002:70). The extent to which any of the described practices are to be found in independent (ISASA) schools in Southern Africa is

established in the empirical study. The first aspect of inclusive practice to be considered is that of school-wide inclusive practice.

3.3.4.2 School-wide inclusive practice

At school-wide level, inclusive practice is concerned with how a school is organised to ensure effective support. School organisation is concerned with aspects like structures, leadership, and human and technical resources (Davidoff & Lazarus 1997:18; O'Neill 1994:118). These components are interdependent and should only be separated for ease of discussion. Each component can be considered in turn in the light of inclusive practice described in the literature. The way a school structures itself may be an indicator of its commitment to inclusion.

a.   Inclusive school structures

There are a number of ways in which schools can structure themselves to meet the needs of diverse learners. Inside the mainstream, ordinary or general education school, the following models of serving learners who experience barriers to learning have been described (Fuchs & Fuchs 1998:311; Hall 1997:125; Siebalak 2002:39):

- Schools have self-contained units for those who experience barriers to learning. Those learning in these units have no contact during the school day with their peers on the same school property. Their curriculum is different and is geared to life skills and independent living.
- Schools have self-contained units for those who experience barriers to learning. These learners spend most of their days separate from their peers but may join their peers for outings, break times and meals and subjects like art. The academic curriculum is significantly adapted and may represent cognitive skills that their chronological peers mastered much earlier.
- Schools offer a different stream for those who experience barriers to learning. While learners may enjoy opportunities to relate to their peers during breaks, mealtimes, outings and some subjects, they will be taught separately, particularly in the areas of numeracy, literacy and in content subjects. The same content or outcomes are prescribed as for their peers but the instructional techniques used to attain the outcomes may be different.

- Schools receive learners into the general education classroom based on the extent to which the learner can adapt or cope with the demands of that classroom. The abilities and shortcomings of such learners are the criteria by which membership of the general classroom will be allowed. Learners have to prove their readiness to be in a general setting; it is not the norm.

- Schools receive all learners into the general education classroom but withdraw certain learners at certain times to receive individual or small group therapy or support.

- Schools receive all learners into the general education classroom but all learners do not participate in the same learning experience. Some learners will do something entirely different (like receive physical therapy).

- Schools receive all learners into the general education classroom and support is provided to those who need it within the classroom.

- Schools receive all learners into the general education classroom, providing support to those who need it within the classroom and all learners participate, make meaningful friendships and feel a part of the school community.

In South Africa, an additional distinction may be drawn between the ordinary schools which are encouraged to respond to the diverse needs of learners and those designated by the White Paper to be "full-service" schools (DoE 2001a:30) which will be equipped to accommodate a range of learning needs. Not all of the models described above may currently be found in South Africa. They do, however, warrant mention in the light of the White Paper's vision of the development of "models of inclusion" which may in future be considered for system-wide implementation (DoE 2001a:22).

While schools can be structured in ways that facilitate inclusion, the impetus for inclusion comes from the people within the schools, and in particular, those who lead schools.

b.   Leadership and management

i.   The role and responsibilities of the principal

The principal plays a vital role in the inclusive school and is a major determinant of the success of an inclusive school (Blenk 1995:196; Dyson & Millward 2000:133). Some of the key roles and responsibilities of the principal are:

- Having a clear, compelling and personal vision for inclusive education (Gameros 1995:16) and being able to articulate and translate this vision into programmes and structures that will ensure its implementation (Gameros 1995:17; Swart & Pettipher 2001:39);

- Embracing a democratic (Zollers et al. 1999:163 – 164) and transformational (Ainscow 1995:152; Gronn 1996:15) leadership style;

- Displaying attitudes of acceptance, particularly towards those who experience barriers to learning, realising that these attitudes will be mirrored by staff and other learners (Morgan & Demchak 1998:26; Walther-Thomas & Brownell 2001:179; Zollers et al. 1999:165);

- Promoting a culture (Gameros 1995:17; Rouse & Florian 1996:75; Swart & Pettipher 2001:38) and organisation (Salend, Johansen, Mumper, Chase, Pike & Dorney 1997:8) that supports inclusion;

- Managing the ongoing change that is required as schools continuously move in the direction of greater inclusivity (Booth 1996:89; Dyson & Millward 2000:135; Parrilla 1999:95, 109; Sebba & Ainscow 1996:7) and involving staff and stakeholders in this process (King-Sears 1997:3; Paul, Rosselli & Evans 1995:332);

- Guiding and implementing whole-school development (RSA 2001:20), with particular attention to the systematic identifying and removing of barriers that learners experience;

- Providing the human and material resources necessary to support inclusive classrooms (Blenk 1995:56 – 57; DoE 2001a:39; Lipsky & Gartner 1996:780; Morgan & Demchak 1998:29; Scott, Vitale & Masten 1998:117).

These roles and responsibilities should not be carried by principals alone, but also by others who are involved in the leadership and governance of schools.

ii.   School governing bodies (SGBs)

The South African context requires mention of the fact that principals do not lead schools alone. State schools are required to have SGBs which are responsible for the governance of schools (RSA 1996b, section 16(1)), although the professional leadership of schools rests with the principal. The majority of the members of the SGB in any school must be parents (RSA 1996b, section 23(9)). Independent schools may have boards, or may be run by an owner-principal with no representative governance at all. Boards in independent schools may not have a majority of parents (Hofmeyr & Lee 2004:164,165). A school board or governing body would have an important role in developing

inclusive education in a school. A sub-committee of the SGB or board could be established for this purpose and could harness parent and community support for the SBST (Belknap et al. 1999:169,170). A school board or governing body would be responsible for the development of policies that reflect inclusive values, could raise funds for the human and material resources needed to support learners and could harness community support.

It is, however, in the day-to-day management of schools that inclusion should be implemented and school management teams (SMTs) have an important role in doing so.

iii.   School management teams (SMTs)

SMTs in South Africa would be involved with many of the daily management functions in schools and would consist of the principal, deputy principals, heads of departments and other staff members who may have skills that would assist in the management of the school. The functions performed by the SMT would include managing relationships with parents, learners and staff; managing information of a formal and informal nature; managing the decision making process; managing teams; managing curriculum implementation and monitoring and evaluation (Mason 2003:25,26). These functions are relevant to all aspects of school management, but can be particularly interpreted in the light of the need for effective planning for the management of diversity. Because of the important role that the SMT plays in a school, it would be reasonable to regard the roles and responsibilities of the principal that have been outlined above as being relevant to the SMT of an inclusive school.

While it is obviously important that those who lead schools are committed to inclusive education, learners are likely to have most contact with teachers. Significant reconceptualising of the roles and responsibilities of teachers and other adults needs to take place to implement inclusion effectively.

c.   Human resources

In an inclusive education system, human resources would include all the people who support learning. These would include professional and administrative staff at schools, professionals available in DSTs and in the community, and parents. Successful inclusion requires a definition of roles and responsibilities, collaboration and the building of teams and training. Recruitment of suitable staff could also enhance a school's ability to provide support to learners.

i.   Roles and responsibilities

- Teachers

Schools and education systems used to divide learners into those who needed specialist and separate instruction and those who would be taught in the general or ordinary classroom. Teachers were then trained according to whether they wished to teach in the general classroom or in a separate setting with those who had identified special needs. Now inclusive education supposes that the general classroom will include a diverse community of learners who represent a variety of backgrounds and learning needs. This requires that the roles and responsibilities of general education teachers will need redefinition as they will need to teach so that a diverse class can learn effectively. Learners who experience barriers to learning can no longer be regarded as problems who need to be referred elsewhere, but as the responsibility of the general classroom teacher. Teachers who have been trained in special education will also have to reconsider their roles. Although some authors (for example, Dyson 1994:53) might argue logically that special education teachers should become obsolete in a truly inclusive system, others (for example, Forlin 1997:124 and Welding 1996:116) see their roles and responsibilities in the continued provision of support within an inclusive school. Inclusion can be effective if general and special education teachers are trained to work collaboratively to ensure effective teaching and learning for all.

In inclusive schools, the classroom teachers assume responsibility for all the learners in their classrooms. While instructional techniques that may be appropriate to the inclusive classroom are discussed in detail below (section 3.3.4.3); Ainscow (1995:153) suggests a number of factors that will enhance general education teachers' roles in such classrooms. They need to be willing to adjust their plans and their practices in the light of the feedback they receive from their learners. Because each circumstance and context is unique, they need the autonomy to respond and make instant decisions about individual situations. This assumes that teachers will have a repertoire of practices from which to choose and will take risks and innovate. Because they may be unfamiliar or unskilled in the use of new methods, general education teachers may require additional and ongoing training and practice. They will also need to be committed to enquiry and reflection with structured opportunities to reflect critically on their classroom practice through mutual observation and discussing their teaching. General education teachers will also have to collaborate with the SBST, special education teachers, therapists, parents, community organisations and any others who provide support for their learners.

Many mainstream teachers may not have the expertise to teach a mixed ability class effectively. Special education teachers have an important role to play in ensuring the integration of learners who experience barriers to learning into the general classroom (Welding 1996:116). Rather than being the sole provider of help to learners, teachers who have been trained in special education would find their role in inclusive schools as facilitators and resource providers (Morgan & Demchak 1998:26). They would interact daily with general education teachers to ensure effective teaching and learning for all. There are a number of possible ways in which the special education teacher can function to offer support to learners and teachers within an inclusive school. Schnorr, Black and Davern (2000:13) suggest that these could include being assigned to a core curriculum area (like literacy or numeracy) to provide specialist and in-depth knowledge and offer this through in-class support, co-planning and co-teaching; becoming part of an interdisciplinary team sharing responsibility for all learners (the SBST) and providing support through centres in the school where learners can receive help. Thus, the special education teacher may support learners directly either in the general classroom or on a pull-out basis, or indirectly by supporting teachers in their planning and delivery of curriculum. All these models require a high level of teamwork, joint planning and collaboration.

In the South African context, many of the supportive functions of a special education teacher would be performed by the SBST, assisted by the DST. In the overseas literature, classroom teachers are sometimes described as being supported not only by special needs teachers, but by teacher aides.

- Teacher aides

Literature from England (for example, Ainscow 2000:77 and Booth et al. 1998:220) and the USA (Giangreco 1997:199) mentions the role of a teacher aide, usually an unqualified adult who works alongside learners who are categorised as having special education needs. Although such an assistant may play a valuable role in supporting individual learners within classrooms, their presence can inhibit participation and social interaction (Booth et al. 1998:221; Giangreco 1997:199), and lower expectations (Ainscow 2000:77). The use of assistants or aides, although not mentioned in the White Paper as a strategy for implementing inclusion in South Africa, may be a way of facilitating access for some learners who experience barriers to learning.

In addition to using teacher aides, appointing a special needs co-ordinator (SENCO) is another inclusive practice described in the overseas literature.

- The special education needs co-ordinator (SENCO)

Literature, particularly from the UK, describes the role of a person, either a teacher or an administrator who co-ordinates special needs provision in a school. The concept of such a role suggests a dilemma. If the notion of special needs is questioned, then, like special needs teachers, the roles of SENCOs must also be questioned. In fact the mere presence of a SENCO in a school is an acknowledgement that there is a category of learner who has special needs. Leaving the philosophical questions aside, such a role exists in schools and therefore deserves mention, as it constitutes inclusive practice. Roaf (1998:117-120) points to two dimensions where the SENCO may be involved, namely that of the individual learner and that of the whole school. Like other support teachers, the SENCO may spend time providing support to individual learners. In terms of the whole school, however, the SENCO may have a role in supporting change in teaching and learning to the benefit of all learners. Roaf sees the role of the SENCO developing in three main areas, i.e. organisation and management (which involves exchanging information, liaison, the organisation of support and Individualised Education Programmes (IEPs), and team-building); research (which involves engaging in, and supporting others in action research projects, in addition to the ongoing observations and assessments that may be involved in meeting the needs of learners); and staff development and training (for example in skills like collaboration and differentiation). Other possible tasks for a SENCO would include keeping a special needs register, coordinating the provision of support for these learners and liaising with parents and outside support personnel (Tomlinson 1996:184). Some schools, according to Dyson and Millward (2000:134), accord seniority and status to the SENCO and involve this person in senior level decision making. Thus, becoming a SENCO can become a viable career path for teachers who do not want to become administrators.

In the South African context, many of the functions of a SENCO would be performed by the SBST co-ordinator, supported by the DST. It is evident that in this country, the emphasis is on a team rather than an individual to provide learning support in schools. Developing and working with teams will require the skills of collaboration.

ii.   Collaboration and the development of teams

Collaboration, collaborative practices and collaborative relationships are often mentioned in the literature on inclusive practice. In fact, Bradley et al. (1997:85) say, "… collaboration is the cornerstone of inclusion". These authors maintain that collaboration is the means by which

information, knowledge and perspectives are shared in an attempt to solve problems and plan effective strategies for the benefit of all learners. Collaboration is thus teamwork, joint problem solving and decision-making. It is premised on the understanding that "…the synergy of the team transcends the work of any individual teacher in most instances" (Mayberry & Lazarus 2002:77). The team in a school can be made up of any combination of teachers (general or special), specialists or therapists, parents and also learners. This SBST would, in turn, collaborate with others in the DST, community organisations and special schools.

- School/site-based support teams (SBSTs)

In the South African context, SBSTs are envisaged to support learners and teachers. Their tasks include co-ordinating support; identifying needs and barriers to learning; collectively developing strategies to address needs and barriers to learning; gathering resources from both within and outside the institution and to monitor and evaluate progress (DoE 2005b:35). These teams would be mainly comprised of teachers, but may include parents and other community members (Lazarus et al. 1999:54). Well resourced schools may also have therapists and other trained support professionals on the SBST. It would be important that in any such team there is a sense of the equality and partnership of members, without any one member assuming the dominance of his or her role or specialisation (Hay 2003:137; Kluth et al. 2003:23).

SBSTs would be responsible not only to provide support to teachers who need assistance to address specific barriers experienced in their classrooms, but to help build inclusive practice at school-wide level. Thus, a SBST may arrange training, develop curriculum and assessment adaptations and advise teachers on interventions. They have an important role in supporting other teams in the school, for example, the school assessment team, the learning support materials team and the school and staff development team (Mason 2003:20). SBSTs should themselves be supported by DSTs, experts in the community and higher education institutions (DoE 2001a:29).

Classroom teachers would need to collaborate with members of the SBST to ensure that the diverse needs of their learners were met. In an inclusive school, teachers are also encouraged to collaborate with the parents of learners who experience barriers to learning.

- Collaboration with parents

Involving parents and family in the education of children is desirable. It is, however, particularly important when learners experience barriers to learning. Perhaps more so than usual, there needs to

be a high level of parental involvement and a commitment to quality communication between parents and school in respect of learners who experience barriers to their learning (Bradley et al. 1997:104; Lovitt & Cushing 1999:137). In South Africa, parent involvement in schools is encouraged. Those parents who are elected to SGBs can influence policy and contribute to the decision making in the school. Other parents may offer their assistance in school activities and even assist in classrooms, where appropriate. Influential parents may also have a role in persuading a community of the value of inclusion in schools and in society at large (Hall & Engelbrecht 1999:231).

Parents should be seen as having invaluable information about their children that could help teachers better meet their children's learning needs (Lipsky & Gartner 1996:781; Hunt & Goetz 1997:25). Information about physical and emotional health, learning interests and styles and other factors that could impinge on a learner's progress should be sought from parents. Teachers thus need to acknowledge the expertise of parents and draw on their knowledge of successful strategies for teaching their children (Kluth et al. 2003:18).

Some learners may receive additional support from therapists and other professionals either in school or in the wider community. Where possible, teachers should develop collaborative relationships with these professionals too.

- Collaboration with therapists and other specialists

Occupational, speech/language and physical therapists, psychologists, nurses and doctors are often involved with children who experience educational difficulties. Ideally, in an inclusive system, therapies should be integrated into the educational programme although historically, they have been based in clinical settings and have been strongly influenced by a medical or deficit model. In a situation of collaborative practice, all professionals involved with a learner plan together and share their expertise in pursuit of a common educational goal. Thus, an occupational therapist in an inclusive school may do more than pull individual learners out for direct therapy. He or she may meet with a team to discuss the needs of learners, suggest appropriate interventions and monitor outcomes. The occupational or other therapists may also train others in the team with skills from that discipline so that learners may benefit (Bradley et al. 1997:205,212). In the South African context, such therapists and other professionals in schools should be serving on the SBST and so use their expertise to the benefit of all learners in a school, and not only their clients.

Access to the professional expertise of therapists and other support personnel in many South African schools will be through the DST. Teachers, through their SBSTs would need to develop collaborative relationships with the members of the DSTs.

- Collaboration with district-based support teams (DSTs)

The White Paper envisages teams that are made up of staff from provincial district, regional and head offices, and staff from special schools. Teams may comprise specialist learner and teacher support personnel such as occupational, speech and other therapists, psychologists, nurses and social workers (DoE 2005b:17; Potterton, Utley & Potterton 2003:39), as well as curriculum specialists and others who have expertise in institutional development, management, finance and administration (DoE 2005b:18). These teams will evaluate programmes, determine their effectiveness and suggest modifications to them. Their task is also to support teaching, learning and management and build institutional capacity to recognise and address barriers to learning and accommodate diverse learning needs (DoE 2001a:29). DSTs thus focus on providing indirect support to learners by supporting teachers and education managers, as well as providing direct support to learners with specialised resources (DoE 2005b:22). Special and full service schools may also provide support for inclusive schools and collaborative relationships should be developed with them.

- Collaboration with special or full service schools

Special schools are to have a particular role in inclusive education in South Africa. They will continue to provide specialised education to learners who have high support needs and, in addition, some will also become resource centres that will, because of their experience and specialised staff and resources, provide support to neighbouring schools in the areas of curriculum, assessment and instruction (DoE 2001a:29; DoE 2005c:17; Hall & Engelbrecht 1999:233). Special schools could provide training for teachers and other professionals involving visits to special schools, practical experience and research opportunities. Other services that special schools should be able to provide include awareness programmes; support groups; advice and guidance for parents; literacy and adult education programmes (Hall, Campher, Smit, Oswald & Engelbrecht 1999:165).

Full service schools are envisaged as those schools which will serve a wide range of learning needs (DoE 2005d:10). They will be expected to collaborate, provide assistance and support to neighbourhood schools through training of teachers, providing resources and admitting learners for a limited period of time for instruction in necessary skills, such as reading Braille (DoE 2005d:11).

Inclusive schools may also access resources and develop collaborative relationships with community organisations in support of learners who experience barriers to learning.

- Collaboration with community-based support structures

Community-based support refers to all the resources and services that could support and work collaboratively with the system (DoE 2005c:18). Community organisations and associations may provide valuable support and information to parents and teachers about various barriers to learning. Organisations like the Downs Syndrome Association, Autism South Africa and the National Association for Persons with Cerebral Palsy can be contacted for the purpose of networking and information. Other non-governmental welfare organisations like the Child Welfare Organisation or Hospice may offer assistance to learners and their families. Government support would be available through local clinics and hospitals and various types of grants are offered by the Department of Social Development. Schools may have a role in assisting families to access community support (Knight 2003:64).

Many teachers are used to working in isolation and will require training in the skills necessary for effective collaboration and teamwork. This training should form part of a wider emphasis on the skills, knowledge and attitudes that will be required for effective inclusive practice.

iii.   Training

In-service training should be regarded as essential for the successful implementation of inclusion (Baker & Zigmond 1995:178; Paul et al. 1995:331; Rouse & Florian 1996:77). Not only do teachers need practical training in teaching strategies that facilitate inclusion, they need knowledge and understanding about disabilities (Pivik, McComas & Laflamme 2002:105; Prinsloo 2001:345). Staff training for inclusion should not be a once off experience, but should provide an initial orientation and then ongoing assistance to teachers. When teachers have had some experience in inclusive classrooms, they will know the issues that need to be targeted with particular training (King-Sears 1997:4). King-Sears and Cummings (1996:217) note that before teachers can implement new inclusive practices, they need to be aware of the range of practices from which they can choose, and then receive training, practice and support in using new techniques. In addition to learning new techniques, teachers should also be encouraged to analyse existing practice which, according to Ainscow (2000:79), can form the foundation for effective teaching that can overcome barriers.

Common topics for in-service training for inclusion mentioned in the literature include:

- Curriculum adaptations and instructional and assessment techniques that meet the needs of a variety of learners, including the development of IEPs (Davern et al. 1997:35; Downing, Eichinger & Williams 1997:134; Katsiyannis et al. 1995:281);
- Skills and attitudes required for networking, collaboration and teamwork (Davern et al. 1997:37; Hall & Engelbrecht 1999:232; Katsiyannis et al. 1995:281; Salend 1998:131);
- Understanding and awareness of different barriers to learning, including impairments and disabilities, learning styles and emotional and behavioural difficulties (Davern et al. 1997:35; Katsiyannis et al. 1995:281; Salend 1998:131);
- Attitudes characteristic of inclusive culture, like promoting acceptance, high expectations and willingness to change (Bothma et al. 2000:204; O'Shea 1999:179);
- Enabling teachers to involve parents and communicate with them (Morgan & Demchak 1998:29; Salend 1998:131).

Training should ideally involve all staff members as administrative and support staff also encounter learners with diverse needs. It is also important that staff themselves are involved in the planning of the topics and focus of training to ensure that it meets the needs of the particular context. Waldron, in Walther-Thomas and Brownell (2001:177) advocates the idea that school teams visit other schools to observe instructional approaches, believing that teachers will find ideas more credible if they observe them being worked out in practice.

The White Paper notes that norms and standards for teachers will need to be developed that include competency in the skills of identifying and addressing barriers to learning. In-service training (INSET) is envisaged that will begin to develop these competencies (DoE 2001a:50). Pre-service training (PRESET) will also have to equip trainee teachers to respond to the diverse needs of learners in heterogeneous classrooms. While training existing staff remains an important way of facilitating inclusive practice, recruitment can also be used to increase a school's capacity for responding to diversity.

iv.   Recruitment

When embarking on inclusion, some schools overseas have chosen only to place learners who experience barriers to learning with those general education teachers who have volunteered to

accept these learners into their classrooms. Some authors, such as Hammeken (1995); Blenk (1995) and Paul et al. (1995) support this approach as one that ensures the well being of the learners concerned. Others do not see that a school's policy of inclusion can be based on volunteerism (Sindelar 1995:238; Baker & Zigmond 1995:176) and feel that teachers should not be given a choice in the matter. They say a climate of inclusiveness is not likely to develop if learners with disabilities are only placed with those teachers who feel willing to teach them. With the appointment of new staff comes the opportunity to find those committed to inclusion. Authors like Davern et al. (1997:33) and Rouse and Florian (1996:80) suggest that principals ensure that all new staff are willing to work in heterogeneous classrooms. Scott (1993:122) further recommends that such new appointments are used to enhance a school's ability to serve learners with special needs and that remuneration could be used to signal a school's value on working with learners of diverse ability. Zollers et al. (1999:170) note that in the school that they studied, teachers from diverse backgrounds were actively recruited in order to increase the diversity of the school.

While South African schools may not be able to implement all these recommendations, they can make their commitment to serving the needs of diverse learners clear when making appointments. Ideally, teachers should recognise that their skills in teaching in heterogeneous classrooms could be a determinant of their employability. Schools committed to inclusion will not only have to invest in human resources, but also in the non-human or technical resources required to make inclusion succeed.

d.   Technical resources

Technical resources in an inclusive context would refer to all the material resources and practical arrangements that facilitate access and support teaching and learning. When these have not been available, for example when facilities have not been accessible, barriers to learning may result.

i.   Building modifications

Those with disabilities cite buildings and the physical environment as significant barriers to access. Classrooms and other buildings may need to be adapted to allow for wheelchairs or other adaptive devices (Morgan & Demchak 1998:26). In particular, doorways, corridors and bathrooms should be accessible to those who use wheelchairs. Ramps (not too steep) or elevators should be provided as alternatives to staircases and slopes. Ramps and staircases should have handrails on each side, securely fastened and easily visible (Potterton et al. 2003:19). Flashing lights, as alternatives to

bells may be necessary for hearing impaired learners and Braille signage may be necessary for visually impaired learners. Challenges may be posed by heavy doors; overcrowded corridors; hard to reach lockers and water fountains; unusable fire escapes; inaccessible laboratories and laboratory equipment (Pivik et al. 2002:102, 103); slippery floor surfaces and loose tiles.

Where buildings have not been accessible, some South African schools have found ways to accommodate learners who experience difficulty with mobility. These include timetabling solutions that allow a learner to attend all lessons on the same storey of a building so stairs do not become a hindrance (Pretorius 2001:25) and allowing teachers to move to a class rather than expecting the learner to move to the teacher's class (Walton 2002:64).

The White Paper has made provision for new buildings and the renovation of existing buildings to create accessible physical school environments (DoE 2001a:28). This will be undertaken in collaboration with the Department of Public Works. Independent schools, being privately owned, would need to bear the cost of renovations themselves and pursuing accessibility is one of many costs associated with implementing inclusion.

ii.   Funding

Addressing barriers to learning has significant cost implications in terms of material and human resources. Costs will be incurred in building adaptations and the provision of assistive and other technologies, staffing and training (Blenk 1995:56 – 57; DoE 2001a:39; Morgan & Demchak 1998:29). In South Africa, the White Paper provides for the Department of Public Works to make the physical environment of schools accessible, DSTs to provide training and support to teachers and the Department of Social Development to meet welfare needs, including the provision of assistive devices like wheelchairs (DoE 2001a:28 – 30). A funding strategy to meet these costs is described in the White Paper (DoE 2001a: 36ff). These resources are primarily designed to meet the needs of inclusive state schools. Independent schools would have to find resources within themselves to meet the financial costs of inclusion, some passing the cost onto parents of individual learners who require support (Walton 2002:62). All schools, whether state or independent, could harness parent and community support to help to provide the resources needed to enhance inclusivity.

Technical resources do not only refer to buildings, facilities and finance, but also to the practical arrangements that can be made in a school to facilitate inclusion. These arrangements may not be without cost, but they do not require large scale building modifications for access. An example is the compiling of a special needs register.

iii.   Special needs register

Literature from the UK (for example, Roaf 1998) mentions the compilation of a special needs register. Such a register lists all those learners in a school who have special needs, what the needs are and what support the learners are receiving. As a SENCO herself, Roaf sees the value of such a register as it gives an indication of those who need support, both from within and outside the school. She feels that this enables schools not only to meet individual needs but also to plan effectively for appropriate support and school development. She also relates this to the issue of funding, as knowledge of the needs represented in the school will lead to fair allocation of resources. Roaf acknowledges that the concept of a special needs register is problematic, calling it a "potential philosophical minefield" (Roaf 1998:122) because some schools might include almost all learners and others may not wish to distinguish between those on or not on such a register. In South Africa, in an attempt to avoid labelling, schools might avoid compiling such a list (Walton 2002:55), however, current government surveys of schools require numbers of "Learners with special education needs" (DoE 2006:4) in schools and so, in order to provide this information, schools may need to keep such records.

A possible benefit of such a register would be to determine appropriate class sizes and distribution of learners in the light of those who experience barriers to learning.

iv.   Numbers and class size

Successful inclusion seems to depend on realistic class sizes and a fair distribution of learners who experience barriers to learning within the general classroom. Reduced class size is mentioned by authors such as O'Shea (1999:179) and Hunt and Goetz (1997:11) as being a significant determinant of the success of inclusion. Authors do not specify exactly how many learners constitute small classes, but if individual learning needs are to be addressed in an inclusive school, teachers should be reasonably able to achieve this.

Together with the class size and learner to teacher ratio, consideration has to be given to the number of learners who experience barriers to learning placed in the general education classrooms (Morgan & Demchak 1998:27). One approach is to distribute learners who experience barriers to learning among all teachers, ensuring that no one teacher is overloaded. Consideration should also be given to the severity of disability represented in each class. Cook and Semmel (1999:59) recommend, based on their study of the peer acceptance of students with disabilities, that classrooms should be carefully composed based on the severity of the disabilities of those to be included. Schnorr, Black and Davern (2000:13) suggest a maximum placement of six or seven students with disabilities in a class of 25 to allow for effective in-class support from special education teachers. As a general guideline, schools could strive to maintain the same ratio of learners who experience barriers to learning in a school as occurs in the local community setting (Morra, in Lipsky & Gartner 1996:782).

Another approach to the distribution of learners who experience difficulties in general education classes is noted by Baker and Zigmond (1995:168). This second approach does not advocate a wide spread of learners who experience difficulties, but suggests clustering them in general classrooms. This can maximise the time that a special education teacher can spend providing support in those classrooms. One of the challenges of in-class support (that special education teachers being spread too thinly across a school) can be overcome by this clustering approach.

Adjusting class sizes to facilitate inclusion may be a significant challenge in the South African context, particularly in state schools. In 2003, the teacher to learner ratio nationally was 1:34.6 in state schools with Mpumalanga and KwaZulu-Natal provinces having ratios of 1:36.4 and 1:39.6 respectively. Independent schools, however, could use their low teacher to learner ratio that averages 1:12.6 (DoE 2005f:4) to enhance their provision for diversity. While considering class size and learner distribution in terms of providing support, schools should also consider the timetabling and class allocations made for teachers who teach learners who experience barriers to learning.

v.   Timetables and class loads

Because of the added demands of teaching classes with a variety of learning needs, teachers may need concessions in terms of their timetables and class loads. Ideally, time should be specifically allocated to collaborative planning and timetables should make this possible. The number of

classes that a teacher teaches should also be realistic, given the time that it takes to prepare adequately for the diverse needs of learners (Salend 1998:131).

The various strategies described thus far show how schools can be organised in ways that promote inclusive practice. It is evident that inclusion is a whole school initiative that will impact on all aspects of organisation. Ongoing change and restructuring will be required as schools seek to facilitate greater access for all learners. School-wide inclusive practice is the foundation on which effective classroom inclusive practice rests and it is at classroom level that specific ways have to be found to accommodate diverse learners.

3.3.4.3 Class-wide practices that support inclusion

Inclusion in schools means that classrooms will consist of learners with diverse learning needs. Instruction therefore needs to be planned in such a way that all learners (and not only those who experience barriers to learning) will benefit (Davie 1996:55; Schnorr, Matott, Paetow & Putnam 2000:51).

a.   Planning for inclusion at classroom level

In South Africa, phase, grade and activity planning form an integral part of the implementation of the Revised National Curriculum Statement. A vital part of this planning includes provision for learners who experience barriers to learning. At phase level, learning programmes which are planned frameworks for systematic teaching, learning and assessment of learning outcomes for a phase are developed. These ensure continuity and progression through the grades of a phase and identify the knowledge focus that will be used to attain learning outcomes. An important step in the development of a learning programme is the need to address and make provision for any barriers to learning that learners may experience. This includes considering the contexts in which teaching and learning takes place. On a broad level, this requires consideration of the social, economic and cultural contexts of learners and on a learning area level, it requires consideration of aspects such as language, examples and activities as well as making provision for those who experience barriers to learning. Teachers who develop learning programmes should also consider time allocations. Consideration should be given to building flexibility into the time framework of learning programmes by allowing some learners to use additional time to complete activities or possibly only completing part of a task (DoE 2003:7 – 11).

A work schedule for a year is developed from the learning programme and then individual teachers develop lesson plans from the work schedule. Teachers are encouraged to consider preferred learning styles when planning lessons and are required to plan to accommodate all learners in the class. They also have to know the barriers that learners in a class experience and to select and structure activities that will overcome these barriers (DoE 2003:12,13). Thus, integrated into the curriculum and its supporting documentation are strategies for inclusive practice in South African schools.

Having observed classroom planning at inclusive schools in the USA, Baker and Zigmond (1995:172) were concerned to note that planning was not based on data from formal and informal evaluations, but rather what seemed to have worked well previously or what could be attempted in future. These observations suggest that planning for inclusive classes should be based on a critical reflection of practice that includes data derived from methodical evaluation. Teachers in inclusive classrooms thus need to be self-reflective and engage in action research. They would also need to have a repertoire of instructional techniques that have been shown to be effective in teaching diverse learners and be able to use such techniques appropriately.

b.   Instructional techniques

Teaching in a way that benefits all learners may involve changes to traditional instructional techniques (Schnorr, Black & Davern 2000:14). Instructional techniques suited to inclusive classrooms include:

- Offering demonstrations and concrete examples while teaching (Morgan & Demchak 1998:28);
- Focusing on active and activity-based learning with a variety of appropriate activities (Schnorr, Black & Davern 2000:14; Udvari-Solner & Thousand 1995:157);
- Using various co-operative learning models (Katsiyannis et al. 1995:280; Lipsky & Gartner 1996:781; Udvari-Solner & Thousand 1995:156);
- Using technology effectively (Lipsky & Gartner 1996:781; Schnorr, Black & Davern 2000:14);
- Direct and multi-level instruction (Katsiyannis et al. 1995:280; Lipsky & Gartner 1996:781);
- Harnessing multiple intelligences and various learning styles (Udvari-Solner & Thousand 1995:158).

Employing different teaching and learning styles, multilingualism and multi-level teaching are described in more detail.

i.   Teaching and learning styles

Over the past years, teachers have become aware of the fact that learners learn differently. Learners learn optimally through either the visual or the auditory or the tactile/kinaesthetic modality and any one class will probably contain some learners who prefer a certain modality. Teachers therefore have to examine their own teaching styles critically to determine which modality they naturally favour. They then need to ensure that they vary their style or complement it in order to meet the learning needs of diverse learners. Teachers thus need to be able to use a range of strategies commensurate with learning styles (Kluth et al. 2003:19; Read 1998:133); for example, instructions should be given verbally, in writing and also demonstrated to allow for various modalities.

A distinction can also be made between those who prefer a global approach to learning and those who prefer an analytical approach. Global learners tend to be holistic, want to see the big picture before the details and may be artistic and creative. Analytical learners prefer to process information sequentially in logical steps, are more linear in their thought and may be linguistically strong. Teachers in heterogeneous classrooms may also benefit by understanding and applying the theory of multiple intelligences proposed by Gardner (DoE 2005e:111; Rief & Heimburge 1996:4,6).

These preferred learning styles should not be regarded as entirely discreet and mutually exclusive (Kluth et al. 2003:19). It is probably more useful to consider that on a continuum where some learners will prefer one approach to another approach. Teachers should plan lessons and activities that cater to a variety of learning styles and should consider assessment that allows learners provide evidence of their learning in different ways. There is also value in developing competence in non-preferred learning styles to increase learners' ability to learn even when their styles are not being catered for. Research on learning styles contributes to inclusive practice by its focus on diversity and the strengths of different learners. As teachers adjust their teaching styles to accommodate the preferred learning styles of learners, they are practising one of inclusion's fundamental tenets, which is that the system adapts to learners and not the other way around. This approach is summed up in the 'mantra' quoted by Kluth et al. (2003:18): "If they can't learn the way we teach them, let's teach them the way they learn." It is possible that in some cases a learning disability has actually

been a mismatch of preferred learning and teaching style, and modifying teaching style may be a significant way of overcoming this barrier to learning.

Teaching to accommodate diverse learning styles has been widely described as an important component of inclusive classroom practice. In South Africa, it is also important to accommodate the various language competencies of learners.

ii.   Multilingualism

Language and communication has been shown to be a barrier that learners experience (DoE 2001a:18), and many learners in South African schools are not learning in their home language. Teachers themselves therefore need to develop bilingual and multilingual skills as well as being flexible by allowing home language use. Even if teaching and learning is not occurring in the home language, it is important for teachers to value the home language and the culture that it represents (Donald et al. 2002:221,222). Linguistic diversity can thus be used as a positive classroom resource. Developing confidence in additional languages will require many opportunities for active language use as well as teachers using scaffolding techniques like providing vocabulary in advance (DoE 2005e:37; Green 2001a:96). Reading material should be chosen with a view to relevance and accessibility. There is often a mismatch between the interest level and reading level of learners reading in an additional language. In reading, as with other learning activities, teachers may need to plan their teaching to differentiate among learners who have achieved different levels of competence.

iii.   Multi-level teaching

Differentiation occurs when teachers understand that learners are different and plan teaching and learning in a way that acknowledges that difference. The use of different teaching styles, using diverse instructional strategies, including group work and co-operative learning, and working at different levels in one class are means to differentiation (Corbett 2001:57; Kruger & Van Schalkwyk 1997:131). Enrichment or extension activities can be planned and implemented for those learners who quickly master knowledge and skills while additional support is given to those who require it. In this way teachers can differentiate within a heterogeneous classroom.

It is important, however, that within heterogeneous classrooms learners are not permanently grouped according to their perceived ability level. Such homogeneous grouping can lead to undesirable labelling. Also, Ainscow (2000:77) warns that differentiation can become a means of lowering expectations and lowered performance of certain learners. Teachers should thus be cautious in presenting modified curriculum and adapted tasks that limit what some learners could do.

Teachers can, however, meet the diverse needs of learners in their classrooms by considering the instructional arrangements that can be made that promote learning. They should be well informed about various instructional arrangements and should know their benefits and limitations. Co-teaching, for example, may be premised on additional human resources while co-operative learning involves harnessing learners in various peer teaching arrangements.

c.   Instructional arrangements

i.   Co-teaching

Welding (1996:114) found that many general education teachers felt unable to meet the needs of the special needs learners in their classrooms. A possible solution to this is a form of co-teaching arrangement whereby another teacher or special education teacher provides support to the teacher and learners within the classroom in a model known as in-class support. Benefits of in-class support include the sharing of responsibility for those who experienced barriers to learning; addressing problems of motivation and discipline that can result when a teacher cannot help those unable to cope with tasks; and helping with the level of concentration and so facilitating the delivery of lesson content. In-class support teachers can facilitate access to the curriculum by all and some curriculum and assessment adaptations and modifications are easier to achieve with the help of an in-class support teacher. For example, an in-class support teacher can test some learners orally while the other teacher administers a written test.

The limitations of this model include the fact that individual learners may not receive the intensive support that they may need to address particular barriers to learning and, significantly, this may be cost intensive if sustained over a long period. A less expensive option is that of allowing learners to work co-operatively to facilitate their learning.

ii.   Co-operative learning

Co-operative learning is possibly the instructional arrangement that is regarded as the most important in the literature on inclusive teaching and learning (Lipsky & Gartner 1997:157). The term co-operative learning is a general term that encompasses a variety of instructional arrangements that require learners to work together to facilitate learning. Well known co-operative learning arrangements include peer-mediated instruction or peer tutoring and group work. The various forms of peer-tutoring include reciprocal tutoring where learners in a class take turns in tutoring each other, cross age tutoring where older learners tutor those younger than themselves and tutoring that occurs when any learner is proficient in a skill and can teach another learner, irrespective of age. Advantages of co-operative learning include the development of conceptual and metacognitive ability (Udvari-Solner & Thousand 1995:152) as well as the growth of self-esteem and empathy (Bradley et al. 1997:394).

Instructional techniques and arrangements address the 'how' of teaching in inclusive classrooms but do not address 'what' is taught. Instructional content will need to be given consideration as an aspect of classroom practice. In South Africa, this instructional content is, to an extent, determined by the national curriculum which is outcomes-based.

d.   Instructional content

i.   Outcomes-based learning

Premised on the assumption that all children can learn and succeed, Outcomes-Based Education is well suited to inclusive practice (Prinsloo 2001:344). Because schools and teachers can to an extent determine the content and method by which outcomes are achieved (DoE 2002a:14), there is much scope for teaching content relevant to the life world of the learners and using methods that are applicable in heterogeneous classrooms. Outcomes-based assessment allows learners to demonstrate their competence in a variety of ways and is thus suitable for differentiating to meet individual learner needs.

South Africa has adopted an outcomes-based approach to the school curriculum. In its revised form, the national curriculum describes both the process and content of learning by listing learning outcomes for each of eight learning areas. Learning outcomes describe what a learner should know,

demonstrate or be able to do as a result of participating in a learning programme. These learning outcomes are derived from critical and developmental outcomes which, in turn, are derived from the South African Constitution. The learning outcomes in each area are further described by a number of assessment standards by which teachers, learners and their parents may know if the learning outcomes have been attained in the depth and breadth required for a particular grade. South Africa's Revised National Curriculum Statement (RNCS) is not only built on the principle of Outcomes-Based Education, but also on the principle of inclusivity (DoE 2002a:10). It is a curriculum for all learners – there is no separate curriculum for learners who experience barriers to learning.

The extent to which independent schools regard themselves obliged to follow the national curriculum is not known. Some independent schools offer curricula leading to foreign school leaving certificates (for example, Cambridge qualifications or the American 'School of Tomorrow'). However, in its publication on the National Curriculum Statement, the Department of Education has stated, "All schools … have to follow the national curriculum and assessment processes" (DoE 2005a:5). This may, in time, be contested as an infringement of the constitutionally guaranteed independence of independent schools and, as such, falls outside the scope of this study. It may be fair to say that independent schools pursuing inclusivity in the South African context will need to embrace many of the principles of outcomes based learning and assessment. Like Outcomes-Based Education, constructivism as an educational paradigm has much to contribute to teaching and learning in an inclusive classroom.

ii.   Constructivism

Various sources (e.g. DoE 2002b:148, 149; Mayberry & Lazarus 2002:29; Udvari-Solner & Thousand 1995:150) mention constructivism as an educational practice that is well suited to inclusive education. Constructivism is based on the assumption that learning is the construction of knowledge and that knowledge develops (DoE 2002b:148, 149). Teachers are thus not presenters of some finite body of knowledge but facilitators of active learning in relevant contexts. Learners themselves share and co-operate in the construction of knowledge and their existing knowledge, at whatever level, is valued. The principles of active and co-operative learning have already been mentioned as instructional techniques that are relevant to inclusive classrooms. Together with the constructivist view of all learners as being able to learn, constructivist thinking seems to be relevant to attaining the developmental outcomes described in the South African curriculum. Strategy

instruction may be an additional tool that would contribute to effective learning in an inclusive classroom.

iii.   Strategy instruction

Teaching in inclusive classrooms may involve more than presenting content and concepts. Strategy instruction is noted by various authors (for example, Burke, Hagan and Grossen 1998:34 and King-Sears 1997:7) as an effective inclusive practice. King-Sears (1997:7) advocates allocating time, even at the expense of content time, to teaching strategies like study skills, problem solving and self-monitoring of social skills to learners who need these strategies. This author notes that homogenous groupings may be the best way of teaching these strategies. The goal of strategy instruction is that learners become proficient in a particular strategy independently, and in a wide range of classes to meet various teachers' performance demands.

Outcomes-based teaching and learning, constructivism and strategy instruction are all shown to be of benefit in inclusive classrooms. However, it has also been shown that simply including learners who experience various barriers to learning in the general education classroom will not necessarily lead to interactions among the learners (King-Sears 1997:16; Nabuzoka & Ronning 1997:112). Training in social skills and disability education needs to be integrated into the curriculum.

iv.   Disability education

Learners who experience barriers to learning may need to learn various functional, personal and social skills in their inclusive classrooms (Lomofsky & Skuy 2001:204). Non-disabled learners should be taught to see that difference does not have to mean separate or segregated. They do, however, need information about the different learning needs and behaviour patterns of peers (Paul et al. 1995:333). This may be particularly important if a learner is medically fragile or has physical limitations.

Salend (1998:159) suggests the following as strategies to teach learners appropriate knowledge and attitudes about disabilities:

- Teachers model attitudes and behaviours that are consistent with an inclusive philosophy, i.e., valuing difference and including diverse learners.

- Disability simulations may help learners feel what it is like to live with a disability or to use some form of adaptive device. Teachers should be aware, however, that simulation activities have limited use and cannot begin to approximate the life world of those with disabilities. They may, however help to create empathy and respect.

- Exposing learners to successful individuals with disabilities.

- Reading books and watching films about individual differences.

Teachers in inclusive classrooms thus have to consider the ways in which their instructional techniques, arrangements and content will contribute to the support of diverse learners. They cannot, however, fail to consider assessment as it forms an integral part of the teaching and learning process.

e.   Assessment

Assessment is the process by which learners and teachers can determine the extent to which learning outcomes have been achieved. At classroom level, assessment should fulfil a number of purposes including that of informing the teaching and learning process and identifying the need for support. In an inclusive education system, assessment has to address barriers to learning and, as such, has to be authentic. This means that multiple forms of assessment are needed to enable learners to demonstrate their learning in diverse ways (Lipsky & Gartner 1996:780; Schnorr, Black & Davern 2000:14). So, in additional to traditional pen and paper assessment, a teacher in a heterogeneous classroom can use demonstrations, role-plays, posters, performances, interviews, oral reports, diagrammes and other tasks that would provide evidence of learning. Teachers can also use portfolios to gather evidence of learners' progress over time. Diversity in the classroom should be acknowledged in assessment through bias-free assessment tasks that are gender and culturally sensitive. Classroom assessments may indicate that individual learners who experience barriers to learning require further diagnostic assessment that can identify specific learning needs or the need for specific modifications to assessment.

Teaching, learning and assessment in an inclusive classroom of diverse learners may be further enhanced by the use of technology.

f.   Technology

Accessible technology can enrich the learning opportunities of learners in an inclusive classroom. This technology includes the computer software that is designed to assist learners who need reinforcement, practice or even instruction in various subjects or learning areas. Word processors and presentation packages enable learners to overcome spelling and handwriting difficulties and multi-media encyclopaedias can provide easy viewing of film clips or photographs which are of particular benefit to learners who favour the visual modality. Digital personal organisers can also be used in the classroom, enabling learners to keep track of tests, assignments and other tasks. Although all learners may benefit from their use, Male (2003:71) regards these technologies as being essential for those who experience learning difficulties.

It is clear that teachers in inclusive classrooms need to consider many aspects of their practice and make changes that ensure effective teaching and learning for all members of the class. There may, however, still be some learners who would require specific consideration and support measures to enable them to access the curriculum and participate in the life of the classroom. This support should be designed for individual learners in the light of their particular barrier or barriers to learning.

3.3.4.4 Inclusive practices for the support of individual learners

Lingard (1996:42) cautions that employing all the strategies that benefit children who experience barriers to learning, does not mean that certain children will not still need more structured teaching and individual attention. Some learners will come into inclusive classrooms with already identified barriers to learning, but for others, teachers may suspect barriers to learning and may need to refer learners to the SBST with a view to diagnostic assessment. While general inclusive classroom practices may to some extent address these barriers to learning, specific interventions and support will have to be planned and implemented.

a.   Planning for individual learners

Much as teachers need to plan for their heterogeneous classes, they also need to plan to meet the needs of individual learners. Baker and Zigmond (1995:172) observed the planning that occurred at the inclusive schools that they studied. They were concerned to note that although planning

included input from special education teachers about adaptations and accommodations that would make learning more accessible to those who experienced difficulties and discussion about who would teach what in co-teaching arrangements; it did not include planning to meet the needs of individual learners. Planning for the individual needs of learners who experience barriers to learning should not be forgotten as class wide interventions are planned.

On an individual level, inclusion requires planning to ensure that participation is going to be meaningful. Plans need to acknowledge not just the year but also a future vision for each learner (Bradley et al. 1997:169). In this regard it becomes most important to include not only parents but also the learners who experience difficulties in decision making and the development of methods that ensure effective participation (Florian 1998:22). The SBST could also involve other professionals (like therapists) who are involved with an individual learner. Possible steps in a planning process for learners who experience difficulties include: determining the goal or outcome; identifying where the learner is currently; determining the steps required to achieve the goal or outcome; establishing a time frame for the implementation of the plan; planning in detail; allocating responsibilities and resources and then evaluating as the first step in the next planning cycle. The development of an IEP could be a part of the plan and plans should be regularly reviewed and updated.

b.   Individualised Education Programme (IEP)

In an attempt to address the individual needs, abilities, experiences and background of learners (Salend 1998:105), some schools (especially in the USA) use a system of IEPs for some learners. An IEP in the USA must, according to the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act of 1999 (34 CFR 300.347), be reviewed on an annual basis and contain a description of a child's educational performance, annual goals and objectives, a statement of which special education or other services a child requires and a description of instructional and assessment modifications that a child requires. Aiello and Bullock (1999:99) maintain that the IEP is an essential component of inclusion. The IEP acknowledges difference among learners and ensures that instructionally relevant interventions are planned and implemented to enable individual learners to succeed.

Christensen (1996:70) is of the opinion, however, that IEPs are not without drawbacks. She maintains that it individualises the problem, saying that it is "embedded in a notion of individual need focused on individual deficit or pathology". An IEP is only compiled on confirmation by

expert assessment of a special need. It thus contributes to the continuation of labelling and categorising learners. It rests on an assimilationist assumption that the curriculum is unquestioned and learners need personalised modifications to compensate for their deficiencies. Granting IEPs to some learners exempts the system from critical evaluation and thwarts the development of approaches that include all learners (Ainscow 1999:199; Booth & Ainscow 1998:46). An IEP can limit participation and foster the exclusion of some learners from the learning experiences of their peers.

Despite these concerns, IEPs remain an effective way to ensure that teaching, learning and assessment are appropriate for individual learners, especially when adapted or modified curriculum or assessment is required. It thus seems that provided that it is used with due consideration of its limits, the IEP has a role in ensuring the support that will allow access and participation for learners who experience barriers to learning. In addition to adaptations and modifications to curriculum, IEPs may specify modifications to the classroom environment that are required for individual learners.

c.   Modifying the classroom environment

The classroom environment itself may be a barrier to learning and teachers should address these barriers by modifying the classroom environment. Classrooms should be arranged in such a way to ensure mobility by those who use wheelchairs or other mobility devices. Light switches, shelves and counters need to be at a height appropriate for a learner in a wheelchair. If learners are easily distracted or need to work on their own, they may benefit from working at individual study carrels or may need to be seated near to the teacher. Learners with albinism may be light sensitive and would need appropriate accommodation. Teachers in South Africa may face challenges such as overcrowding and lack of resources when seeking to modify their classrooms. These may be factors over which individual teachers have little control (Kruger & Van Schalkwyk 1997:85) and which may need creative interim measures. It is, however, in the area of curriculum and assessment where teachers do have the opportunity to create individually relevant learning experiences for learners who experience barriers to learning.

d.   Curriculum accommodations, adaptations and modifications

Together with the move from a medical model of disability, comes the need to look critically at the curriculum as a potential barrier to learning. No longer is the problem seen as being inherent in the learner, but rather as a problem with how teaching and learning is designed. When lessons fail the focus should be on the appropriateness or inappropriateness of the curriculum, not on the shortcomings of the learners. Darling-Hammond and Falk (1997:55) maintain that because all learners learn differently and bring different life experiences to their learning, no one highly prescriptive curriculum can be regarded as equally effective for all learners. Modifications and adaptations may need to be made to enable learners to experience success. Effective curriculum adaptations perform at least one of the following functions: they compensate for intellectual, sensory or other challenges; they allow for current skills to be used while acquiring new skills; they prevent a mismatch between the learner's skill and that of the content of the general lesson and they make content relevant by reducing the level of abstraction (Udvari-Solner & Thousand 1995:155).

The words accommodation, adaptation and modification are sometimes used interchangeably to denote ways in which curriculum can be changed to make it accessible by all learners. A useful distinction can be made between accommodations and adaptations. Accommodations can be seen as modifications to instruction or learner performance that do not change the "content or conceptual difficulty of the curriculum" (Bradley et al. 1997:240). Examples are allowing a learner to listen to a novel to be studied on a tape-recorder, allowing for oral rather than written performance or doing every alternate problem on a maths worksheet. Adaptations are the modifications that are made that do require some change to the content or the conceptual difficulty of the curriculum. Examples are allowing learners to use a calculator for maths problems or when reporting on literature, a learner may be required to describe plot and character whereas the group work on the complexities of sub-plot, setting and themes.

Bradley et al. (1997:240) mention other modifications as "parallel instruction", in which the content area remains the same for all learners, but the conceptual difficulty of the curriculum is significantly altered. Thus, in maths, one learner may complete a worksheet of elementary maths while others are working on complex operations. "Overlapping instruction" is described as modifying the expectations of certain learners while they participate in a common activity. A learner may distribute laboratory equipment to a class performing an experiment. Rather than being expected to

perform the experiment, the learner may have to count and sort equipment and engage with learners when distributing the apparatus.

In South Africa, curriculum modifications should be made within the framework of the national curriculum. Learners who experience barriers to their learning are also expected to work towards achieving the developmental and learning outcomes envisioned by the RNCS. They may require different expectations in terms of the time needed to attain outcomes and the materials and approaches used to teach to the outcomes may need modification. This would be guided by the Department of Education's published guidelines on curriculum modifications for learners who experience barriers to learning. Assessment is a significant area where modifications can be made for individual learners.

e.   Assessment modifications

Assessment may need to be modified to minimise the impact of barriers to learning on the assessment performance of learners and different barriers would require different modifications to the assessment task (DoE 2002d:9). Modifications may be made to the task itself or may be made to the way the task is performed. Modifications may also be made to grading and to the reporting process.

i.   Modified tasks

In order for learners to experience success, an assessment task may need to be modified to make it accessible to learners who experience barriers to learning. An example of a task modification is rather than dictating spelling words in a spelling test, the teacher provides a learner with possible spelling options for the word and the learner chooses one (Mayberry & Lazarus 2002:23). Scaffolding (like answer banks or clues) can be built into tasks for learners who experience barriers to learning and content or number of tasks can be reduced. Modified tasks are particularly appropriate if learners are working with an adapted curriculum but should be used with caution. Assessment validity may be compromised if barriers to learning are compensated for (DoE 2002d:9). Also, assessment results should reveal, not hide any need for support or intervention so that barriers to learning can be addressed.

ii.   Modified performance

Even if the task itself need not (or cannot) be modified, some learners still require modifications in the way they perform the task. Common performance modifications include:

- Allocating additional time, even allowing learners to complete a task or test over many days;
- Allowing learners to take tests orally or with a scribe (amanuensis) or to record answers on cassettes so that their writing barriers do not impede their ability to demonstrate their learning;
- Learners having tests read to them so that their reading difficulties do not detract from their ability to perform an assessment task;
- Learners with sensory or physical barriers using adapted material, assistive devices and interpretation like Braille, Dictaphones, tapes or computers with voice synthesisers for those with visual impairment, sign language interpretation, computers and video recording for hearing impaired or deaf learners and use of computers, with or without adapted keyboards for those with physical barriers. All these learners would require additional time for assessment tasks.

There is little empirical evidence about the effects of modifications on learners' test scores. Studies seem to suggest that additional time (the most widely used modification) does make a significant difference in performance to learners who experience barriers to learning. The additional time given reduces test anxiety and provides the opportunity to use appropriate test strategies (Elliot & Marquart 2004:350 – 351,365).

iii.   Modified environment

The barriers that some learners experience require that the assessment environment be modified. Another venue may be required because of the equipment or personnel needed that would be distracting to other learners, or because a learner's barrier is such that he or she is very distracted by movement and noise. Medical requirements (like epilepsy or physical limitations), pregnancy, trauma, illness or injury may also necessitate an alternative venue and possibly extra time, too (DoE 2002d:18).

iv.   Modified grading

Some teachers modify their grading practices for learners who experience barriers to learning. In South Africa, spelling and handwriting concessions are awarded as a grading modification to certain learners.   This means that these learners are not penalised for incorrect spelling or untidy handwriting in a task, whereas other learners would be penalised. Modified grading is debated in the literature. The dilemma in grading is whether the same standard should be applied for everyone, certainly resulting in failure and discouragement for the learner who experiences barriers to learning, or whether grading standards can be modified or adapted. If grading criteria are adjusted, there is concern that standards would be compromised. Bursuck, Plante, Epstein, Jayanthi and McConeghy (1996:311) found in their study that teachers felt it was fair to make accommodations for students with disabilities. Their reasons included the additional effort required from students with disabilities, the feeling that students should not be penalised for a condition beyond their control and the need for modifications or adaptations. Some teachers deemed it unfair to offer modified grading only to those with disabilities. These teachers felt that there are students who could benefit from adaptations in grading but because they do not qualify for special education status, they are excluded from this benefit. Extenuating circumstances like a death in the family might necessitate modified grading, even though the student is not disabled.

In an outcomes-based system, learners' performance is evaluated against the assessment standards prescribed for each grade and marks (or grades) give way to performance levels. Rubrics provide in a qualitative form the criteria required to meet the assessment standard and indicate the possible extent to which learners can attain the criteria (usually ranging from 'not attained' to 'highly competent'). Rubrics may, however, be modified for learners who experience barriers to learning to reflect more appropriate criteria (Bradley & Calvin 1998:27).

Reporting should be an integral part of assessment and if assessment is modified, it may be necessary to modify the recording and reporting process.

f.   Reporting

If modifications have been made to assessments in the light of individual needs, the challenge comes in the area of reporting. A standardised report card that reflects grades or symbols can no longer be regarded as an effective tool in communicating learner progress and performance to his or her parents. Learners in any one class may be working towards different outcomes, or the level of

performance on an outcome may have been modified for a learner who experiences barriers to learning. Schools that include learners who experience barriers to learning use various reporting practices. These include: changing the weight of individual tasks that make up the total for the reporting period (Bursuck et al. 1996:308); providing work samples with the feedback that goes home to parents (in this regard, portfolios can be useful in providing information about process, progress and product) and reports may be adjusted to reflect modified criteria. In this way parents can see the alterations made to the curriculum to enable the learner to experience success (Bradley & Calvin 1998:26,28).

While many of these assessment modifications are possible in internal school assessments, and in particular during formative assessments, external examinations are not always as flexible.

g.   Standardised external assessments

While internal assessments may lend themselves to modification, standardised external assessments present challenges to the inclusive school. Such assessments are not equally accessible to all (Darling-Hammond & Falk 1997:57) for reasons that include different competence as well as different contextual knowledge that learners bring to the assessment. In South Africa, provision is made in the external Senior Certificate (matric) examination for learners who experience barriers to learning to apply for various concessions. In independent schools that write the examinations of the Independent Examinations Board, concessions are allowed for various barriers to learning, including AD(H)D, and various learning disabilities, but not for intellectual impairment. The onus is on schools to provide professional reports that attest to the learners' barriers to learning. Concessions may be granted in terms of time, spelling and handwriting.

The modifications to curriculum and assessment prescribed by an IEP may, for some learners, include the provision of assistive devices or other technological support.

h.   Technology

An individual learner who experiences barriers to learning may need to rely on technology to facilitate access and participation in the general classroom. Technology is available in the form of assistive devices that offer learners independence and the opportunity to enjoy maximum success (Mayberry & Lazarus 2002:84). These include:

- Devices to assist those who are partially sighted or blind, like taped books, speech recognition software or Braille translators;

- Hearing aids, captions or sub-titles for audio-visual material for those who are hard of hearing;

- Electronic or manual communication boards for those who struggle with verbal communication;

- Mechanical reachers for those who are confined to wheelchairs;

- Keyboard adaptations or alternatives and software that is designed for people with physical disabilities.

Those who experience developmental delay may benefit by using computer-assisted instruction, computer simulated situations to practise social and other skills and communication devices that can assist with social interactions. In South Africa, DSTs are responsible for ensuring that required devices are available at schools (DoE 2002d:10). The Department of Social Development may provide assistive devices such as hearing aids and wheelchairs and special schools may be a source for learning materials in Braille (DoE 2001a:21,30).

In these ways, individual learners are provided with the support that they need to access and participate in meaningful learning experiences. Support, however, must be provided in an appropriate and empowering way (Udvari-Solner & Thousand 1995:161) that does not perpetuate deficit models of responding to barriers to learning.

3.3.4.5 Support

This section has described school-wide, classroom and individually tailored practices that facilitate inclusion. In a school that serves a diverse learner population, human and material resources are harnessed to support all learners and in particular those who experience barriers to learning. Support may be regarded as the cornerstone of inclusion, so much so that Katsiyannis et al. (1995:285) caution that inclusion should not be pursued if the necessary supports are not in place. However, consideration must be given to the possibility that support as a concept could in fact perpetuate a mainstreaming or medical model, i.e. that some learners are somehow deficient and need to be supported to achieve inflexible curriculum demands.

Attempts to accommodate learners with diverse learning needs by adapting or modifying classroom practices can be criticised in the same way. Such efforts can be seen to reflect an assimilationist view of diversity in that the curriculum and traditional teaching practice is assumed to be a valid construct and that there is something wrong with those who cannot meet its demands. This view holds that learners who experience barriers to learning should be valued for the role they play in pointing to the need for curriculum reform and the revision of teaching and learning. In this regard, Ainscow (1995:150), for example, contends that curriculum modifications and adjustments still represent a "more concealed" view of the deficit model in that difference is still negatively emphasised and special needs learners require approaches that others do not.

If, however, support can be conceived of as "all activities which increase the capacity of a school to respond to student diversity" (CSIE 2000:11), these concerns may be addressed. Support in an inclusive school is thus far more than having a special needs teacher provide remedial support for a special needs learner. Instead, support is about school culture, policies and practices that enable all learners to participate and succeed in an atmosphere of mutual respect. Implementing the changes that lead to quality education for all learners requires commitment to school development and improvement.

3.3.4.6 School improvement, effectiveness and inclusion

School improvement and school effectiveness are fundamental to whole school evaluation in South Africa (RSA 2001:7) and are concepts that arise in much of the international literature on inclusion (Paul et al. 1995:328; Rouse & Florian 1996:72; Schnorr, Black & Davern 2000:12; Sebba & Ainscow 1996:9; Skrtic 1991:159). Each of these concepts warrants brief mention and application to the South African context.

a.   School improvement and inclusion

School improvement theory is most often linked to inclusion through a project in the UK known as the IQEA (Improving the Quality of Education for All) project (Ainscow 1999:10; Parrilla 1998:94). This project is based on five principles, one of which is that schools embrace "*all* members of the school community as both learners and contributors" (Hopkins et al. 1997:262). The IQEA depends on the expertise within a school and the ability of schools as communities to generate solutions and bring about improvement (Barth, in Hopkins, Ainscow & West 1994:4; Reynolds 1997:252). This acknowledgement of the school's role in generating improvement is

echoed in South Africa's whole school evaluation process wherein schools are required to formulate and implement plans for improvement based on the findings of evaluation.

As schools in South Africa develop long term and short term strategic plans, attention needs to be given to the systematic identifying and removing of barriers that learners experience. There is a significant correlation between the barriers to learning at schools that are identified in the White Paper and the areas that need evaluation in the whole-school evaluation process in South Africa. These include: leadership and management; quality of teaching and learning and teacher development; curriculum provision and resources; learner achievement; school safety; school infrastructure and parents and the community (RSA 2001:13). During a school's self-evaluation process, it should critically examine the ways in which it causes learners to experience barriers to learning. The improvement plan should then include addressing these aspects with a view to creating an effective school that provides quality education for all.

b.   School effectiveness

School effectiveness as a theoretical paradigm asserts that schools make a difference to learner achievement. Researchers have compiled lists that demarcate the characteristics of effective schools and how these differ from ineffective schools. Many of the characteristics of effective schools focus on learner outcomes as measured by performance tests (Aspin & Chapman 1998:28). Relevant to inclusion is the concern that effective schools do not necessarily show learner achievement across all ability levels (Hopkins et al. 1994:48). Because of the way effectiveness is measured, it is possible that inclusive schools may not be found to be effective schools and, with the pressure to raise academic standards, schools may feel some reluctance to admit learners who, because of the barriers to learning that they experience, may negatively affect school results (Barry 2000:28; Farrell & Ainscow 2002:2; Lunt & Norwich 1999:8,9).

South African schools may experience pressure to improve or maintain matric pass rates and this may result in exclusion of certain learners if it is feared that they might compromise the pass rate (Faller 2004:9). Principals need to develop an understanding that performance in examinations is only one indicator of quality in education (Barry 2000:28; Faller 2004:9) and that quality education for all (not some) should be the goal of improvement efforts. This has been addressed in South Africa's criteria for whole school evaluation as supervisors are required to assess whether learners with special educational needs are reaching expected performance levels and are learning at an

appropriate rate (DoE 2001b:20). Members of the supervisory teams who assess schools are required to have knowledge of the "key elements of good provision for Learners with Special Educational Needs" (RSA 2001:16). These criteria clearly indicate that in South Africa, meeting the needs of diverse learners is regarded as an aspect of quality assurance.

3.4   Conclusion

The inclusive practices described in this section serve as an overview of possible effective practices that schools and teachers could use in their quest for greater inclusively. The notion that there is a best way to practise inclusion should rather give way to the idea that the best strategy in any situation will be that which considers the skills of teachers, the needs of learners and the availability of resources. Schools and their contexts are complex and to prescribe inclusive practice would deny this complexity. A classroom is characterised by vitality and vibrancy and at any given time reflects a unique interplay of teacher, learners and wider context. Schools and teachers need a repertoire of strategies from which to choose (Waldron, in Walther-Thomas & Brownell 2001:177) and the collaborative reflection of teachers will determine the most appropriate approach in any given situation (Ballard 1999:2; McLeskey, in Walther-Thomas & Brownell 2001:177).

This literature review has sought to orientate the reader to some of the concerns of writers in the field of inclusion, both locally and internationally. A particular focus has been on learners who experience barriers to learning with an emphasis on the South African context. Their inclusion in ordinary schools necessitates the restructuring of these schools to ensure that they receive the support necessary for access and participation. The experience of other countries in this regard can inform South African practice and can be adapted to suit the local context. Inclusive practice as described in this chapter is therefore both a description of what schools do and a vision of what schools should or could do as they seek to provide quality education for all their learners. An identified gap in the literature is that of the inclusive practices of the independent school sector in South Africa. The reviewed literature thus serves as a foundation for the empirical study into this problem. The next chapter outlines the methodology of the study designed to ascertain the extent to which learners who experience barriers to learning are included in the independent schools belonging to ISASA, and what practices they employ to facilitate inclusion.

Chapter 4: Research methodology and the administration of the questionnaire

4.1   Introduction

The previous chapters have established an understanding in the South African context of inclusion, the factors that give rise to barriers to learning and the ways in which ordinary (rather than special) schools can implement inclusive practices to support learners who experience barriers to learning. What has not been ascertained, however, is the extent to which this is applicable in the independent sector. It has emerged that there is some indication that independent schools are including learners who experience barriers to learning, yet evidence for this seems to be incidental or anecdotal. Hence an empirical study based on a questionnaire was designed and administered to determine more precisely the extent of inclusion of learners who experience various barriers to learning in these schools and the practices at school-wide and classroom levels that support these learners. The insights gained into inclusive practice from local and international literature were used as a basis for the questionnaire which was designed and administered with due consideration of research methodology.

4.2   Research design

Research in the social sciences is conducted either within the quantitative or the qualitative paradigm, or a combination of the two. The field of special needs education is a complex one that needs multiple research approaches, with the research question determining the appropriate method (Odom, Brantlinger, Gersten & Horner 2005:137,138). The research question in this study asks for numerical data and descriptive statistics to ascertain the extent and practice of inclusion in independent schools. As such, it requires a quantitative approach within a positivist paradigm. Quantitative research can be replicated (Fouché & Delport 2002:81; Mouton & Marais 1990:96) and therefore the research process is described in detail.

4.3   Research process

4.3.1   Securing permission from ISASA

Permission was sought from the national director of ISASA to conduct a study into the extent and practice of inclusion in ISASA member schools. A copy of the letter requesting permission is

included in Appendix 1. The positive response of ISASA included making the database available and endorsing the survey, on condition that the results be presented to ISASA on completion. A copy of the letter of endorsement from ISASA is provided in Appendix 2. The construction and administration of the survey could then proceed, first by ascertaining the key issues for investigation.

4.3.2   Identification of key issues

Inclusion is a multi-faceted concept and its implementation in schools covers a wide range of factors. It would be impossible to cover every aspect of inclusion in one study. It was therefore important to identify key issues that could be investigated to answer the research question. The literature review served as a basis from which these key issues could be derived. To answer the question of the extent to which learners who experience barriers to learning are included in ISASA schools, both intrinsic and extrinsic barriers to learning were considered and numerical data sought. The key issues that relate to the practice of inclusion are those of school-wide and classroom practices that ensure access, participation and support of learners who experience barriers to learning.

Consideration was given to those issues which may be important, but which would not be appropriate for a quantitative study. An example of this is school culture. Although it has been acknowledged as important to the development of inclusion in schools, questions on inclusive culture would inherently contain social desirability bias and might result in inaccurate reporting (Neuman 2000:257). Qualitative methods such as ethnography may be more appropriate to research into school culture (Zollers et al. 1999:161). When selecting aspects of inclusive practice for inclusion in the questionnaire, consideration was given to those aspects which would elicit common understanding and would lend themselves to the self-administered questionnaire format. Thus, strategy instruction and constructivism were omitted, as a lengthy explanation of these concepts would have to have been provided. To keep the questionnaire to an acceptable length, some aspects of inclusive practice described in the literature review, like keeping a special needs register and recruitment were also excluded as being peripheral to the key issues.

Having identified the key issues to be investigated, consideration was given to the way in which information on these issues was to be elicited from schools. The principals of the schools would be

in the best position to provide the required information and a self-administered questionnaire was deemed the most appropriate instrument.

4.3.3   The self-administered questionnaire as research instrument

The postal questionnaire has been identified as the best form of survey when engaging in educational enquiry (Niehaus 1999:175). It has a number of advantages, including the fact that a more truthful response can be elicited because the presence of the interviewer does not influence response (Ary, Jacobs & Razavieh 1990:421; Delport 2002:172; Neuman 2000:272), it is a time and cost efficient method of gathering information (Gay 1992:224), and it enables the researcher to survey schools across a wide geographical area. The respondents also have the time and opportunity to consult others if answers to questions are not immediately known (Fowler 1993:66; Neuman 2000:272). It can also be conducted by a single researcher.

There are limitations to the self-administered questionnaire that must be acknowledged. Questionnaires do not give the researcher the opportunity to check the answers received (Kerlinger 1986:380) and the conditions under which the questionnaire is completed cannot be controlled (Neuman 2000:272). A low return rate can also be a significant problem with postal questionnaires (Ary et al. 1990:421; Delport 2002:172; Kerlinger 1986:380). Generalising from the results of a survey where there has been a low response rate is difficult and validity is compromised if the population of non-respondents differs significantly from those who do respond. With due consideration of these limitations, the questionnaire was constructed.

4.3.4   Construction of the questionnaire

The questionnaire was carefully constructed in such a way that it would yield sufficient data to answer the research question as well as ensuring an acceptable response rate from participants. A number of questions were formulated and submitted to experts in the field of inclusive education and education research for their comments. The questions were revised in the light of these comments so that the final questionnaire was deemed comprehensive and all questions relevant to the overall research question. The questions were worded in such a way that they were clear, unambiguous and, where possible, jargon free. Consideration was given to:

- Types of question

Closed questions were mainly used as they are quick and easy for respondents to answer and are easier to code and analyse statistically (Fowler 1992:83; Delport 2002:180). Some questions in this questionnaire provided the respondent with the opportunity to specify an option that was not mentioned or to provide details about an answer.

- Grouping of questions

Questions were grouped thematically to ensure that the questionnaire flowed logically and respondents could move with ease from one question to the next. Biographical information was requested first, followed by contingency questions that separated schools into ordinary schools that include learners who experience barriers to learning, ordinary schools that do not include learners who experience barriers to learning, and special schools.

- Length and layout of the questionnaire

Although a shorter questionnaire may be considered desirable to increase response rate (Czaja & Blair 1996:36; Delport 2002:172), a lengthier questionnaire has been found to be acceptable to highly educated respondents (Neuman 2000:265). In this study, a longer, more comprehensive questionnaire was compiled to ensure that sufficient data could be gathered.

4.3.5   The pilot study

A pilot study was conducted with two aims. The first was to test the instrument. Respondents to the pilot questionnaire were asked not only to complete the questionnaire but to provide feedback about the clarity of questions, the format of the questionnaire and whether the directions were adequate (Fowler 1993:102; McMillan & Schumacher 2001:185; Strydom 2002:215). This feedback resulted in minor revisions of the questionnaire. The second aim of the pilot study was to get an idea of the responses that would be generated and the data that would be available. In particular, answers to open questions gave indication of possible variables that were then used as closed categories in the final questionnaire (Delport 2002:179).

The twenty-five schools chosen to participate in the pilot study were deliberately selected to ensure geographical spread, various types of school (primary and secondary) and schools serving a variety of socio-economic sectors (as indicated by the fees they charge). A particular attempt was made to include in the pilot at least some of the schools known to the researcher as schools that include

learners who experience barriers to learning. Such "information rich" (McMillan & Schumacher 2001:401) respondents were considered well placed to comment on the questionnaire. Eleven schools responded to the pilot study. Because of the relatively short time that elapsed between the pilot test and the final questionnaire, and because the changes made on the basis of the pilot were to layout rather than content, it was not necessary for schools that participated in the pilot also to complete the final questionnaire.

4.3.6   Administration of the questionnaire

The final questionnaire was sent electronically to the principal of 300 ISASA schools. Electronic distribution was recommended by the Communications Co-ordinator of ISASA as the way in which member schools were accustomed to receiving communications. Mention must be made of the discrepancy that appears in that ISASA counted nearly 500 member schools in November 2005 (ISASA 2005b) and yet only 300 questionnaires were distributed. The discrepancy is explained first by the exclusion of all pre-schools from the survey. Second, it should be noted that some combined primary and secondary ISASA schools are counted separately when determining ISASA membership but were counted together for this survey and sent one questionnaire. Because of the relatively small number of schools it was possible to target the whole population. A covering letter (Appendix 3) introduced the researcher, explained the importance and relevance of the research and requested co-operation in completing the questionnaire and returning it by electronic mail, post or fax. The letter from ISASA endorsing the research was also attached. The questionnaire itself is included in Appendix 4. Although complete confidentiality was guaranteed, the school's name was requested on the questionnaire to assist with the tracking of non-response. While it is acknowledged that the principal of a school may not immediately know the answers to all questions and may consult records or other staff, the expectation was that the principal would take responsibility for the timeous submission of accurate responses.

The researcher wished to avoid the busy beginning and ending to terms that might leave the questionnaire unanswered by principals. A challenge in this regard is that some ISASA schools follow a four term programme and others a three term programme. February 2005 was thus deemed the best month to conduct the pilot study and May 2005 the best month for sending out the final questionnaire. A follow-up letter and additional copy of the questionnaire was sent by post in July to non-respondents, urging their participation. The last responses were received by the end of August 2005.

4.3.7   Response rate

In 1996 Squelch (1997) conducted a research project in which independent schools in South Africa were surveyed by means of a postal questionnaire. A 34% response rate was achieved and this was deemed sufficient for the descriptive purpose of that study (Squelch 1997:130). In 2002, the HSRC survey of independent schools in South Africa yielded a 31.9% response rate to the postal questionnaire administered. The results of this survey were used to generate a report on the sector (Du Toit 2003a:385). These precedents suggested that a response from approximately a third of the total number of schools surveyed could be expected. In this study, 300 schools were sent questionnaires and 120 responded by the deadline date, representing a 40% response rate. This was deemed acceptable in the light of the other studies in the independent sector in South Africa. The returned questionnaires were then prepared for data analysis.

4.3.8   Analysis of data

4.3.8.1 Editing of data

Returned questionnaires were scrutinised before submitting them for data analysis. The particular concerns were to ensure completion and accuracy. Where data was missing or where the data appeared inaccurate, an attempt was made to contact the school concerned to gain the required or correct information. Corrections and additions were made based on the information supplied in response to these requests. In some cases, missing biographical information could be gleaned from the ISASA directory of schools. Not all schools approached provided the outstanding information and omissions were identified as 'missing information'. The researcher then added one further piece of information: a number that indicated the extent to which schools could be regarded as inclusive.

4.3.8.2 Assessing the extent of inclusivity

a.   Criteria for assessing inclusion in schools

Before submitting the questionnaires for statistical analysis, individual schools (with the exception of special schools and those schools which regarded themselves as non-inclusive) were assessed to ascertain the extent to which they could be deemed inclusive. To this end a tool was devised to determine, on a scale of one to four, the progress each school is making towards inclusion. As

confirmed by Potts (1998:25), any evaluation of moves towards inclusion in schools will reflect the way in which inclusion has been defined. Therefore, the definition of inclusion offered in chapter 2 (section 2.2.5.4) was used as a broad framework to group sub-sections of the questionnaire. The various components of the inclusion definition were formulated as criteria and evidence from the questionnaire was used to ascertain the extent to which schools meet the criteria. The assessment tool for inclusivity status (Appendix 5) offered a numeric score to schools in terms of the following criteria:

- Increasing participation and reducing exclusion, particularly of those who experience barriers to learning

Evidence for this criterion came from two sections of the questionnaire. The first was from schools' indication of the number of learners who experience barriers to learning. Scores were allocated based on diversity (how many different kinds of barrier to learning represented) and percentages of learners who experience barriers to learning in the school as a whole, and in the general classroom. The second source of evidence for this criterion came from the question that indicated schools' admission policies. A higher score was allocated to schools that seldom or never excluded learners, and no score was allocated to schools who always or usually applied four or more exclusions.

- Training and support for staff

Evidence for this criterion was established first by ascertaining the percentage of the total teaching staff that had training (formal or informal) in special needs education. Schools that had trained almost all their staff received the highest scores. Then the support for staff who taught learners who experienced barriers to learning was quantified in terms of what was often or sometimes provided. While specialist professional or therapist support may not necessarily be deemed essential to an inclusive school, schools were given credit for ensuring that such personnel were available to provide support to learners and teachers.

- Developing collaborative relationships

Evidence for collaboration was provided by the question that asked about the SBST. Those schools that had support teams that met frequently received the highest scores. Also, the question that ascertained support from families, community organisations and hospitals together with the question about using special schools as a resource contributed to a score in this category.

- Making modifications to instruction, the curriculum and the environment

The questions that provided evidence for this criterion were those that dealt with wheelchair access, instructional modifications, assessment modifications, use of technology or assistive devices and other general ways of addressing needs. Scores were allocated based on the extent to which these have been employed.

- Inclusive policy

The extent to which schools had inclusion policies, and or made reference to learners who experience barriers to learning in other policies was used to determine a score for this criterion.

b.   Determining levels of inclusivity

Without any external, objective means of categorising schools in terms of inclusivity, the following process was devised and applied: The scores given for each criterion were added and a total out of 91 for secondary schools and 88 for primary schools was calculated and converted into percentages. The totals were reduced to compensate when there was missing information. 102 of the 106 inclusive schools yielded sufficient data for scoring. Measures of central tendency were calculated on the percentages and the results are reflected in table 4.1.

Measures of central tendency: Scores of inclusivity assessment	
Mean	57.71569
Standard Error	1.309092
Median	60
Mode	65
Standard Deviation	13.22118
Range	62
Minimum	26
Maximum	88
Count	102

Table 4.1   Measures of central tendency on scores of inclusivity assessment

Using the mean and one standard deviation, levels of inclusivity were then set and are reflected in table 4.2.

If a school scored …	The level of inclusivity is …	Described as …
< 44,4%	1	Hardly inclusive
44,5% - 57,7%	2	Making progress towards inclusion
57,8% - 71%	3	Showing commitment to inclusion
> 71%	4	Highly inclusive

Table 4.2   Scores and level descriptors of inclusivity assessment

c.   Limits of this assessment

This assessment of inclusivity can be regarded as limited for a number of reasons. The first is that it is limited by the nature of the questionnaire. Schools may in fact be more or less inclusive than they appear in the analysis of their answers to the set questions. Ethnographical research may be more useful to establish how inclusive a school actually is. Second, if schools have made errors on their returns or they have not responded to certain questions, the evaluation can be positively or negatively skewed. The third limitation is in the construction of the assessment tool, in particular the weighting of the various criteria. Value judgements had to be made in assigning scores such that having a school based support team that met frequently was given more credit than having a variety of specialist personnel operating on the school property. It would be fair to assume that different perspectives and different emphases could yield different conclusions about how inclusive schools are. The use of the mean and standard deviation to determine categories is also acknowledged as highly limited and only a means of considering this group of schools. The schools have only been ranked in terms of themselves. Given a lack of precedent in any other South African studies, it may best be regarded as a first attempt to evaluate the extent of inclusivity in a given school.

Despite these limitations, the assessment does achieve its purpose, that is, broadly to classify responding schools into levels of inclusivity. It does give credit, however arbitrarily, to the efforts that schools are making in terms of increasing access and providing support. It has meant that at the end of the questionnaire, each school could be assigned a level with a descriptor which could be included in the statistical analyses of the data, both in terms of frequency and analyses of dependence. The limitations of this process were also deemed acceptable given that this was not the main focus of the study. Descriptive statistics were primarily required to answer the research question while some use of inferential statistics indicated relationships between some of the variables.

4.3.8.3 Statistical analyses

All statistical analyses were done with the SAS statistical package, version 9.0.

a.   Descriptive statistics

Descriptive statistics are procedures that organise and summarise the data for ease of comprehension and utilisation (De Vos, Fouché & Venter 2002:225). Measures of central tendency and frequency distribution were calculated for each of the variables. This univariate analysis provides useful information that contributes to answering the research question, as well as providing the foundation for further investigation of the relationship between the variables.

i.   Measures of central tendency

The raw data from the questionnaires was first analysed to establish central tendency. Central tendency indicates the central location or the most typical or most representative value in a distribution of observations (Runyon, Haber, Pittenger & Coleman 1996:108). Measures of central tendency include the mode (the most frequently occurring score), the median (the middle point in the distribution of the scores) and the mean (the arithmetic average of the scores). The measure of central tendency used with this data is the mean. It is the most accurate of the measures of central tendency as it uses all the scores (De Vos et al. 2002:237). The standard deviation then indicates the average variability of the scores. A relatively small standard deviation would indicate that respondents reacted similarly to the question and a relatively large standard deviation would indicate that the respondents gave very diverse responses. Calculating the mean indicates where scores cluster, but is limited in that it is sensitive to extreme scores. It is thus also useful to consider the frequency with which responses are distributed in the sample population.

ii.   Frequency distribution

Frequency distributions further explain and substantiate the results of the calculation of the mean. The frequency is the number of times each score occurs and the frequency distribution shows in an organised form the number of times the scores occur in the set of data. Frequency distributions may be simple or grouped, depending on the data. Relative frequency is shown by calculating the data in percentages, thus indicating the proportion of the total represented by each value. Cumulative frequencies and percentage distribution further describe the data by indicating the number or

percentage of values that are greater than or less than a particular value (De Vos et al. 2002:229). The frequency distribution, relative and cumulative frequencies of the data in this study are presented in table form. Having established the frequencies of variables, the data can further be interpreted by bivariate analysis to indicate the relationship between variables.

b.   Inferential statistics

Inferential statistics are used to determine whether the sample data represents a relationship in the population (Heiman 2004:118). In this study, inferential statistics can establish whether relationships exist between some of the variables and thus whether the formulated null hypothesis can be rejected. Based on these results, inferences about the population can be drawn. Inferential statistics use parametric or non-parametric tests. Parametric tests require that the data is drawn from a normally distributed population. In this study, however, a non-parametric test is required because of uncertainty that the data comes from a normally distributed population and the sample size is relatively small (Runyon et al. 1996:576,577). Because the data is nominal (indicating categories that respondents fall into), the chi-square (χ^2) test is used. This test requires the use of frequencies, that the observations are independent and that the sample size is sufficient (preferably not less than 5). The two-way χ^2 test determines whether the frequency of membership of a category on one variable is dependent or independent of the frequency of membership of a category on the other variable (Heiman 2004:254). Whether or not the results are statistically significant or not is then ascertained. If the probability associated with a specific χ^2 value is less than 0.05 (or 0.1, or 0.01, or 0.001), it indicates significance on the 5% levels of significance (or 10%; or 1% or 0.1% levels of significance). 0.05 is the criterion probability usually required for statistical significance (Heiman 2004:114; Runyon et al. 1996:387) and it is at this level ($\alpha \leq 0.05$) that a null hypothesis (H_o) can be rejected in favour of an alternate hypothesis (H_1). In some cases where the chi-square test could not be accurately performed because of low frequencies, Fisher's Exact Test was performed and probabilities calculated.

4.3.8.4 Verbal description of some data

Some questions were open questions which yielded data not easily converted to numbers and subjected to statistical analysis. This data was therefore described verbally, with a strong reliance on the respondents' own words to convey the information.

4.3.9   Recording, reporting and interpreting the data

The sub-sections of the questionnaire were designed such that cumulatively they would yield answers to the research question. Chapter 5 records and reports on the findings of each section with discussion on the interpretation of the findings. Such interpretation considers the significance of the data both within the research study, and its broader meaning in the light of theory and reviewed literature (De Vos et al. 2002:223). The findings and interpretations are presented with due consideration of the research tradition in which it operates.

4.4   Reflection on the research methodology

Bak (2004:75) urges critical reflection of the theoretical perspectives and research methods with which research is conducted and an acknowledgement of alternative approaches. This study, with its emphasis on descriptive data, is conducted within a broadly empirical or positivist framework. It is not, however, a framework that is used uncritically.

4.4.1   Criticisms of a positivist paradigm

Surveys, with an emphasis on numeric data, are generally associated with positivist metatheory. Positivist or empirical research in the field of inclusion has been widely criticised. There are those who take issue with any assumption that positivist research can generate scientific knowledge that can be generalised across contexts and used in schools. Because each school or classroom interaction is regarded a unique and complex blend of individuals, cultures and ideologies, the notion that some universal best practice can be discovered is rejected (Ballard 1999:171; Dyson & Millward 1999:163). This view holds that the value in inclusion research lies in increasing the repertoire of possible strategies that teachers could use (Ainscow 1998:13).

Other authors question the way that positivist research in the field of inclusion may silence the voices of people with disabilities and perpetuate oppression in some form (Ballard 1999:171; Barton & Clough 1995:144). Ballard (1999:172) even contends that research that does not directly engage with disabled learners and others to challenge oppressive practice at best has no value and may even help to maintain prejudiced attitudes towards the disabled. Thus when research is concerned with learners who are categorised as living with a disability, a critical evaluation of the

classification system itself should be required, lest researchers validate and perpetuate questionable practices (Armstrong, Armstrong & Barton 1998:35; Slee & Weiner 2001:117).

Social constructivist approaches reject a positivist assumption that inclusion is an objective phenomenon that can be discovered or observed. Instead, social constructivism is concerned to make explicit the way that research constructs what is said to be inclusion knowledge and inclusive practice through the complex interaction of researchers and those involved in studies (Clough & Barton 1995:2; Danforth & Rhodes 1997:359). The notion that the researcher is somehow neutral and objective is rejected in favour of an understanding of how the values, motivations and choices that researchers make will determine the outcomes of research and so contribute to the construction of knowledge (Bines 1995:43).

The alternatives to traditional positivist research in the field of inclusion include: participant research (Ballard 1997:252); narrative methodologies (Ainscow 1999:3); making explicit the voice of the researcher (Barton & Clough 1995:143); seeking to discover the authentic voice of research subjects (Ballard 1999:171); and, using some of the approaches of deconstructivism, critical reflection of the research process (Slee & Weiner 2001:94). Despite these criticisms, an empirical approach has been used in the field of inclusion research (for example, Janney, Snell, Beers, and Raynes (1995) and Jordan, Lindsay and Stanovich (1997)) and can be justified for a number of reasons.

4.4.2   Justification for positivist research

Katsiyannis et al. (1995:285) specifically note that the majority of states in the USA had, at the time of their writing, gathered quantitative data on the number of school districts experimenting with inclusive practice and, relevant to this study, had numbers and percentages of students with disabilities who were included in general education settings. Various authors draw attention to the need for empirical research in the field of inclusion. For example, Katsiyannis et al. (1995:285) and Kavale and Forness (2000:289) contend that a systematic data-based evaluation of inclusive practices had not been achieved, and Clark, Dyson and Millward (1998:163) draw attention to the lack of empirical investigation in the work of key inclusion theorists such as Skrtic, Udvari-Solner and Thousand.

Hunt and Goetz (1997:24) surveyed a number of research reports on the inclusion of learners with severe disabilities. In their discussion of the research, they note that most research could be categorised into systems level research that focused on classrooms, schools and personnel, and research at the level of individual learners. They note that of the systems level research, investigations used either qualitative methods or small-sample quantitative methods. According to these authors, systems level research could be valued for the rich information base that it provides and which can then be used for the creation of future research questions.

The perspectives and insights of these authors have implications for this study.

4.4.3 Implications for this study

This brief view of positivist research in the field of inclusion grounds this study in the wider discourse on research methodology. Despite criticism, the positivist or empirical approach used in this study can be justified as a widely used methodology, and in terms of what it can contribute to knowledge. In particular, positivist research has been called on to provide guidelines that would result in the improvement of practice at a time when postmodern research methods seem to balk at providing clear conclusions or recommendations for action (Contas 1998:28). This seems particularly relevant in the South African context where inclusion is new and research is developing in this field. The questionnaire developed for this study has two main components: questions to gather data about the numbers of learners who experience barriers to learning in ordinary schools, and questions about the inclusive practices of schools. Both of these have been shown to be used in research in inclusion in the USA.

In South Africa, there is evidence of research in the field of inclusion at both systems level (e.g. Dladla 2004; Kgothule 2004; Price 2002), and at the level of individual learners (e.g. Collair 2001; Holz & Lessing 2002; Paulsen 2004). This study focuses on school-wide and classroom practices and would thus be aligned with research internationally and locally into inclusion at systems level. In the light of the conclusions reached by Hunt and Goetz (1997:24), it is reasonable to expect to make some inferences from the data, even if the sample is small. Importantly, the research should yield information that would lead to further questions and further research.

The concerns raised by those who question the positivist approach cannot, however, be entirely dismissed. They have forced consideration of the following with regard to this study: that by

investigating the inclusion of learners who experience barriers to learning in schools, there is an uncritical assumption that this is a distinct category of learner and the research thus perpetuates the us and them mentality; that by addressing a questionnaire to principals, the voice of learners and their parents has been entirely excluded in the research design, thus perpetuating the marginalisation of the disabled; that by focusing narrowly on practice, the wider system has avoided critique; and finally that by taking the independent schooling within the South African education system as given, it is regarded as unproblematic. An exploration of these issues is, however, beyond the scope of the study.

4.5   Conclusion

Inclusion is relatively new in South Africa and the research base is still developing. There are few precedents on which to base an enquiry and this exploration of the extent and practice of inclusion in ISASA schools reflects a tentative probe into what schools are doing at a particular point in time. The research was designed within an empirical framework, using quantitative methods, although not without recognition of the limitations that this framework represents. The self-administered questionnaire was used with due consideration of its inherent limitations. Despite these, the data gathered was expected to yield useful information about the learners who experience barriers to learning who are being included in ISASA schools, and about the school-wide and classroom practices that ensure that these learners are effectively supported. The findings and discussion of the data follow in the next chapter.

Chapter 5: Data analysis: Findings and discussion

5.1 Introduction

The administration of a questionnaire to the principals of ISASA schools yielded responses that answer the research question of the extent to which learners who experience barriers to learning are included in these schools and the practices that facilitate their inclusion. The data obtained from the responses to the questionnaire required organisation, presentation and interpretation. Descriptive statistics, with a focus on the mean and frequency distribution, were primarily used to summarise and describe the data. It is thus possible to record the average response to each question as well as the number of times a particular response occurred. Although the research question is primarily answered with these descriptive statistics, inferential statistics have also been harnessed to establish whether relationships exist between some of the variables. Before discussing and interpreting the data, it is necessary to describe the responding schools and to establish how representative the responding population is of the total population. That is, how the profile of responding ISASA schools compares with the profile of ISASA schools and all independent schools in South Africa.

5.2 Profile of responding schools

The profile of the 120 responding schools is determined by the data gained from "biographical information" (question 1 and question 2) in the questionnaire. Where possible, the profile of responding schools has been compared with information from ISASA about their membership profile, and with the results of the HSRC survey of independent schools compiled in 2002. Such comparisons cannot be expected to yield exact results because the data has not been gathered in the same year or within the same parameters. All that can be expected would be to ascertain whether the profile of responding schools is broadly representative of ISASA's constituency, and representative of all independent schools in South Africa.

The responding schools are profiled as follows:

5.2.1 Location of schools

The largest response to the survey came from Gauteng (45 responses), the province where ISASA has the most members. The smallest response (two responses) came from the Free State and

Swaziland, both areas where ISASA has relatively fewer members (ISASA 2004:20,30). No responses were received from ISASA schools in the Northern Province, Mozambique, Lesotho and Namibia and one response was received from a school in Botswana after the data analysis was complete. The provincial distribution of responding schools by province reflects to some extent the provincial distribution of all independent schools in South Africa. Gauteng has the highest number of independent schools (32,4% of the total), followed by KwaZulu Natal (22.3%) and the Western Cape (14,3%) (Du Toit 2003b). The frequency table for these responses is provided in Appendix 6, table 6.1.1.

5.2.2   Type of school

5.2.2.1 Primary, secondary or combined

Schools vary in the way they classify themselves as primary, secondary or combined primary and secondary schools. For the purpose of this study, for a school to be categorised as a secondary school, it had to serve grade 11 or 12 learners, i.e., any school that served learners from grade one to grade ten was categorised as mainly primary.

More than half the responding schools (63 schools) were primary or mainly primary, while less than 20% of responding schools (22 schools) were mainly secondary schools. Thirty-five schools (almost 30% of responding schools) were combined primary and secondary schools. Without data from ISASA on its membership in this regard, the HSRC's survey can be used for comparison. Across all independent schools in 2002, 45.8% of schools were primary schools, 12.1% were secondary schools and 42.2% were combined schools (Du Toit 2003b). The frequency table for these responses is provided in Appendix 6, table 6.1.2.

5.2.2.2 Ordinary (mainstream) or special/remedial

The ISASA directory does not distinguish between ordinary and special schools. This study is primarily concerned with inclusion in ordinary schools. Special schools were requested to answer questions on the support they provide to ordinary schools and the extent to which this support is being utilised and they did not complete the majority of the questions in the questionnaire. 113 of the 120 responding schools (94.17%) were ordinary (mainstream) schools which would provide

data on the extent and practice of inclusion. This frequency table is provided in Appendix 6, table 6.1.3.

5.2.3   School size

Schools varied considerably in terms of their size, as determined by number of learners enrolled. Calculation of the mean reveals that the average size of the responding schools is 362 learners. The large standard deviation of 228.3621 indicates a wide range of responses. The frequency table (provided in Appendix 6, table 6.1.4) reveals that 5% of responding schools serve more than 799 learners and that 10% of responding schools serve fewer than 100 learners. Seventy-five percent of responding schools serve fewer than 499 learners.

The HSRC survey of independent schools in 2002 (Du Toit 2003b) noted 54.8% of schools serving fewer than 300 learners, whereas 45.83% of respondents to this survey serve learners in this category. 29.5% of schools in the HSRC survey serve between 301 – 600 learners whereas 37.5% of respondents to this survey serve this number.

There were 43 382 learners enrolled in the schools that participated in this study.

5.2.4   Fees charged

One of the ways in which independent schools categorise themselves is in terms of the fees that are charged (Hofmeyr & Lee 2004:157). The six fee categories presented to respondents in question 1.4 of the questionnaire were supplied by ISASA at the beginning of 2005 and are slightly different for primary schools and secondary schools.

5.2.4.1 Primary schools

The frequency table (included in Appendix 6, table 6.1.5.1) reveals that of the responding primary schools, 39 charge above R19 000 per annum (the highest fee category). Twenty-three primary schools charge between R13 000 and R19 000 per annum, and 18 primary schools charge between R7 500 and R13 000 per annum. The remaining 15 primary schools charge below R 7 500 per annum. Thus, the majority of responding primary schools charge in the upper three fee categories, with less than a half of responding primary schools charging in the top fee category. This is

consistent with ISASA's observation that more than half of their member schools charge in categories below the top category (ISASA 2004:4).

5.2.4.2 Secondary schools

Thirty of the responding secondary schools charge in excess of R24 000 per annum, with a further 13 responding secondary schools charging between R16 000 and R24 000 per annum. The remaining 13 responding secondary schools charge less than R16 000 per annum. Thus, slightly more than half (54%) of the responding secondary schools charge in the top fee category. The frequency table for these responses is provided in Appendix 6, table 6.1.5.2.

5.2.4.3 Comparison with ISASA and independent schools

Most ISASA member schools charge fees in the upper three categories, but less than half of all schools charge in the top fee category (ISASA 2005b). This indicates that the schools responding to this survey are broadly representative of ISASA schools in terms of fees charged. The schools responding to this survey are not, however, representative of independent schools in general in South Africa in terms of fees charged. The HSRC survey of 2002 noted 52,9% of schools in their lowest fee category (0 to R6000 per annum) and only 13,8% of schools in their highest fee category (above R18 000) (Du Toit 2003a:387).

Having ascertained that most responding schools are mainstream schools broadly reflecting the constituency of ISASA, the data was examined to answer the research question on the extent and practice of the inclusion of learners who experience barriers to learning in these schools.

5.3   Inclusion of learners who experience barriers to learning

In question 3.1 of the questionnaire administered, schools were given a list of possible barriers to learning that their learners might experience. They were asked to indicate the number of learners in their schools who experience each barrier. Where learners experience more than one barrier, schools were asked to indicate those learners under the most significant barrier faced, so that learners were not counted more than once. It is therefore possible that the incidence of some barriers to learning is higher than reported. It is important to note that although special schools are included in the total to complete the data set for analysis, they were not required to answer this

question and the reported barriers to learning occur in mainstream or ordinary schools only. Barriers to learning may be intrinsic or extrinsic to learners.

5.3.1   Barriers to learning (intrinsic to learners)

5.3.1.1 Summary of statistics

The calculation of mean values and frequency tables is used to determine the extent to which learners who experience intrinsic barriers to learning are included in ISASA schools.

a.   Mean values

By examining the mean values presented in table 5.1, it is possible to ascertain, in order of prevalence, the intrinsic barriers to learning represented in the surveyed schools.   The mean represents the average number of learners indicated as experiencing each barrier to learning across the surveyed schools.   The high standard deviations in some cases are a reflection of the varied responses.

Summary statistics for the variable: intrinsic barriers to learning						
Variable	Type of barrier	N	Mean	SD	Minimum	Maximum
q3.1.1	AD(H)D	120	12.5667	15.0745	0.0000	99.0000
q3.1.6	Learning disability	120	11.0667	15.9657	0.0000	99.0000
q3.1.4	Emotional and behavioural disorder	120	4.2000	6.4996	0.0000	40.0000
q3.1.3	Chronic illness	120	3.6833	6.6104	0.0000	40.0000
q3.1.5	Intellectual impairment	120	1.2750	3.1595	0.0000	20.0000
q3.1.7	Motor impairment	120	0.6750	2.0174	0.0000	20.0000
q3.1.10	Deaf or hard of hearing	120	0.5583	1.1212	0.0000	6.0000
q3.1.9	Blind or partially sighted	120	0.3500	1.2275	0.0000	10.0000
q3.1.2	Autism spectrum disorders	120	0.2500	0.5226	0.0000	2.0000
q3.1.8	Wheelchair bound	120	0.1667	0.9644	0.0000	10.0000
q3.1.11	Other intrinsic barrier to learning	120	0.0833	0.6557	0.0000	6.0000

Table 5.1   Summary statistics for intrinsic barriers to learning

AD(H)D and learning disability are the most prevalent barriers to learning, with autism spectrum disorders and being wheelchair-bound being the least prevalent in terms of average number of learners.   Unspecified "other" barriers to learning are seldom recorded.   The relevant frequency tables provide information on the frequency with which schools report serving learners experiencing various intrinsic barriers to learning.

b.   Frequency tables

The frequency tables for intrinsic barriers to learning are included in Appendix 6, tables 6.2.1 to 6.2.11.

i.   Barriers to learning reported by more than half of schools

- Attention Deficit (Hyperactivity) Disorder

An examination of the frequency table (Appendix 6, table 6.2.1) reveals that 75% of responding schools (90 schools) serve between one and 49 learners who experience ADHD as a barrier to learning.

- Learning disability

Learning disability is the barrier to learning reported by second highest number of schools. The frequency table (Appendix 6, table 6.2.6) indicates that 64.99% (78 schools) serve between one and 49 learners who experience learning disability as a barrier to learning.

- Emotional and behavioural disorders

The frequency table (Appendix 6, table 6.2.4) reveals that 56.67% of responding schools (68 schools) serve between one and 49 learners who experience emotional and behavioural disorders as barriers to learning.

- Chronic illness

Sixty-one schools (50.82%) report serving between one and 49 learners who experience chronic illness as a barrier to learning. The frequency table is included in Appendix 6, table 6.2.3.

ii.   Barriers to learning reported by 25% − 33% of respondents

Most schools do not report serving learners who experience motor impairment as a barrier to learning. Thirty seven schools include learners who experience this barrier and of these, 36 schools (30% of all respondents) serve between one and nine learners who experience motor impairment. Similar frequencies are found for learners who experience intellectual impairment: 36 responding schools (30% of all respondents) include these learners, and of these, 30 schools serve between one and nine learners who experience this barrier. Deafness or being hard of hearing was reported as a

barrier to learning experienced by between one and nine learners in 35 schools (29.17% of all respondents).

iii.   Barriers to learning reported by less than 25% of respondents

Experiencing blindness or partial sight; autism; or being wheelchair bound as barriers to learning are less often encountered as barriers to learning in responding schools. Twenty-five schools (20.83% of all respondents) serve between one and nine learners who experience autism spectrum disorders; 18 schools serve learners who experience blindness or partial sightedness and of these, 17 schools (14.17% of all respondents) serve between one and nine learners who experience this barrier; nine schools serve learners who depend on wheelchairs and of these, eight schools (6.67% of all respondents) serve between one and nine learners who experience this barrier; and two schools (1.67% of all respondents) reported "other" barriers to learning.

c.   Summary: incidence of intrinsic barriers to learning

Figure 5.1 indicates the total number of schools reporting barriers to learning that are experienced by learners. Schools are counted if they serve at least one learner who experiences the particular intrinsic barrier to learning.
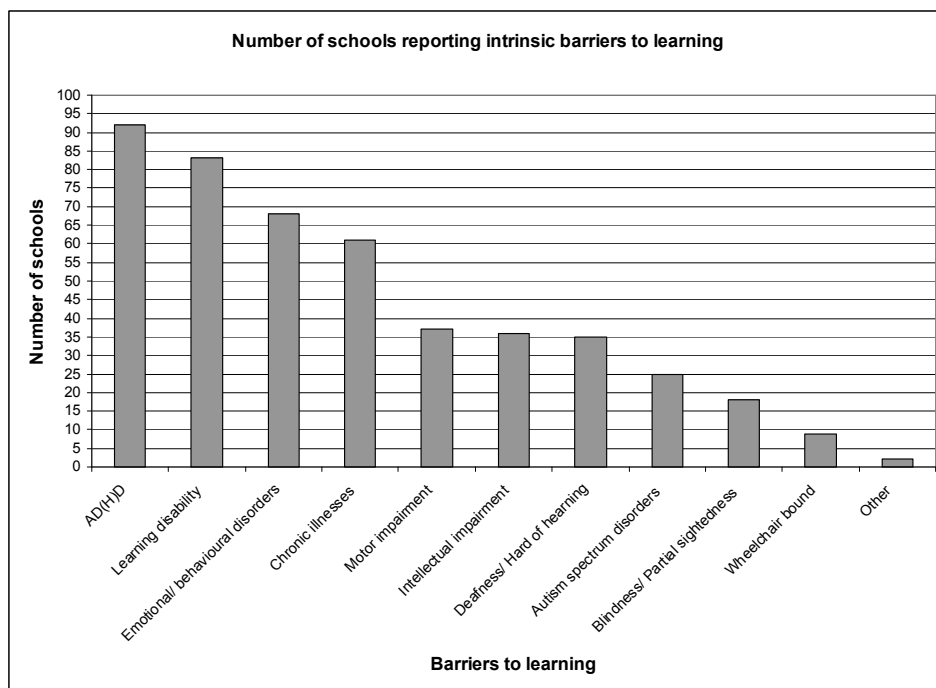
Figure 5.1   Number of schools reporting various intrinsic barriers to learning

A useful comparison can then be made with figure 5.2 which indicates the average number of learners who experience these barriers to learning.
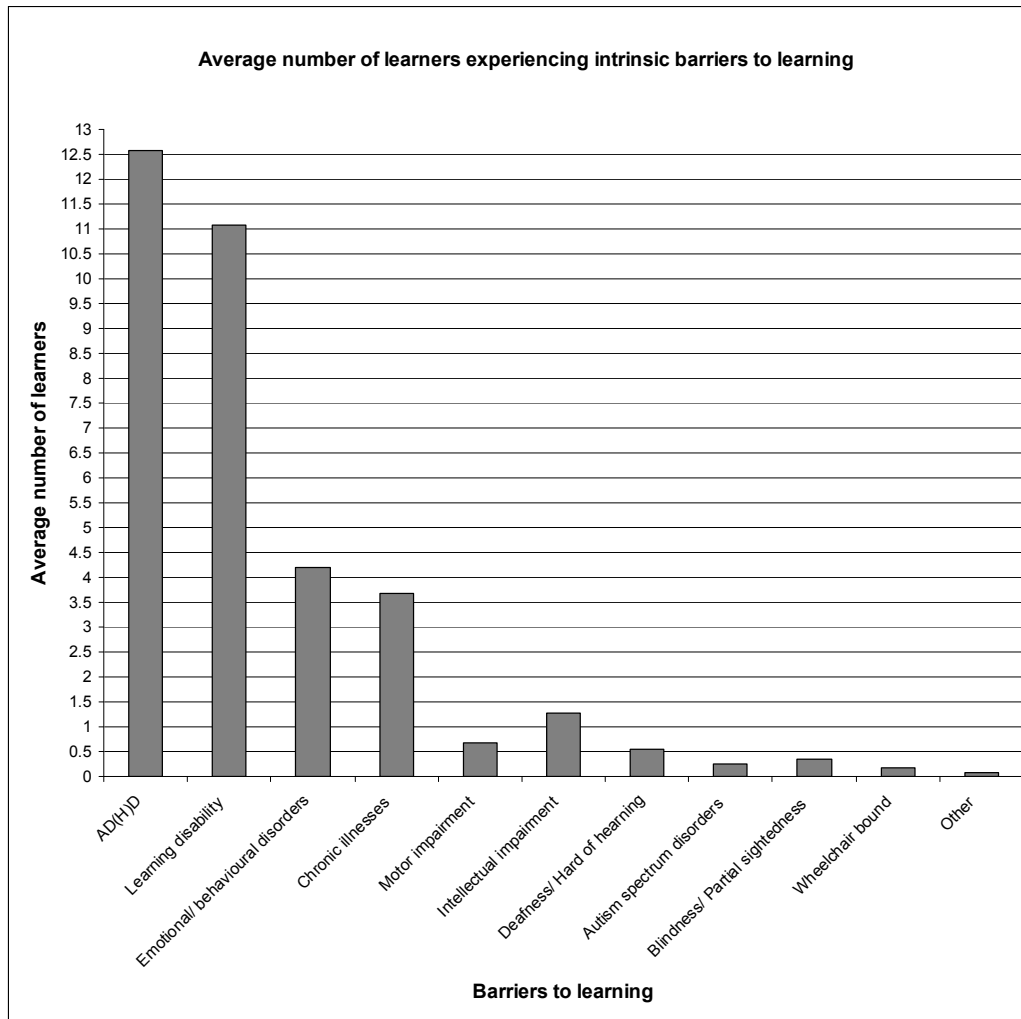
Figure 5.2   Average number of learners experiencing various intrinsic barriers to learning

It is noted that while similar numbers of schools report serving at least one learner who experiences motor impairment, intellectual impairment or deafness/hard of hearing, the average number of learners who experience intellectual impairment as a barrier to learning is almost double that of learners who experience motor impairment or deafness/hard of hearing. While autism spectrum disorders are reported by a larger number of schools than blindness/partial sightedness, the average number of learners who experience blindness/partial sightedness in schools is greater than the average number of those who experience autism spectrum disorders. It thus seems useful to consider both number of schools and average number of learners as indicators of the extent to which learners who experience intrinsic barriers to their learning are included in ISASA schools.

5.3.1.2 Comment

The list of barriers to learning given in the questionnaires was not accompanied by definitions of the barriers to learning. It is therefore possible that different principals may have used different criteria when reporting on learners who experience these barriers to learning. The purpose of this section of the questionnaire was to ascertain trends rather than exact numbers and this limitation was therefore deemed acceptable. It is evident that more than half of responding schools serve at least some learners who experience intrinsic barriers to learning, the most common being AD(H)D, experienced by 12.57% of learners. This is consistent with findings that AD(H)D is one of the most common childhood disorders, with a prevalence of between 3% and 6% of children, or even as high as 20%, with one child in every classroom (Holz & Lessing 2002:103). Learning disability is the second most commonly reported intrinsic barrier to learning in this study. Less than a third of responding schools serve learners who experience barriers to learning that could represent specialised tuition needs (e.g. Sign Language or Braille) or which could require significant adaptation of curriculum (e.g. intellectual impairment) or facility (wheelchair use). The fact that these less common barriers to learning are reported at all is encouraging. It suggests that there are ISASA schools willing to include learners with higher support needs.

5.3.2   Barriers to learning (extrinsic to learners)

5.3.2.1 Summary of statistics

a.   Mean values

The table of means (table 5.2) gives an indication of the extent to which learners in the responding schools experience external barriers to learning. The mean is the average number of learners who experience a particular barrier to learning across the responding schools. The high standard deviations are an indication of varied response.

Summary statistics for the variable: extrinsic barriers to learning						
Variable	Type of barrier	N	Mean	SD	Minimum	Maximum
q3.1.13	Family problems	120	21.9667	39.0389	0.0000	220.0000
q3.1.15	Language barriers	120	14.6250	43.7036	0.0000	350.0000
q3.1.12	Lack of parental involvement	120	8.8333	31.7496	0.0000	300.0000
q3.1.14	Socio-economic deprivation	120	5.3250	19.4755	0.0000	160.0000
q3.1.16	Feeling unsafe when travelling to or from school	120	1.2333	4.0412	0.0000	25.0000
q3.1.17	Feeling unsafe at school	120	0.6250	3.8655	0.0000	40.0000

Table 5.2   Summary statistics for extrinsic barriers to learning

Family problems and language barriers are the most prevalent in responding schools, as indicated by the higher mean. The large standard deviation suggests, however, that the responses to these questions differed considerably. These results can be further interpreted by considering frequency tables.

b.   Frequency tables

The frequency tables indicating the frequency with which schools reported serving learners with extrinsic barriers to learning are included in Appendix 6, tables 6.3.1 to 6.3.6. The following frequencies were recorded:

- Seventy-nine schools serve at least one learner who experiences family problems as a barrier to learning and 59 schools (49.16% of all respondents) serve between one and 39 learners whose family problems constitute barriers to learning.
- Seventy-one of the responding schools serve at least one learner who experiences language as a barrier to learning with 61 schools (50.84% of all respondents) serving between one and 39 learners who experience language barriers. Four schools serve over 100 learners who experience language barriers.
- Fifty schools report serving at least one learner who experiences a debilitating lack of parental involvement as a barrier to learning and of these, 43 schools (35.83% of all respondents) serve between one and 39 such learners.
- Thirty-one schools serve at least one learner who experiences socio-economic deprivation as a barrier to learning. Of these, 24 schools (20% of all respondents) serve between one and 19 such learners.

- Eighteen of all schools (15.54% of all respondents) indicated that they served learners who feel unsafe travelling to or from school, and no school had more than 30 such learners. Only nine schools (7.49% of all respondents) indicated that they served learners who felt unsafe at school. Of those, seven served between one and nine such learners.

c.   Summary: extrinsic barriers to learning

Figure 5.3 charts the total number of schools that reported serving at least one learner who experiences a particular extrinsic barrier to learning.
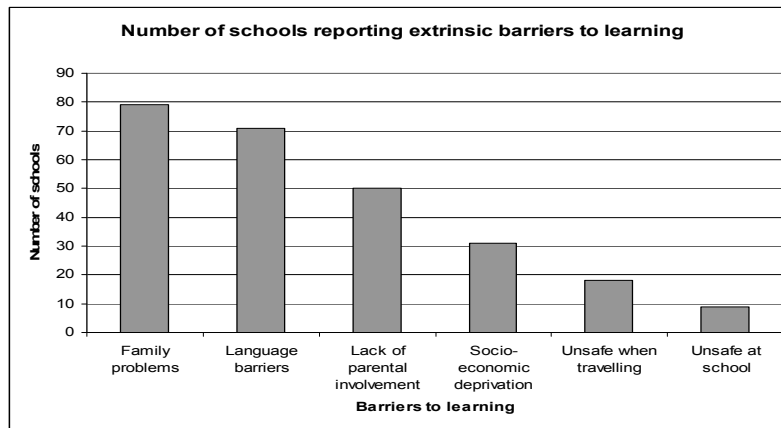
Figure 5.3   Number of schools reporting various extrinsic barriers to learning

The histogram showing the number of schools reporting serving learners who experience various external barriers to learning can be compared with the histogram in figure 5.4 that charts the average number of learners who experience extrinsic barriers to learning.
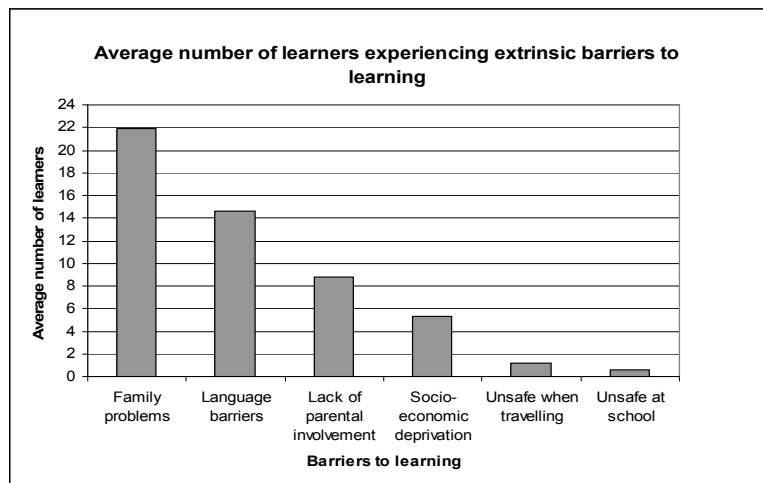
Figure 5.4   Average number of learners experiencing various extrinsic barriers to learning

A similar pattern is observed and the relative incidence in each histogram is the same. As with intrinsic barriers to learning, it is useful to consider both the number of schools reporting the various external barriers to learning as well as the average number of learners who experience these barriers to learning when assessing the extent of inclusion in ISASA schools.

5.3.2.2 Comment

As with intrinsic barriers, no definitions were offered to respondents and they may have reported differently according to how they understood these barriers. Family problems and language barriers are the most significant external barriers to learning that learners in responding schools face. Some schools (section 5.4.1.4, below) make passing a language proficiency test an admission requirement, and this may influence the incidence of language barriers in the schools. Lack of parental involvement and socio-economic deprivation are the next most prevalent extrinsic barriers to learning. The incidence of socio-economic deprivation should be seen in the light of the school fee requirements described above (section 5.2.4). The majority of responding schools have been noted as charging in the higher fee categories which suggests that they draw learners from less socio-economically deprived communities. While some schools report that they serve learners who feel unsafe travelling to and from school or who feel unsafe at school, these figures are low when compared with learners in South Africa in general. The Department of Health surveyed secondary school learners nationally and found that 31.7% of secondary school learners felt unsafe at school and 22.3% of secondary school learners felt unsafe on the way to and from school in the month preceding that survey (DoH 2003:90). Exact comparisons with this study are not possible because the DoH survey only dealt with secondary school learners and it surveyed learners, rather than principals. It is also possible that principals in this study would under report the numbers of learners who feel unsafe at school as this would reflect poorly on the school.

The data on extrinsic barriers to learning can be combined with that on intrinsic barriers to learning to ascertain their relative prevalence in ISASA schools.

5.3.3   All barriers to learning

Figure 5.5 combines intrinsic and extrinsic barriers to learning and charts the number of schools reporting serving at least one learner who experiences a particular barrier to learning.
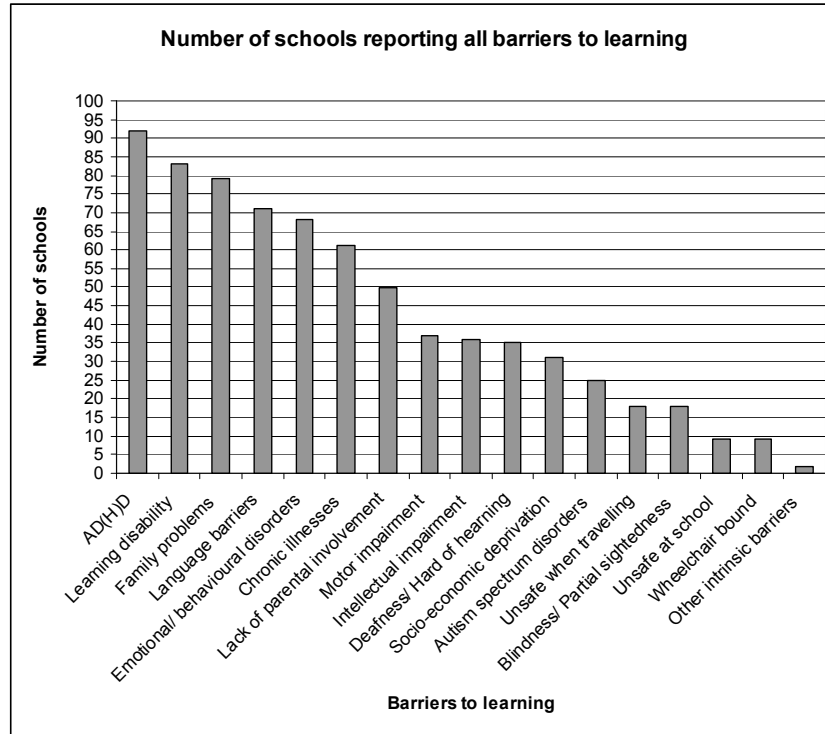
Figure 5.5   Number of schools reporting all barriers to learning

This is usefully compared with the average number of learners who experience barriers to learning as depicted in figure 5.6.
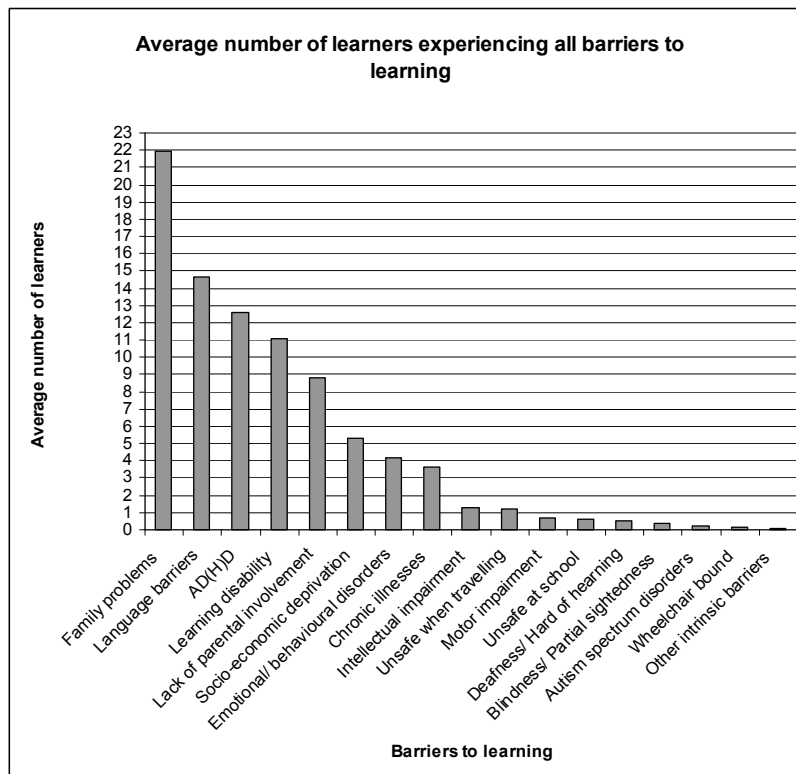
Figure 5.6   Average number of learners experiencing all barriers to learning

It is noted that although AD(H)D and learning disabilities are the barriers noted by the highest number of schools, the barriers experienced by the highest average number of learners are family problems and language barriers. Similarly, while more schools report serving learners who experience emotional or behavioural disorders or chronic illnesses as barriers to learning than those who report lack of parental involvement or socio-economic deprivation, the average number of learners who experience lack of parental involvement or socio-economic deprivation as barriers to learning is greater than the average number of learners who experience emotional or behavioural disorders or chronic illnesses. Both the frequency with which schools report serving learners who experience various barriers to learning and the average number of learners who experience the various barriers to learning are useful indicators of the extent of inclusion in ISASA schools. These indicators are complemented by the information received on the percentage of learners in general classrooms who would experience barriers to learning.

5.3.4   Barriers to learning in the classroom

Schools were asked in question 3.2 of the questionnaire to indicate what percentage of learners in an average classroom would be learners who experience barriers to learning. Forty-five schools, representing 44.12% of schools responding to this question, report that fewer than 5% of learners in a classroom would be learners who experience barriers to learning. A further 13 schools (12.75% of schools responding to this question) reported that 6 to 9% of learners in a classroom would be learners who experience barriers to learning. Forty one schools report that ten percent or more of learners in their classrooms would be learners who experience barriers to learning. The frequency table of these responses are included in Appendix 6, table 6.4.

It seems that most classrooms in the responding schools include at least a percentage of learners who experience barriers to learning. Those schools that responded with "none" in this question, i.e., they do not include any learners who experience barriers to learning, were asked to omit the next questions and proceed directly to the question that asked for reasons for their not including such learners. Seven schools (5.83% of all responding schools) indicated either by responding with "zero" to this question or by omitting it entirely that they did not include any learners who experience barriers to learning and proceeded directly to the question relevant to them. (The reasons they give for not including learners who experience barriers to learning are described in section 5.6 below.)

5.3.5   Diversity in barriers

The data presented to this point reveals that of 120 responding schools, seven are special schools and so are not relevant to the research question.   Of the remaining 113 schools, seven have indicated that, for various reasons, they do not or cannot include learners who experience barriers to learning. The 106 remaining schools have indicated that they include at least some learners who experience barriers to learning and that a percentage of learners in their classrooms experience barriers to learning.

Not only have the majority of surveyed schools been shown to include some learners who experience intrinsic barriers to learning, many (54 of the 106 schools, i.e. 50.94%) display significant diversity of barriers.   In these 54 schools, five or more of the intrinsic barriers listed in the questionnaire are experienced by learners in those schools.   This diversity is not revealed to the same extent with extrinsic barriers to learning, but most schools (68.87%, that is 73 of responding schools) have two or more types of extrinsic barriers represented.   The frequency tables for these variables are included in Appendix 6, tables 6.5.1 and 6.5.2.

5.3.6   The extent of inclusion of learners who experience barriers to learning in ISASA schools

 The first part of the research question that this study aims to answer is "*To what extent are learners who experience barriers to learning included in ISASA member schools?"*   The answer to the question has been revealed in the following ways:

- The number of schools reporting on barriers to learning;
- The average number of learners who experience the barriers to learning;
- The percentage of learners in general classrooms who experience barriers to learning;
- The number of schools including a range of barriers to learning.

With little external data with which to compare this data, it must remain purely descriptive of the extent that learners who experience barriers to learning are included in ISASA schools at a particular point in time.

The second part of the research question seeks to establish the practices that schools employ that facilitate the inclusion of the learners who experience barriers to learning.   The seven special

schools and seven non-inclusive schools did not answer questions on inclusive practice in the questionnaire. A minimum of 14 missing frequencies should thus be expected on all items that are concerned with inclusive practice.

5.4   Inclusive practice

5.4.1   Policies

As policy often forms the basis for practice, the first question on inclusive practice was concerned with school policy and, in the case of admissions, policy and practice.

5.4.1.1 ISASA's diversity and equity policy

Schools were asked in question 4 of the questionnaire whether they include learners who experience barriers to learning because of ISASA's diversity and equity policy, or in spite of it. All except one of the 106 schools answering this question (99.06%) indicated that they were inclusive in spite of ISASA's policy. This suggests that they would be inclusive schools even if they were not ISASA members and constrained by that policy. This frequency table is included in Appendix 6, table 6.6.1.

5.4.1.2 School policy regarding inclusion

Schools were asked to reply "yes" or "no" to question 5.1 that asked whether they had a specific policy that guides the admission and support of learners who experience barriers to learning (i.e. an inclusion policy). Of the 106 schools expected to answer this question, 33 schools (31.13%) indicated that they did have such a policy. Seventy-two schools (67.92%) indicated that they did not have such a policy and one school did not answer this question. This frequency table is included in Appendix 6, table 6.6.2.

5.4.1.3 Policy documents referring to learners who experience barriers to learning

Whether or not schools have an inclusion policy, other policy documents may make reference to learners who experience barriers to learning. Schools were asked in question 5.2 of the questionnaire to reply "yes" or "no" to whether their assessment policy, sport policy, language policy, discipline policy and any other policy makes reference to learners who experience barriers to learning. With 15 frequencies missing (representing the seven special schools, the seven non-inclusive schools and 1 non response), the following frequencies were found for the various policies, as depicted in figure 5.7.
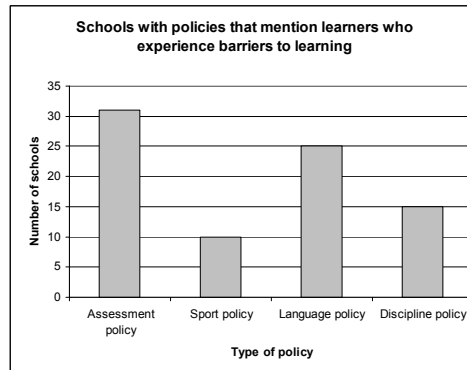
Figure 5.7   Number of schools with policies that mention learners who experience barriers to learning

In addition, six schools responded to the open-ended option of "other policies" and indicated that they mention learners who experience barriers to learning in a "learner support policy". With low frequencies for the "yes" answer for all policies, it is evident that more schools make reference to learners who experience barriers to learning in assessment and language policies, and very few refer to these learners in discipline or sport policies. A small number of schools have "learner support" policies. The frequency tables for these variables are included in Appendix 6, table 6.6.3.

5.4.1.4 Admission policy and practice

Because independent schools have the right to set admission criteria so long as they do not discriminate on the grounds of race, a school's commitment to inclusion may be seen in the extent to which they apply admission criteria that would exclude learners. It is acknowledged that high fees may effectively exclude, but this was not included in the questionnaire. Schools were asked in question 6 of the questionnaire to indicate on a Likert scale of one to five the extent to which

prerequisites were applied in admission policy and practice. The following frequencies were recorded:

- Passing a school readiness test as a prerequisite for admission is always or usually required by 56 of the 106 schools (52.83%) responding to this question.
- Passing an entrance test in mathematics as a prerequisite for admission is always or usually required by 44 of the 106 schools (41.51%) responding to this question.
- Passing an entrance test in the language of instruction is always or usually required by 53 of the 106 schools (50%) responding to this question.
- Undergoing a standardised IQ test is usually required by three of the 104 schools (2.88%) responding to this question.
- Adherence to the school's dominant religion is always or usually required by 24 of the 105 schools (22.86%) responding to this question.
- Physical health is always or usually required by seven of the 104 schools (6.73%) responding to this question.
- Mobility always or usually required by 11 of the 104 schools (10.58%) responding to this question.
- Thirty-one of the 106 schools (29.25%) responding to this question always apply some other admission requirement.

The frequency tables for these variables are provided in Appendix 6, tables 6.7.1 to 6.7.8.

5.4.1.5 Summary

ISASA member schools are pursuing inclusivity irrespective of ISASA's policy in this regard. Less than a third of the schools responding to these questions have specific policies that guide the admission and support of learners who experience barriers to learning. Also, less than a third of these schools make mention of learners who experience barriers to learning in other school policy documents. Learners who experience barriers to learning are most often reported as being mentioned in assessment policies. Responding schools usually or always apply various admission prerequisites, the most common being passing a school readiness test and passing proficiency tests in mathematics and the language of instruction. Undergoing IQ tests, physical health and mobility are seldom applied.

5.4.1.6 Comment

One of Umalusi's requirements for the accreditation of independent schools is that the schools have a learner support policy (Umalusi 2005:40). As the accreditation process is implemented, schools will be required to formulate such a policy. Currently, however, there does seem to be a discrepancy between the number of schools which report including learners who experience barriers to learning and the number of schools which make provision for these learners in terms of policies.

The admission policies of schools may indicate their commitment to inclusion. The relatively high number of schools that indicate passing a school readiness test always or usually as an admission requirement may be influenced by the fact that the majority of surveyed schools are primary or combined schools and implement school readiness testing. Passing a language test is always or usually required in more than half of responding schools. Despite this, language barriers have been shown to be a significant barrier to learning in the schools. Passing a mathematics test is always or usually required in at least 40% of schools. These admission tests may help to explain why ISASA schools are noted as having excellent grade 12 results, disproportionately high numbers of university entrance passes and strong mathematics and science departments (ISASA 2004:4). By contrast, public schools are specifically prohibited from administering any admission tests to learners (RSA 1996b, section 5(1)).

Adherence to a school's dominant religion is always or usually required in 24 schools (22.86%). In 2001 it was noted that 44% of ISASA schools were "faith-based" schools (Hofmeyr & Lee 2004:154). This suggests that a percentage of faith-based schools do not actually require that learners adhere to that faith in order to be admitted to the schools. Few schools require IQ tests, mobility or physical health for admission.

It has been ascertained that many ISASA schools include a number of learners who experience diverse barriers to learning, despite the various admission requirements that are applied. Policies are not always in place to guide the admission and support of learners who experience barriers to learning and not many schools make mention of these learners in their policy documents. Schools provide support to their learners who experience barriers to learning in a number of ways, one being the way schools are organised to facilitate the provision of support.

5.4.2   School organisation

The literature on inclusive education reflects a number of ways in which a school can position learners in order to provide support. Question 7 of the questionnaire was designed to ascertain the extent to which learners who experience barriers to learning remained in the general classroom and were supported there, and the extent to which they were removed from the general classroom. Respondents were given a number of possibilities in this regard and were asked to respond on a scale where 1 = always, 2 = often, 3 = occasionally, and 4 = not at all, the extent to which these applied to the school.

5.4.2.1 Summary of statistics

An examination of means and frequencies reveals how often the various models of school organisation for the support of learners is applied.   Support personnel was defined in the questionnaire as "special needs or remedial teachers, therapists of various kinds and members of the school support team".

a.   Withdrawal

The model where learners who experience barriers to learning remain in the general classroom and are pulled out or withdrawn on an individual or small group basis to receive support from support personnel is, on average, used "often" in responding schools (the mean response was 2.4623 with a standard deviation of 1.0617). The frequency table (Appendix 6, table 6.8.4) reveals that of the 106 schools answering this question, 59 schools (55.66%) indicated that they used this model "always" or "often".

b.   Teacher support

Learners who experience barriers to learning are also "often" supported only by the general classroom teacher in the general classroom. The response to this item revealed a mean of 2.6442 with a standard deviation of 1.0696. The frequency table (Appendix 6, table 6.8.1) for this question reveals, however, that 46 of 104 schools (44.23%) use this model "always" or "often" and that 58 schools (55.77%), i.e. more than half, use this model "occasionally" or "not at all".

c.   Indirect support

The average response to support being provided to learners in the general classroom indirectly with support personnel working closely with the general classroom teacher is also "often". (The mean is 2.7810 with a standard deviation of 0.9505.) The frequency table (Appendix 6, table 6.8.2) indicates that it is, however, a model only used "always" or "often" by a third (35 schools) of the 105 schools responding to this question.

d.   Other models of support

Other models of support are, on average, used "occasionally". These would include in-class support where support personnel provide support in the classroom (the mean is 3.1731 with a standard deviation of 0.9393); serving learners who need support in separate classrooms for most of the day (the mean is 3.8396 with a standard deviation of 0.5544) and serving learners who need support in separate classrooms for the whole school day (the mean is 3.9811 with a standard deviation of 0.1943). The latter two models have means close to 4, representing "not at all" in this scale, thus suggesting that these models are very seldom used. The frequency tables (Appendix 6, tables 6.8.5 and 6.8.6) confirm this as only seven of the responding 106 schools (6.6%) "always" or "often" serve learners in separate classrooms for most of the day and only one school of the 106 (0.94%) serves learners who experience barriers to learning in separate classrooms all day.

5.4.2.2 Comment

The responding ISASA schools are, with few exceptions, placing learners who experience barriers to learning in the general classroom and not separate classrooms. This is consistent with one of inclusion's central tenets, that is that learners who experience barriers to learning are taught alongside their peers in the general classroom (CSIE 2000:12). Some learners who experience barriers to learning are, however, being separated from their peers either individually or in small groups to receive support, a practice that is problematic for both practical and theoretical reasons (Walton & Nel 2004:2). General classroom teachers are providing much of the support to learners within the general classroom, consistent with inclusion's premise that general classroom teachers assume responsibility for all learners in their classroom. Some of the responding schools report that support personnel work closely with the general classroom teachers to enable them to support the learners in their classrooms. Such collaborative practice is commended in the international

literature on inclusion (Bradley et al. 1997:85). In-class support seems relatively unexplored as an inclusive practice in responding schools.

While support personnel was used as a general term in this question, questions 8 to 11 that followed in the questionnaire sought to ascertain what support personnel were available at responding schools.

5.4.3   Support personnel

5.4.3.1 Summary of statistics

In order of frequency reported by schools, the support personnel available at responding ISASA schools are depicted in table 5.3.

Support personnel	Available in # schools	Total response	Percentage of total response
Remedial or special needs teacher	78	106	73.58
Occupational therapist	51	106	48.11
Speech and hearing therapist	45	106	42.45
Psychologist	37	106	34.91
Play therapist	16	105	15.24
Social worker	15	103	14.56
Physiotherapist	14	106	13.21
Counsellor*	9	97	9.28

* Counsellor was entered as a code in response to the number of schools that mentioned such personnel in the category "other" in the questionnaire.

Table 5.3   Specialist support personnel available at responding schools

Where specialist support personnel are available at schools, there is usually only one of each type. Twenty-eight schools do, however, have two or more remedial or special needs teachers. In terms of remuneration, therapists (physiotherapists, occupational therapists, speech and hearing therapists and play therapists) are usually not paid a salary by the schools; they bill parents directly. Psychologists and remedial or special needs teachers show mixed responses, with some being paid by the schools and some billing parents directly. Some schools (nine of the respondents to this question) mentioned that the psychologist or remedial or special needs teacher is partly paid by the school and partly bills parents. Social workers and counsellors are almost always paid a salary by schools. Four schools report having volunteer specialist support personnel (two psychologists and two remedial or special needs teachers). Eleven of 103 schools (10.68%) charge additional fees for learners who receive additional support.

The presence of specialist support personnel at schools suggests affluence, in terms of the additional salaries paid and venues provided by the schools, and the cost of therapies to parents. To determine whether the presence of support personnel at ISASA schools is related to the affluence of the schools, as determined by fees charged, the following hypotheses were formulated:

H_o There is no relationship between school fees charged and the presence of support personnel at schools

H_1 There is a dependent relationship between school fees charged and the presence of support personnel at schools

Chi-square and Fisher's Exact tests were performed on compressed contingency tables. (There were many empty cells and cells containing zero observations on the original contingency tables which reduced the accuracy of the chi-square test). When considering primary school fees and specialist support, both chi-square and Fisher's Exact tests showed significance on the 5% level of significance. The null hypothesis can thus be rejected at $\alpha \leq 0.05$. (The chi-square value of 21.0190 has a probability of 0.0018 which is less than 0.05. The probability calculated by Fisher's Exact test is 0.0024 which is less than 0.05 and is thus significant on the 5% level of significance.) This indicates a relation between the number of support personnel in primary schools and the fees charged: more support personnel are found at primary schools with higher fees. The contingency tables for these variables are included in Appendix 7, tables 7.1.1.1 and 7.1.1.2.

When examining the results for the compressed secondary school table, significance only at the 10% level of significance is established by Fisher's Exact test which is the more reliable test in this instance. The null hypothesis can thus be rejected at $\alpha \leq 0.1$. (The probability is calculated as 0.0747 which is less than 0.1 and thus significant on the 10% level of significance). As in the primary school case, by examining the ratios of no specialist support personnel to support personnel provided for the different fee-categories, it is clear that the schools with higher fee structures have more specialist support personnel than those in lower fee categories. The contingency tables for these variables are provided in Appendix 7, tables 7.1.2.1 and 7.1.2.2.

Fifty four of 105 schools (51.43%) report that they have a SENCO. These 54 schools describe the nature of this post as follows:

- The SENCO is a general classroom teacher who assumes this as an additional responsibility (11 schools)
- The SENCO is a specific post filled by a trained special needs teacher (14 schools)
- The SENCO is a specific post filled by a psychologist or other therapist (seven schools)
- The SENCO is a senior appointment carrying the status of HOD or deputy (14 schools)
- The SENCO is a senior appointment filled by a general classroom teacher (two schools)
- The SENCO is a senior appointment filled by a psychologist or other therapist (three schools)
- The SENCO is a senior appointment filled by a trained special needs teacher (three schools)

In at least half of the schools responding to this question, the post of the SENCO is filled by trained support personnel – either special needs teachers or psychologists/other therapists. The post is often (in 22 of the 54 schools) a senior appointment. The frequency table for these variables is provided in Appendix 6, table 6.9.

5.4.3.2 Comment

A number of the responding ISASA schools have shown their commitment to ensuring that support is easily available to learners by allowing specialist support personnel to practise on the school property or by employing such specialists. This may, however, be viewed with caution. Not only are there ethical implications of therapists practising at schools, raising concerns about how fair this is for other therapists practising in the community, the presence of support personnel may contribute to teachers feeling that they are not competent to teach learners who experience barriers to learning and may perpetuate the medical paradigm. The need to assume responsibility for all learners may thus be weakened when there are support personnel to whom learners can be sent when they do not succeed in the classroom. (The pull-out system where learners who experience barriers to learning are withdrawn to receive assistance from support personnel has been shown above (section 5.4.2.1) to be used often in responding schools.)

While the literature on inclusion has raised questions about the role of the SENCO (section 3.3.4.2), many of the schools surveyed have designated such a post. A possible measure of the importance

of this post is that in most schools it is a specific post, rather than the additional responsibility of a general classroom teacher, enabling this person to focus on addressing barriers to learning. It is also a senior post in many schools, possibly signifying the schools' value on supporting learners who experience barriers to learning. As with other support personnel, the presence of SENCOs in responding schools may be an indicator that many ISASA member schools accept that there will be diverse needs in their learner population and that human and material resources need to be dedicated to ensuring that these needs are addressed. This seems all the more necessary in these early years of inclusive education in this country where not all teachers have been trained in inclusive education.

5.4.4   Training

5.4.4.1 Summary of statistics

Despite the non-responses to question12.1 that asked for the total number of teachers that schools employed, it can be ascertained that 45% of schools responding to this question employ between 10 and 29 staff members (the frequency table is included in Appendix 6, table 6.10). The mean is 22.5083, with a standard deviation of 19.1877. This, then, can be compared with the average number of these teachers who have formal or informal training in special needs education. When indicating the number of teachers who had been trained, respondents were asked in question 12.2 to exclude the principal and those staff members whose only role was to provide learning support. An average of 7.9333 of teachers in responding schools have informal training in special needs education, i.e. they have attended conferences, workshops or seminars that would equip them to teach effectively in diverse classrooms. The high standard deviation of 12.1881 indicates a wide range of responses to this question. An average of 2.2667 teachers in responding schools have formal training (degrees or diplomas) in special needs education. The standard deviation is 3.5710. The frequency tables for these variables are provided in Appendix 6, tables 6.11.1 and 6.11.2.

The presence of specialist support personnel at schools could be thought to be a disincentive to staff training so to establish whether there is a dependent relationship between the extent of staff training and the presence of support personnel, the following hypotheses were formulated and tested:

H$_o$ There is no relationship between the numbers of staff trained in special needs education and the presence of support personnel at schools

H$_1$ There is a dependent relationship between the numbers of staff trained in special needs education and the presence of support personnel at schools

The number of staff trained was cross tabulated with the number of support personnel to establish whether there was any relationship between the two variables. Because of empty and low frequency cells, the cells were condensed and Fisher's Exact tests calculated. With significance established on the 5% level of significance (Pr = 0.0185 < 0.05), it is evident that the number of specialist support personnel available and the number of teachers informally trained in special needs education is dependent. (These contingency tables are provided in Appendix 7, tables 7.2.1.1 and 7.2.1.2). The same applies to the number of teachers formally trained in special needs education and the number of specialist support personnel available at the schools where significance on the 5% level of significance was established (Pr = 0.0317 < 0.05). The null hypothesis can thus be rejected at α ≤ 0.05. The contingency tables for these variables are provided in Appendix 7, tables 7.2.2.1 and 7.2.2.2.

If the ratio of no specialist support against specialist support provided is examined separately for each category of teachers receiving either formal or informal training, it seems as though the number of specialist support personnel increases as the number of teachers trained increase. (A possible exception is found in the category of one to nine teachers informally trained in special needs education. The ratio of no specialist support to specialist support provided is high in this category.)

Of the 100 schools responding to question 13 that ascertained the extent to which the principal had special needs training, 63 indicated that the principal had informal training, 16 had formal training while 21 had no training. The frequency table for this variable is included in Appendix 6, table 6.12.

5.4.4.2 Comment

It has been ascertained that a percentage of learners in the classrooms of ISASA schools experience barriers to learning. It has also been established that despite the presence of specialist support personnel at many schools, learners who experience barriers to learning are often supported only by

the general classroom teacher. By comparing the average number of teachers in responding schools to the average number of those who have special needs training, it seems that training to provide support has not been adequate. The need for training in inclusive education in South African schools has been well documented (Bothma et al. 2000:204; Burden 2000:37; Hall 2002:36; Swart et al. 2002:186) and this would seem to be true for the independent sector too. The contingency tables calculated suggest that the presence of support personnel on the school property is generally not a disincentive to staff training. In fact, increased numbers of staff trained either formally or informally in special needs education is associated with increased numbers of trained support personnel available.

In contrast to the relatively small number of teachers who are trained, a number of school principals seem to have had either formal or informal training in special needs education. Rouse and Florian (1996:75) have noted that a significant determinant of the extent to which a school embraces inclusion is the principal's knowledge, experience and training in special needs education. The number of ISASA school principals trained in special needs education bodes well for the implementation and entrenchment of inclusion in the schools. The establishment of SBSTs may be another indicator of schools' commitment to inclusive education.

5.4.5   School/site-based support teams (SBSTs)

5.4.5.1 Summary of responses

In question 14, schools were asked to indicate whether or not they had formally constituted SBSTs. Of the 101 schools that answered this question, 47 schools indicated that they did have such a team, and 54 said that they did not. The following details about the SBSTs:

a.   Frequency of meeting

Twenty seven of the teams (57.45% of responses to this question) meet weekly or fortnightly, nine of the teams meet more than once a term and six meet once a term. The frequency table for these variables are provided in Appendix 6, table 6.13.

b.   Composition of the team

The varied responses to the open ended questions that asked for details of the composition and function of the SBST made coding unwieldy and therefore the data is described verbally, incorporating the exact words of the respondents where appropriate.

Therapists or other trained professionals (e.g. psychologists or social workers) seem to comprise the core of SBSTs in ISASA schools. Only six of the 47 schools that have SBSTs do not have at least one therapist or other trained professional on the team. In 13 of the 47 schools, the teams do not include any teachers at all. In 22 of the schools with SBSTs, the head or deputy is part of the team. Teams range from two members to ten or more members. It seems that in some schools, the team is constituted on the basis of need e.g. "educators and therapists who work with the child" or "any teacher involved in a case discussion".

c.   Functions the team performs

The following are described as the functions of the SBST, in order of frequency mentioned. The exact words of the respondent are given where applicable.

- Ensuring the support of learners in the classroom

This function is described with words such as "advice", "assist", "recommend", "plan progress", "suggest … help", "intervention strategies", "implement suggestions to best support learner", "co-ordinating IEP programmes", "draw up strategies for in-class assistance", "adaptations of tests, exams and assignments" and "brainstorm and think of solutions to the problem".

- Monitor progress

This function is variously described with the verbs "discuss", "monitor", "track" and "review" and is usually limited to "pupils currently in support programme" or "pupils receiving therapy" or "children needing help". Such learners are often described as "cases".

- Support and liaison

This function is described as providing "support", "communication", "recommendations" and "liaison", particularly with teachers in the school and parents. Liaison and communication with other professionals or community organisations involved with a learner are also cited.

- Identify and assess

Some SBSTs see their role as "identifying" those learners "with problems" or "who need support" or "with barriers to learning". Without giving much detail about who assesses and why, "assessment" is also mentioned as a function.

- Panel discussion

This function seems to involve constituting a team of professionals either from within the school or from the wider community to provide advice and "round table discussion". In one school, "the panel suggests the therapy or therapist required to alleviate the problem".

- Follow trends in special education

The function of the SBST in two schools is to "keep up to date" or "discuss" "trends" or "issues" in "special needs" education.

- Develop policy

With little detail given, the SBST has a role in "providing" or "making" policy.

d.   School-based support teams (SBSTs) and special needs co-ordinators (SENCOs)

To investigate whether a dependent relationship exists between the presence of SBSTs and the presence of SENCOs in schools, the following hypotheses were formulated and tested:

H_o There is no relationship between the presence of SBSTs and the presence of SENCOs in schools
H_1 There is a dependent relationship between the presence of SBSTs and the presence of SENCOs in schools

The frequency table for the presence of SBSTs was cross-tabulated with that of SENCOs. The chi-square test indicates significance on the 0.1% level of significance (the chi-square value is 20.5080 which has a probability associated with it of less than 0.0001). The null hypothesis can thus be rejected at $\alpha \leq 0.5$. It thus appears that a dependency exists between these two variables. By further examining the ratios of "yes" to "no" for SBSTs for the two levels of SENCO in the frequency table, it becomes apparent that more support teams are found in schools where SENCOs

have been appointed. The contingency tables for these variables are provided in Appendix 7, tables 7.3.1 and 7.3.2.

5.4.5.2 Comment

Nearly half of responding schools have constituted SBSTs, teams that the White Paper deems essential to inclusion in South African schools (DoE 2001a:29). Of these, more than half of the SBSTs meet either weekly or fortnightly, suggesting that the teams are well entrenched in the life of the schools. The composition of the SBSTs suggests the continued hegemony of the experts (Brantlinger 1997:441) as specialists enjoy high representation in these teams. This, together with the lack of any teachers in some SBSTs is cause for concern. It may suggest an underlying assumption that general classroom teachers are somehow not qualified to take responsibility for learners who experience barriers to learning. The presence of SENCOs in schools (whether these are trained specialists or not) is associated with SBSTs in schools. Without details, it is only possible to surmise that constituting or facilitating SBSTs may be one of the responsibilities of SENCOs. The fact that almost half of the schools that have SBSTs include a principal (head) or a deputy on the team is most encouraging. The attitude of the principal has been shown to have an important influence on the development of inclusion in a school and the presence of a head or a deputy on the team must signal that barriers to learning are an important concern of school leadership.

There is evidence of SBSTs functioning in ways that would be indicative of good inclusive practice. Those SBSTs that function to secure support for learners are helping to build inclusive practice at their school. When this support is extended to teachers and parents, the teams would seem to be functioning optimally. There seems to be considerable emphasis on collaboration both within the teams, and with stakeholders outside of the teams – a trait commended in the literature on inclusion. Identification and assessment have a role in determining those learners who experience barriers to learning and should precede the provision of appropriate support. Some concerns are, however, noted from the schools' descriptions of the functions of their SBSTs. There is frequent use of terminology that suggests a deficit or medical approach to learners. The recurrent use of the word "case" to describe a learner and "referral" to describe the duty of the team is indicative of a medical orientation. Similarly, the use of deficit discourse to describe learners e.g. "learners with special needs" and "children with learning problems" suggest that the problem is still being located within the learner.

Whether or not schools have constituted SBSTs, there are a number of other ways in which learners and teachers in an inclusive school can be supported.

5.4.6   Support for learners and teachers

5.4.6.1 Summary of statistics

a.   Community and other resources to support learners who experience barriers to learning

In question 15, schools were asked to respond on a Likert scale of 1 to 4 (where 1 = often, 2 = sometimes, 3 = very occasionally and 4 = not at all) the extent to which various family or community resources were provided for learners who experience barriers to learning. On average, family members provide resources or support "sometimes", as indicated by the mean of 2.0680 with a standard deviation of 1.0870. The other sources of learner support (specialist agency, volunteers, aides or facilitators and local hospitals) are used "very occasionally", as revealed by means of between 3.0755 and 3.4712. Of these, the occasional use of aides or facilitators is reported most often. A table showing frequencies of responses to this question is included in Appendix 6, table 6.14.

b.   Support for teachers who teach learners who experience barriers to learning

In question 16, schools were asked to respond on a Likert scale of 1 to 4 (where 1 = often, 2 = sometimes, 3 = very occasionally and 4 = not at all) the extent to which various ways of supporting teachers were used. The following frequencies were recorded:

- Aides who provide classroom assistance are assigned to teachers (often or sometimes used in 29 of 104 responding schools);
- Timetables are adjusted to allow for collaboration (often or sometimes used in 55 of 104 responding schools);
- Class sizes are managed (often or sometimes used in 72 of 105 responding schools);
- Teaching load is reduced (often or sometimes used in 45 of 105 responding schools);
- Extra-mural responsibilities are reduced (often or sometimes used in 42 of 103 responding schools);

- Training is provided (often or sometimes used in 70 of 105 responding schools).

A table showing frequencies of responses to this question is provided in Appendix 6, table 6.15.

With the exception of the provision of aides for classroom assistance, the mean for all the items of support falls within category 2 of the Likert scale, i.e. "sometimes". The management of class sizes is used most often in support of teachers, and aides or facilitators are least often provided (the mean of the response to the latter item is 3.1058 with a standard deviation of 1.1227, indicating very occasional use). In addition to internal arrangements to support teachers, DSTs are a possible source of support to schools.

c.   Support from district-based support teams (DSTs)

Question 17 of the questionnaire asked schools to indicate whether they had sought assistance from a DST. Eighty-nine of 103 responding schools have not done so. The reasons are that as independent schools they have no expectation of receiving support from the DST (35 schools), they have had no need to approach the DST (33 schools), they are unaware of the existence of the DST (nine schools) and that a DST is not available where they are located (two schools). Not all schools that indicated that they have not sought assistance from the DST gave reasons for this.

The ten schools that indicated that they had sought support from their DST were asked to describe the nature of the support sought. Eight responded that they were seeking trained professional assistance, one was seeking placement of learners in a special school and one was seeking both trained professional assistance and placement of learners in a special school. Having sought assistance from the DST, five schools reported that the DST met their needs and five reported that the DST did not meet their needs. Schools seeking support could also approach special schools.

d.   Support from special schools

In answer to question 18 of the questionnaire, 57 of 104 schools seek assistance from special schools in support of learners who experience barriers to learning. The assistance most often sought is assessment for the identification of barriers to learning (reported by 47 schools), followed by training and support for parents (reported by 37 schools), training for staff (reported by 32 schools) and the provision of specialised resources (reported by 25 schools). Twenty-two of the schools that

draw support from special schools indicated that mainly state special schools provided the support, 29 received their support mainly from independent special schools and four received support from both state and independent special schools.

The seven independent special schools that responded to this survey were asked in question 26.1 to indicate their capacity to provide support to ordinary schools that include learners who experience barriers to learning. In each of the following items, six of the seven special schools indicated their capacity to provide: assessment for the identification of barriers to learning; training for staff; training and information for parents; and specialised resources. All seven schools could provide support and advice for parents. It seems, however, that ordinary independent schools are not always making use of the capacities of the special independent schools. Question 26.2 asked about the extent to which ordinary independent schools made use of the capacities of the independent special schools. Table 5.4 indicates the frequencies of response.

The extent to which special schools report that ordinary schools make use of their capacities					
	Often	Occasionally	Never	Not applicable	Total
Assessment for the identification of barriers to learning	4	2	0	1	7
Training for staff in curriculum, assessment or instruction for learners who experience barriers to learning	1	1	4	1	7
Training for staff in knowledge about disabilities	1	2	3	1	7
Training and information for parents	1	3	2	1	7
Support and advice for parents	1	3	3	0	7
Providing specialised resources	2	2	2	1	7

Table 5.4   The extent to which special schools report that ordinary schools make use of their capacities

5.4.6.2 Comment

Schools have access to a wide range of resources if they are able to procure support from families and communities (Van Wyk 2001:130). In an inclusive education system, schools should collaborate with families and the community to secure support for learners who experience barriers to learning. This does not seem to happen "often" in ISASA schools. While support or resources are provided by family members in support of learners in a number of schools, support from aides or facilitators, volunteers, specialist agencies and local hospitals seems to be largely untapped. This may be because schools do not include learners whose barriers could be addressed by these sources.

The management of class sizes is noted most frequently as a way in which teachers who teach learners who experience barriers to learning are supported. Class sizes in independent schools are relatively small (DoE 2005f:4) and it is not clear whether this is to enable teachers to teach a diverse group of learners effectively, or whether class sizes are small irrespective of a school's commitment to inclusion. While training is "often" or "sometimes" provided, there are still a number of schools who only provide training "very occasionally" or "not at all". Collaboration is an important feature of inclusive schools and it has been noted above (section 5.4.2.1) that in a number of schools, general classroom teachers work closely with specialist support personnel. It seems remiss that timetabling is not used more often as a means to ensure that teachers can collaborate. In order to teach a diverse class effectively, the literature from overseas suggests that teachers' workloads have to be reasonable to allow for effective preparation (Salend 1998:131). Not many ISASA schools reduce teaching or extra-mural loads to allow for this. Teacher aides are not often used in the surveyed schools and may represent an unexplored source of support for teachers teaching in diverse classrooms.

Few independent schools have approached their district for assistance from a DST, either because, as independent schools, they do not expect to receive assistance or because they have not perceived a need to seek assistance. Clarity seems to be required as to the extent to which independent schools can access the resources and expertise of DSTs. There is a greater reliance on special schools as just over half of the schools use special schools as a resource to enable them to support learners who experience barriers to learning. Despite this, the few independent special schools responding to this survey indicated that their capacity for assisting inclusive schools was under utilised, with a possible exception being the support and training accessed by parents. This would be complemented by parent support groups at ISASA schools.

5.4.7   Support for parents

Respondents were invited in question 19 to indicate whether or not they had support groups for parents, and if they did, to give details about the support groups.

5.4.7.1 Summary of statistics

Of the 99 schools answering question 19.1, 21 schools (21.21%) indicated that they had support groups for parents. The data gained from the open ended question (question 19.2) on the details of

the support groups is described verbally, using the exact words of the respondents where appropriate.

5.4.7.2 Details of parent support groups

Not all schools who had parent support groups gave details about their groups. Of those that did, three schools revealed in the details that they gave that they were referring to consultation with individual parents. They mentioned "counselling", "feedback" or "referral" as the purpose of such encounters. Of those who gave an indication of support *groups*, the most frequently mentioned (by six schools) was groups of parents whose children experience AD(H)D. A further five schools variously describe meetings of parents addressed by a speaker, usually a specialist, on a topic of interest and concern. Another school described the activities of a support group of parents whose children who experience barriers to learning as:

> They help with mentoring, counselling and motivating the children with extrinsic barriers. They also provide resources like learner support material to the school like boxes, papers or unwanted kitchen equipment for projects.

Two schools mentioned the persons who organised the parent support groups. In one school the "head and social worker run support groups" and the other is "driven by an individual parent of the school and an independent psychologist".

5.4.7.3 Comment

It has been noted that many of the responding ISASA schools do not regard themselves as having any learners who experience barriers to learning because of a debilitating lack of parental involvement (section 5.3.2.1), and also that family members sometimes provide resources and support for learners who experience barriers to learning (section 5.4.6.1). A further indication of parent involvement in schools is the presence of groups that provide opportunities for parents to gain knowledge and information and to network with each other (Van Wyk 2001:130). The higher number of AD(H)D support groups is consistent with the finding that AD(H)D is reported by the most number of schools as a barrier to learning that learners experience (section 5.3.1.1). Specialists are given prominence, again suggesting the significant role they play in many responding schools. While schools were not specifically asked who organised their support groups,

it is interesting to note the involvement of the head in organising a group, thus giving a message that learners who experience barriers to learning are an important concern of school leadership.

Collaboration with parents is promoted in the literature on inclusion and parent support groups may be a way of facilitating this collaboration in an inclusive school. It is, however, in the practical, day to day schooling that learners who experience barriers to learning will need support through the implementation of modified environments and curriculum.

5.4.8   Wheelchair access

In questions 20 to 22, respondents were asked to indicate the extent to which their school buildings, grounds and teaching equipment are accessible to a person who uses a wheelchair. A Likert scale was offered where 1 = all, 2 = most, 3 = about half and 4 = less than half.

5.4.8.1 Summary of statistics

a.   School buildings

The mean response was 2.8333 with a standard deviation of 1.0253. This indicates that on average, school buildings are mostly accessible to people who use wheelchairs. The frequency table (Appendix 6, table 6.16.1) reveals, however, that 37 of the 102 schools responding to this question (36.28%) indicate that "all" or "most" of their school buildings are accessible to people who use wheelchairs. In 65 schools (63.72% of responding schools) "about half" or "less than half" of their buildings are accessible to people who use wheelchairs.

b.   School grounds, including playgrounds and sport venues

The mean response to this question is 2.5408 with a standard deviation of 1.0253, indicating that on average, school grounds are mostly accessible to people who use wheelchairs. This is confirmed by the frequency table (Appendix 6, table 6.16.2) that reveals that more than half of the schools responding to this question indicate that "all" or "most" of their grounds are accessible to people who use wheelchairs.

c.   Specialist teaching equipment

The mean response to this question is 3.1058 with a standard deviation of 1.1817, indicating that on average, about half of specialist teaching equipment like laboratories and home economics equipment is accessible to people who use wheelchairs. Some primary schools indicated that they did not use specialist teaching equipment so the question was not applicable to them. The frequency table (Appendix 6, table 6.16.3) reveals that 60.57% of schools responding to this question indicated that "about half" or "less than half" of their specialist teaching equipment would be accessible to a person who uses a wheelchair.

5.4.8.2 Comment

Not many ISASA schools include learners who experience intrinsic barriers to learning that require wheelchair use (section 5.3.1.1), so wheelchair access may not be regarded as a priority. However, consideration should be given to the fact that parents and other visitors may rely on wheelchairs and would need wheelchair access. While few schools make mobility a prerequisite for admission, the small numbers of wheelchair users in ISASA schools may be linked to the extent to which wheelchair access is provided. As independent schools would themselves have to fund the modification of facilities for wheelchair access, there may be insufficient justification to do so. Modifications to classroom practice in support of learners who experience barriers to learning may be more practical.

5.4.9   Classroom strategies

There are numerous classroom strategies appropriate for diverse classrooms. The extent to which they are used in ISASA schools was determined by presenting respondents with various classroom strategies in question 23 and asking for an indication on a Likert scale of 1 to 4 the extent these strategies are used in the classrooms of their schools. The scale was described as: 1 = often, 2 = sometimes, 3 = very occasionally and 4 = not at all.

5.4.9.1 Summary of statistics

Table 5.5 indicates the average response from schools, based on the calculation of the mean.

Classroom strategy	Average response	Mean	SD	Total
Co-operative learning, including peer-tutoring	Often	1.7778	0.8398	99
Teaching to accommodate preferred **learning and cognitive styles**	Often	1.9612	0.7912	103
Individualised Education Programmes (IEPs) are formulated for learners who experience barriers to learning	Sometimes	2.3619	1.1018	105
Modifying the classroom **environment** for learners who experience barriers to learning (e.g. seating arrangements, lighting etc.)	Often	1.8095	1.0009	105
Modifying **assessment tasks** for learners who experience barriers to learning (e.g. reduced or alternative tasks)	Often	1.8942	0.8914	104
Modifying the assessment performance of learners who experience barriers to learning by **reading** the task to the learner	Sometimes	2.0190	0.9505	105
Modifying the assessment performance of learners who experience barriers to learning by allowing **oral response**	Sometimes	2.2885	0.9722	104
When marking, **spelling concessions** are made for learners who experience barriers to learning	Often	1.7596	0.7943	104
When marking, **handwriting concessions** are made for learners who experience barriers to learning	Often	1.6762	0.8026	105
Extra time is given to learners who experience barriers to learning for the completion of tasks	Often	1.6000	0.8503	105
Learners who experience barriers to learning receive non-standard or modified termly **reports**	Very occasionally	3.0095	1.0696	105
Using **multi-media** (e.g. film clips, slides and tape recordings) to benefit learners who experience barriers to learning	Sometimes	2.8365	0.9765	104
Learners who experience barriers to learning use **word processors**	Very occasionally	3.0952	1.0609	105
Learners who experience barriers to learning use **digital personal organisers**	Very occasionally	3.5714	0.7827	105
Learners who experience barriers to learning use **assistive devices** (e.g. microphones, Braille translators)	Very occasionally	3.6476	0.8318	105

Table 5.5   The extent to which schools use various classroom strategies, based on mean response

Of 15 possible classroom strategies that would support learners who experience barriers to learning, seven are, on average, used often, four are, on average, used sometimes and four are, on average, used very occasionally.

The frequency tables provided in Appendix 6, tables 6.17.1 to 6.17.5 further describe the data from this question by indicating the number of schools that chose each option. By using a ratio of "use always" to "total responses", it was possible to rank the strategies used. The strategies used most often, are, in order from most used: allowing extra time; modifying the classroom environment; handwriting concessions; co-operative learning; spelling concessions; modification of assessment tasks; reading assessment tasks to learners; IEPs; teaching to various cognitive styles and oral assessments. The strategies which are least used are, in order from least used: assistive devices, personal organizers, word processors, non-standard reports and multi-media.

5.4.9.2 Comment

In a classroom consisting of learners with diverse learning needs, teachers can employ a number of strategies that enhance learning for all learners, as well as providing specific support to those who experience barriers to learning. In ISASA schools, use is often made of co-operative learning and teaching for diverse learning styles. These are practices commended in the literature on inclusion (section 3.3.4.3) and are indicative that teachers are applying instructional techniques well suited to diverse classrooms. Even if buildings are not always suited to access by people who use wheelchairs, teachers are often modifying their classroom environments to accommodate learners who experience barriers to learning. This may be related to the relatively high incidence of AD(H)D reported in schools, as positioning of learners who experience this barrier to learning is a way of addressing this barrier (Green & Chee 1997:103). Assessment modifications are often made for learners who experience barriers to learning, particularly by task modification or applying time, handwriting or spelling concessions. Modifying assessment by reading tasks to learners and allowing oral response are also used, although less often.

IEPs may be a way of designing individually relevant instruction and assessment for learners who experience barriers to learning. IEPs are, however, only "sometimes" used in ISASA schools and are not ranked highly among strategies used. The limited use of IEPs may be linked to the relative lack of training of teachers in inclusive education – training in the construction and implementation of IEPs has been shown (section 3.3.4.2) to be cited in the international literature as a component of teacher training in inclusive education. The use of multi-media as a resource to benefit learners who experience barriers to learning is also only "sometimes" used. Learners who experience various barriers to learning could benefit from exposure to, and use of film clips, slides and recordings in the classrooms.

Three of the four classroom strategies that are only used "very occasionally" are those that are technologically sophisticated and possibly expensive. Word processors could benefit learners who experience physical barriers and those who experience learning and language difficulties. They are, however, only "very occasionally" used in ISASA schools to address barriers to learning. Similarly, digital personal organisers that may assist learners who experience difficulty in organising their school lives are only "very occasionally" used. The cost and fragility of these devices may mitigate against their use. Given the relatively low numbers of learners who

experience sensory and other impairments in ISASA schools, it is to be expected that assistive devices are used "very occasionally" and many schools report that these are not used at all.

Modified termly reports are also used "very occasionally". Where modified assessment tasks and IEPs are used to accommodate learners who experience barriers to learning, it would be expected that these learners would receive school reports that would reflect the modified curriculum requirements. In ISASA schools, it seems that at least some learners on IEPs or for whom assessment tasks are being modified are not receiving reports that reflect this. Apart from the various classroom modifications and adaptations, the final question of the questionnaire sought to establish whether sundry other strategies were implemented to address barriers to learning.

5.4.10 General strategies

Question 24 of the questionnaire invited respondents to indicate whether or not various other strategies were implemented for the support of learners who experienced barriers to learning.

5.4.10.1   Summary of statistics

a.   Strategies that could be implemented by all schools

- Extra lessons outside school hours (provided in 95 of 103 responding schools);
- Training in study skills (provided in 81 of 103 responding schools);
- Support for those who learn in a language other than their home language (provided in 79 of 98 responding schools);
- Professional counselling (provided in 73 of 101 responding schools);
- Disability awareness programmes (provided in 44 of 100 responding schools);
- Meals provided to address deprivation (provided in 16 of 101 responding schools).

The frequency tables for these variables are provided in Appendix 6, tables 6.18.1 to 6.18.6.

b.   Strategies applicable to secondary schools only

- Non-exemption matriculation (provided in 43 of 102 responding schools, with 54 schools indicating that the question was not applicable);

- Standard grade only subjects (provided in 37 of 102 responding schools, with 55 schools indicating that the question was not applicable);
- School programme not leading to a senior certificate (provided in 14 of 102 responding schools, with 57 schools indicating that the question was not applicable).

The frequency tables for these variables are provided in Appendix 6, tables 6.19.1 to 6.19.3.

5.4.10.2   Comment

It is in some of the general strategies described above that ISASA schools show their commitment to providing support for their learners. While extra lessons and training in study skills would be valuable for all learners, they would be of particular benefit to learners who experience barriers to learning. Given that the most common intrinsic barriers to learning in ISASA schools are AD(H)D and learning disabilities, these interventions can be seen as part of the support that the schools provide. Language barriers have been shown to be relatively prevalent in ISASA schools and, while the exact nature of the language barriers was not ascertained in the questionnaire, the South African context suggests that for at least some learners, the barrier is that they are learning in a language other than their home language. This is borne out by the number of ISASA schools offering support to learners who are learning in a language other than their home language. As would be expected from the numbers of schools where psychologists, social workers or counsellors are available on the school property, professional counselling is offered at a number of responding schools. This may, to some extent, address the needs of learners who experience family problems or emotional/behavioural disorders as barriers to learning.

Less than half of responding schools offer disability awareness programmes. This response is lower than would be expected in the schools, given the diverse learner population. Also, disability awareness has been shown to be important to the development of inclusive schools. Of concern is the number of schools that indicated that it was "not applicable" that they would provide disability awareness, possibly because those schools do not include learners who experience impairments as barriers to learning. Given South Africa's constitutional values of dignity and freedom of discrimination, it could be expected that disability awareness would be relevant for all South African learners, whether or not their class mates are living with disabilities. The relatively few schools providing meals to address deprivation is possibly linked to the fact that relatively few schools report serving learners who experience socio-economic deprivation as a barrier to learning.

Secondary schools can show their commitment to serving diverse learners in the subjects and courses they offer. Most ISASA schools provide courses and subjects for those learners who may find higher grade subjects difficult. (Standard grade only subjects would include subjects like Compu-typing, Hotel-keeping and catering, Woodwork and Tourism. Mention should be made that the new curriculum being phased in with grade 10 in 2006 has abolished the distinction between higher and standard grade.) There are, however, a few schools who, because of the subjects and courses they offer, effectively exclude learners who are not able to achieve university exemption. Most schools only offer secondary school courses that would lead to matriculation; with a few schools providing programmes that are not designed to result in a senior certificate.

5.4.11 The practice of inclusion in ISASA schools

The second part of the research question that this study aims to answer is "*What practices facilitate the inclusion of learners who experience barriers to learning in ISASA member schools?*" The answer to the question has been revealed in the following ways:

- Policies
- Personnel
- Support for parents, teachers and learners
- Access
- Classroom and other strategies

There is thus evidence of a variety of inclusive practices being used in ISASA schools to facilitate the inclusion of learners who experience barriers to learning. Not all schools show the same commitment to inclusivity, with some schools making extensive use of the practices described in support of a very diverse learner population, and others including few learners who experience barriers to learning and making little use of inclusive practice. There is thus a range of schools, differing in the extent to which they could be regarded as inclusive. There are those that are highly inclusive, those that show commitment to inclusivity, those who are progressing towards inclusivity and those that are hardly inclusive.

5.5   Levels and predictors of inclusivity

5.5.1   Summary of statistics

By using a number of criteria (explained in section 4.8.8.2), schools were graded according to their level of inclusivity or inclusivity status. The mean and standard deviation of the scores given to schools were to determine the four levels of inclusivity. The number of schools in each of the four levels is:

- Level 1 (hardly inclusive): 16 schools
- Level 2 (progressing towards inclusivity): 29 schools
- Level 3 (showing commitment to inclusion): 42 schools
- Level 4 (highly inclusive): 15 schools
- Unable to assess: 3 schools

The frequency table for these variables is provided in Appendix 6, table 6.20.

Two way tests (chi-square and Fisher's exact test where frequencies were too small) were conducted on the variables initially used to determine inclusivity (i.e. criteria) and on inclusivity status to check that the variables were dependent. Having ascertained that they were dependent, hypotheses were formulated and tested using inclusivity status and the variables not used to determine inclusivity status. The following results emerged.

5.5.1.1 Inclusivity and location

The following hypotheses were formulated:
H_0: Inclusivity does not vary significantly by province.
H_1: Province is a significant factor in the variability of inclusivity

Significance was indicated for the provinces by comparing the frequencies in the "hardly inclusive" and "progressing towards inclusivity" categories against the "committed to inclusion" and "highly inclusive" categories, and guided by the largest cell chi-values. Gauteng (27 out of 38 schools = 0.71) and the Western Cape (12 of 19 schools = 0.63) appear to rate highly on inclusivity. The Eastern Cape (one of six schools = 0.17), KwaZulu-Natal (six of 17 schools = 0.35) and

Mpumalanga (three of eight schools = 0.38) rate relatively poorly. Fisher's Exact test is the test used here to establish significance as it compensates for the sparsely populated frequency table and is thus more reliable. ($Pr = 0.0098 < 0.05$, thus significance is established on the 5% level of significance.) The null hypothesis can be rejected at $\alpha \leq 0.05$. These contingency tables are included in Appendix 7, tables 7.4.1 and 7.4.2.

5.5.1.2 Inclusivity and school size

The following hypotheses were formulated:
H_0: Inclusivity does not vary significantly by school size
H_1: School size is a significant factor in the variability of inclusivity

Fisher's Exact test indicated no significance ($Pr = 0.1926$). School size is therefore no predictor of inclusivity status and the null hypothesis cannot be rejected. The contingency tables are included in Appendix 7, tables 7.5.1 and 7.5.2

5.5.1.3 Inclusivity and school fees

The following hypotheses were formulated:
H_0: Inclusivity does not vary significantly by school fees charged
H_1: School fees charged is a significant factor in the variability of inclusivity

Primary schools in the higher fee categories tend to have higher inclusivity ratings. This was established by ignoring the "not applicable" category, and combining some of the categories at the lower end of both primary and secondary school fee structures as indicated in the respective tables. This was done to obtain a more reliable test as many cells were sparsely populated. Fisher's Exact test indicated significance for primary schools ($Pr = 0.0322 < 0.05$) but not for secondary schools ($Pr = 0.2968$) in the higher fee categories and higher inclusivity status. The null hypothesis can be rejected at $\alpha \leq 0.05$ for primary schools. These contingency tables are included in Appendix 7, tables 7.6.1.1 to 7.6.2.2.

5.5.1.4 Inclusivity and school organisation for support

The following hypotheses were formulated:

H_0: Inclusivity does not vary significantly according to school organisation for support

H_1: School organisation for support is a significant factor in the variability of inclusivity

The ways schools are organised for the provision of support differs significantly according to inclusivity status. Where learners who experience barriers to learning remain in the general classroom and only receive support from the classroom teacher, lower inclusivity ratings are found. (Significance for this on the 5% level of significance is established by Fisher's Exact test: Pr = 0.0110 < 0.05) In the more highly rated schools, support is more likely to be delivered by specialist personnel either in the classroom (Pr = 0.0236 < 0.05) or in a pull-out system (Pr = 0.0281 < 0.05), as established by the Fisher's Exact test. The null hypothesis can be rejected at $\alpha \leq 0.05$. These contingency tables are included in Appendix 7, tables 7.7.1.1 to 7.7.3.2.

5.5.1.5 Inclusivity and parent support groups

The following hypotheses were formulated:

H_0: Inclusivity does not vary significantly according the presence of parent support groups

H_1: Parent support groups are a significant factor in the variability of inclusivity

The Fisher's exact test indicated no significance (Pr = 0.2587). Parent support groups are not necessarily a predictor of inclusivity and the null hypothesis cannot be rejected. This contingency table is included in Appendix 7, tables 7.8.1 and 7.8.2.

5.5.2   Comment

The criteria by which schools were graded in terms of inclusivity status have been acknowledged as subjective, tentative and circumscribed by the responses of this sample. It has, however, been confirmed that the criteria initially used to evaluate schools using a rubric, do statistically correlate with the inclusivity levels. It has then been established that the more highly rated schools in terms of inclusion are clustered in Gauteng and the Western Cape, with no evident reason for this. Implementing inclusion in an independent school may be costly, given the human and material

resources required, and it is therefore not unexpected to find that higher fee paying schools tend to be more inclusive.

Learners who experience barriers to learning in more inclusive schools seem to enjoy direct support from support personnel, whether in the classroom, or by being withdrawn from the classroom. A balance of in-class and pull-out support may be the optimal way for schools to ensure that the needs diverse learners can be accommodated (Walton & Nel 2004:12). While different schools have shown different levels of inclusivity, mention should also be made of those schools that are not inclusive.

5.6   Non-inclusive ISASA schools

Although tangential to the research question, the questionnaire offered an opportunity for those schools not pursuing inclusion to suggest reasons for this. The seven non-inclusive schools gave one or more reasons as follows: No learners who experience barriers to learning had applied at the school (mentioned by two schools); staff were inadequately trained (mentioned by two schools); buildings were not suitable (mentioned by two schools); the school's vision precluded the admission of learners who experience barriers to learning (mentioned by two schools) and other, unspecified reasons (mentioned by two schools). It is noted, however, that one of the schools which noted that their vision precluded the admission of learners who experience barriers to learning is a specialised school, offering training to learners who have a particular talent. None of these schools noted that its community would be resistant to the inclusion of learners who experience barriers to learning or that its classes were too large to include learners who experience barriers to learning. As with the data gained from the seven special schools, these frequencies are too small to reliably assess significance and are therefore noted for interest only.

5.7   ISASA schools outside South Africa

Given the poor response rate from ISASA schools in South Africa's neighbouring countries, it is not possible to ascertain whether the extent and practice of inclusion in ISASA schools in these countries is significantly different from that in ISASA schools in South Africa.

5.8   Conclusion

Descriptive statistics have been the primary tool for organising and summarising the data obtained from the questionnaire sent to ISASA school principals. By focussing on measures of central tendency and on the frequencies of variables, it has been possible to summarise the data from each question of the questionnaire. The summaries have been complemented by comments that endeavour to interpret the findings in the context of the study, and in the light of relevant literature. Thus the research question, divided into two parts, has been answered. First, the extent of the inclusion of learners who experience barriers to learning in ISASA schools has been answered by examining the means and frequency tables of the variables concerned with intrinsic and extrinsic barriers to learning, diversity of these barriers and the percentages of learners who experience barriers to learning in general classrooms. Second, the practice of inclusion has been described by examining means and frequency tables of the variables that are concerned with policies, school organisation, personnel, support, classroom and other strategies. Some of the variables have been cross tabulated and inferential statistics applied to establish whether dependent relationships exist between them. This has provided further information about specialist support personnel and has allowed for conclusions to be drawn about predictors of inclusivity status.

The goal of the research, to describe through an analysis of data the extent and practice of inclusion in ISASA schools, has thus been achieved and the research question answered. In the following chapter, summaries of the findings are made, conclusions are drawn and recommendations are offered.

Chapter 6: Summary, recommendations and conclusions

6.1   Introduction

This study has focused on two phenomena in South African education, that is inclusive education and independent education. An investigation was undertaken to explore the implementation of inclusive education in the independent school sector in South Africa. By limiting the focus to independent schools that belong to one particular independent schools' association, it was possible to obtain data that described the extent to which learners who experience barriers to learning are included in these independent schools, and the various practices that facilitate their inclusion. The findings have been interpreted in terms of their significance within the study, and in the light of reviewed literature. The study concludes with a summary of the literature review integrated with the findings of the investigation, the recommendations that can be made and the conclusions that can be drawn from the investigation.

6.2   Summary: The literature review and the empirical study

A literature review was undertaken to place this study in the context of South African and international writing and research on inclusive and independent education. The literature review elucidated concepts critical to the study, provided the foundation from which the questionnaire could be formulated, and offered a framework within which the data could be interpreted. The findings of the study augment the literature on inclusive and independent education with information about the extent and practice of inclusion in independent schools.

6.2.1   Independent education

Independent education has been a part of the educational landscape in South Africa since the 1800s. Currently, independent education accounts for 3.2% of educational provision in South Africa and the Constitution of South Africa protects the right of independent schools to exist, on condition that they meet certain criteria, including registration with provincial departments of education. About half of the approximately 2 000 independent schools registered with the provincial departments of education are affiliated with an independent schools association. One such association is the Independent Schools' Association of Southern Africa (ISASA) which requires, as a condition of membership, that schools meet quality criteria in accordance with ISASA policies. One of ISASA's

policies is its Diversity and Equity Policy, a section of which describes ISASA's expectation that its member schools include learners who experience barriers to learning wherever this is educationally feasible. This study has shown that a significant number of ISASA's member schools are highly inclusive of learners who experience barriers to learning or are showing commitment or progress towards inclusion. Inclusive education is relatively new in South Africa and schools here have to consider both the international experience of inclusion and the local context to develop a uniquely South African expression of inclusive education.

6.2.2   Inclusion

6.2.2.1 Inclusive education

A vast body of literature has emerged in the field of inclusive education. Of concern to this study has been the literature that has traced the history and international experience of inclusion. These sources have shown that the worldwide trend in education is away from segregated special education services towards inclusive classrooms where diversity is not only expected, but valued. Given impetus by the human rights discourse that emerged after World War Two and endorsed by the United Nations and Unesco, inclusive education is being implemented in both the developed and the developing world. This is an ongoing process and many countries have entrenched inclusion in education policy and legislation. In South Africa, the Constitution provides the foundation for inclusive education with its emphasis on equality, human dignity and freedom from discrimination. The South African Schools Act provides legislative grounds for inclusion and the *Education White Paper Six: Special Needs Education* of 2001 outlines the framework for the building of an inclusive education system. Subsequent policy documents and operational guidelines have begun to direct the implementation of inclusion in South Africa.

The implementation of inclusion has, however, not been exempt from criticism, particularly by those who doubt whether ordinary school classrooms have the capacity to support learners who experience barriers to learning. Of concern have been the studies conducted in South Africa and elsewhere that show teachers' lack of preparedness in the skills, knowledge and attitudes required for the successful implementation of inclusion. Despite these criticisms, many writers and researchers have shown the benefits of inclusive education to learners who experience barriers to learning who can expect to make academic and social progress in inclusive classrooms, to their peers who can learn empathetic skills and benefit from the teaching strategies used in inclusive

classrooms and to teachers who experience professional growth. Families may benefit by being able to send all their children to neighbourhood schools and communities should be enriched by the acceptance of diversity in their midst. The mixed findings about the merits of inclusion can partly be explained by differences in the way that inclusion is defined and practised.

Inclusion is not a fixed concept as it is defined with different emphases and practiced differently according to different contexts. Inclusion in South Africa will thus reflect this country's historical context and current educational and societal realities. The separate general and special education system inherited by the post apartheid government is being restructured to enable ordinary schools to facilitate the access, participation and support of diverse learners and, in particular, learners who experience barriers to learning. Drawing on resources from within and outside schools, schools need to change so that their culture, policies and practices promote and entrench acceptance, support and the provision of quality education for all learners.

6.2.2.2 Inclusion in schools

a.   Inclusive culture and policies

Inclusive culture (the norms, beliefs and values that underpin inclusion) is essential for the implementation of inclusion in schools. Without fundamental beliefs that all children are valued and should be accepted, that all children can learn and contribute to one another's learning and that risk-taking, collaboration and joint decision-making should characterise teaching and learning, inclusion will not be successful. Policies, too, are important in inclusive schools to guide and entrench the process of inclusion. Having an inclusion policy may be useful, but, in the ISASA schools investigated in this study, few schools had drawn up such a policy (section 5.4.1). Where schools do include learners who experience barriers to learning, it would seem important that their support needs be mentioned in other school policy documents, such as assessment, sport and discipline policies. In ISASA schools, assessment policies are most likely to mention learners who experience barriers to learning, but very few schools have made specific provision for these learners in other policy documents. Although policies are important, it is in practice that a school's commitment to inclusion will be evidenced.

b.   Inclusive practice

Inclusive practice may be regarded as all the structures, human and material resources and strategies that schools employ that enable them to support learners who experience barriers to learning. These can, for ease of discussion, be described at school-wide, classroom and individual level.

i.   School-wide inclusive practice

The principal and others involved in leadership and management in schools will influence inclusive practice in schools. Not only will they need to demonstrate attitudes that promote inclusive culture, they are responsible to ensure that human and material resources are harnessed in support of inclusion. One of the responsibilities of school management is to structure the school to position learners for support. This means organising support either in the general classroom or in separate classes some or all of the time. In ISASA schools, learners are usually included in the general classroom, with frequent use of a pull-out system for individual or small group support. As learners who experience barriers to learning are increasingly being included in the general classroom rather than being in separate special schools, general classroom teachers need to be equipped with the skills necessary to teach learners with diverse learning needs. Pre-service and in-service training in inclusive education and learning support is thus an important prerequisite for successful inclusive practice. Although some teachers in ISASA schools have some training (formal or informal) in inclusive or special needs education, there are significant numbers of teachers who have no such training. In addition to training, there are other practical ways of supporting teachers who teach in diverse classrooms. These include the management of class size, the reduction of teaching and extra-mural loads and the use of teacher aides. While these supports may be expensive, they could ensure that teachers have time to prepare effectively to meet the learning needs of all learners in the class. Teachers in ISASA schools are often supported through the management of class size, sometimes by reducing the work load and the occasional use of teacher aides. A significant source of support for teachers in inclusive schools should come from collaborative relationships built within the schools and with those outside the school.

The White Paper recommends that SBSTs be constituted in schools to co-ordinate the provision of support to learners and teachers, and teachers need to collaborate with their SBSTs to ensure that learning needs are met. SBSTs (comprised of teachers, special education teachers and specialist professionals (where available) and parents) should, in turn, collaborate with DSTs in addressing

the barriers to learning that learners in the schools experience. Special schools have a particular role to play in South Africa's inclusive education system as they are a repository of the skills and knowledge necessary for the effective teaching of learners who experience barriers to learning. Other community resources, like health and welfare organisations and NGOs, may also enhance a school's capacity for providing support. The role of parents in an inclusive school should not be minimised and teachers should not only be drawing on their knowledge of their children who experience barriers to learning, but should be collaborating with parents in support groups and decision making bodies. Collaborative practice seems to be well established in inclusive ISASA schools. Many have constituted SBSTs, often with the specialist professionals (like occupational therapists or psychologists) who practise at the schools and SBSTs are often found in ISASA schools where SENCOs are employed. ISASA schools often make use of special schools in both the state and independent sector for assessment of learners and training for staff and parents. By contrast, DSTs are seldom approached for assistance by ISASA schools and minimal use is made of hospitals and community organisations. Parent support is, however, extensively used in ISASA schools to provide resources and many schools have parent groups where information can be shared.

Inclusive practice at school-wide level not only requires extensive collaboration among all the human agents in the process, it also requires significant commitment of financial and technical resources. Apart from the costs of training and hiring additional personnel, access and participation of learners who experience barriers to learning require an investment in the adaptation of facilities. The Department of Public Works is to make state schools accessible for people with disabilities, particularly those with sensory and motor impairments, but independent schools will need to fund such adaptations themselves. Many ISASA schools note that more than half of their buildings, grounds and specialist teaching facilities are accessible to people who use wheelchairs (section 5.4.8). Because of these and other costs involved in restructuring schools towards greater inclusivity, it is not surprising to find that the more highly inclusive ISASA schools tend to be in the high fee categories. Planning and budgeting for inclusion will thus need to be part of schools' development and improvement strategies.

While inclusive practice at school-wide level focuses on organisational development and school restructuring and improvement for the provision of quality education for all learners, it is at classroom and individual level that learners are individually supported and many barriers to learning are addressed.

ii.   Inclusive practice at classroom and individual level

Teachers in South African schools are implementing the Revised National Curriculum which is outcomes-based. It is a curriculum for all, which means that learners who experience barriers to learning do not follow a different curriculum, but may need adaptations to the curriculum to ensure that their individual needs are met. Whereas in the past, learners were required to adapt to inflexible curricula and teaching methods, inclusion requires that the school and the education system make the adaptations necessary to ensure that all learners can access the curriculum and participate meaningfully in the learning experience. These adaptations, guided by *The Curriculum Adaptation Guidelines of the Revised National Curriculum Statement* (DoE 2005e:8), enable teachers to differentiate in teaching, learning and assessment in their lesson plans. The first possible adaptation is to the environment in which teaching, learning and assessment takes place. By attending to aspects like lighting and placement of learners and furniture, some barriers to learning can be minimised. This study has shown that teachers in ISASA schools often modify their classroom environments for the benefit of learners who experience barriers to learning (section 5.4.9). A second possible adaptation is to learning, teaching and assessment techniques. Teaching techniques appropriate to a heterogeneous classroom include teaching to accommodate various learning styles and types of intelligence; multi-lingual teaching and multi-level teaching. The use of multi-media may enhance the learning experience of many learners, particularly those who prefer or rely on the visual modality. Co-operative learning and co-teaching are also instructional arrangements well suited to inclusive classrooms. These techniques, commended in the literature on inclusion, are being used in ISASA schools (section 5.4.9). In particular, these schools have been shown to make regular use of co-operative learning strategies and teaching to accommodate various learning styles, and multi-media is sometimes used. Multi-level teaching is evidenced in the use (albeit only sometimes in ISASA schools) of IEPs for those learners who need specific individual support. IEPs may also require that adaptations also be made to teaching, learning and assessment support material and to the number and structure of learning programmes. Assessment, integral to teaching and learning, should also differentiate among learners and is a significant area where adaptations can be made to meet different learning needs.

Assessment adaptations can be made such that tasks are modified in ways that do not alter the conceptual difficulty of the task, for example by reading the task to the learner and allowing oral response, reducing the length of the assessment task or allowing extra time. When marking,

concessions can be applied so that learners who experience barriers to learning are not penalised for spelling mistakes or handwriting. Assistive devices, like Braille translators, may also be necessary to allow certain learners to participate in assessment opportunities. Adaptations may also be made such that the conceptual difficulty of a task is modified or scaffolding is introduced according to individual learning needs. Thus differentiation in assessment is made possible and learners in an inclusive classroom are given the opportunity to meet assessment standards and learning outcomes at an appropriate pace and within an appropriate timeframe. Recording and reporting are integral to assessment, and records and reports should reflect any assessment modifications made. Assessment modifications will need to be made in all schools that include learners who experience barriers to learning, and inclusive ISASA schools have been shown to use a variety of assessment modifications (section 5.4.9). These include granting extra time to learners who experience barriers to learning, making spelling and handwriting concessions, and modifying the tasks and performance expected of learners. Reports are, however, modified only very occasionally and assistive devices and other technologies are seldom used by learners who experience barriers to learning in these schools.

Inclusive practice is premised on one of inclusion's fundamental tenets, that is that schools and teachers change and adapt their practices to meet the needs of diverse learners. Best inclusive practice at any particular time is dependent on the context. Any description of inclusive practices is most useful as an indication of possible strategies that schools and teachers can employ, rather than as a prescription of what ought to be done. The extent to which any inclusive practices will be applicable will depend on the composition of the inclusive classroom, and in particular the barriers to learning that are experienced by learners in the specific classrooms.

6.2.2.3 Barriers to learning

An inclusive education system seeks to address the barriers to learning that learners may experience. These barriers may be intrinsic to the learner (for example, various impairments) or they may be extrinsic to the learner and arise from the education system, the family or the society. An outdated medical approach to explain why some learners do not succeed at school locates the problem with the learner and looks to specialists to diagnose and treat the learner, often in settings separate from the learner's peers. By contrast, a social approach focuses on the social construction of difference and on society's failure to acknowledge or accommodate the needs of people with disabilities. A systemic approach understands that barriers to learning arise from the complex

interplay of factors extrinsic and intrinsic to learners. This approach seems to be the most useful as it does not deny the impact of intrinsic barriers and so requires that appropriate individual support is rendered, while at the same time demanding that schools and the education system critically evaluate and address the ways in which they constitute barriers to learning. Schools will need to change to become responsible for meeting the learning needs of diverse learners and, as a result, it can be expected that a percentage of learners in ordinary classrooms will be those who experience barriers to learning.

Classrooms in ISASA schools are exhibiting diversity and learners who experience barriers to learning are found in most classrooms. The most frequently reported intrinsic barriers to learning are AD(H)D and learning disabilities (section 5.3.1), and family problems and language barriers are the most frequently reported extrinsic barriers to learning (section 5.3.2). Many schools are including learners with more intensive support needs, although the incidence of motor, intellectual and sensory impairments is relatively low. Relevant support for learners who experience the various barriers to learning is being provided through the inclusive practices implemented in ISASA schools. Inclusion is, however, a process, and schools can learn from the inclusive practices of ISASA schools and so increase their repertoire of support strategies. The information gleaned from the results of research into inclusive practice should, however, only be applied with due consideration of the limitations of the research endeavour.

6.3   Limitations and recommendations

In demarcating this study, certain limitations were imposed by the research design. These include the possible disadvantages of the research instrument (the self-administered survey) and the choice of the population to be surveyed (principals of ISASA schools). Other limitations emerged in the execution of the study and are concerned with non- and incomplete responses. These limitations need to be made explicit with suggestions of further research that could address them. Despite the limitations, the findings of the study suggest that recommendations can be made, particularly to ISASA schools and, to a lesser extent, to South African schools in general. Further research is not only indicated by the limitations of this study, but by questions that emerge from the study.

6.3.1   Limitations of this investigation

6.3.1.1 Limitations inherent in the design and demarcation of the study

- By limiting the study to ISASA schools, ISASA pre-schools, non-ISASA independent schools and state schools have been excluded in the research design. Further research is needed to establish the extent and practices of inclusion in these schools.
- School principals were invited to respond to the questionnaire. The experiences and perceptions of teachers, learners and their parents would need to be ascertained in additional research.
- Space constraints in the questionnaire meant that detailed definitions of terminology (e.g. learning disability, family problems, co-operative learning) could not be offered to respondents. As a result, inconsistency in responses to the questionnaire may have occurred. Additional research that focuses on specific phenomena with comprehensive definitions is needed to address this limitation.

6.3.1.2 Limitations emerging in the execution of the study

- Non-responses may have compromised the extent to which the findings may be generalised. Although the response rate is deemed acceptable in the light of other studies in the sector, it is possible that the population of non-respondents is different from the respondents. Results must be interpreted with due acknowledgement of this limitation.
- In some instances incomplete questionnaires resulted in responses missing in data capture and analysis. Where this occurred (for example in number of staff employed), conclusions drawn must be regarded as provisional and tentative. Additional surveys of schools would be required to confirm the findings.
- The poor response to questionnaires sent to ISASA schools beyond South Africa's borders has resulted in limited conclusions regarding inclusion in ISASA schools in *southern* Africa. Further research is required to reach these schools.

Despite these limitations, it is possible to make a number of recommendations based on the findings of the study.

6.3.2   Recommendations

6.3.2.1 Recommendations to ISASA schools

The study has indicated that many ISASA schools represent a diverse learner population and serve a wide range of learning needs. To enhance support for these learners and to promote the development of inclusive education in ISASA schools, the following recommendations are made:

- Policies that would guide and entrench the inclusion of learners who experience barriers to learning need to be developed for all aspects of schools life. Schools can be encouraged to develop policies that would entrench inclusion in the life of the school and to make mention of learners who experience barriers to learning in other school policy documents, like assessment, discipline and sport policies.
- Admission policies and criteria in some schools may need revision in the light of a commitment to inclusion as school readiness testing, language and mathematics proficiency testing and other admission criteria may effectively exclude learners who experience barriers to learning.
- Schools could explore alternative ways of delivering support to learners. In particular, the shortcomings of pull-out support can be addressed by the effective and additional use of in-class support.
- Training for teachers to teach effectively in diverse classrooms needs to be prioritised. With particular focus on the barriers to learning that occur with high frequency in ISASA schools and classroom strategies that facilitate access to the curriculum and participation for all, formal and informal training should equip teachers with the knowledge, skills and attitudes required for inclusive classrooms.
- Teaching strategies like co-operative learning and teaching to accommodate diverse learning styles, often used in ISASA schools, should be strengthened and encouraged.
- Specific attention needs to be given to differentiation in the curriculum and assessment through the judicious use of IEPs and modified assessment strategies. Individual reports should be adjusted to reflect these curriculum adaptations.
- Where available, technology could enhance the classroom experience, through use of multi-media and various computer applications.
- Attention could be given to additional ways in which teachers who teach learners who experience barriers to learning can be supported. The additional time required to prepare for

diverse classes can be acknowledged through reduced teaching and extra-mural loads and timetables can be adjusted to allow for collaborative planning.

- SBSTs could be encouraged as a way to facilitate learning support in the schools. Where these teams have been constituted, consideration could be given to the composition and function of the teams. Where the teams are primarily or exclusively comprised of specialist support personnel, attention needs to be given to empowering general classroom teachers to contribute meaningfully to these teams. Where the teams operate within a medical paradigm that emphasises the problems that learners have, consideration needs to be given to the ways in which the school, the education system and other societal factors give rise to barriers to learning. The SBST can, in these instances, address these barriers with a view to removing them through in-service training and support for teachers. Schools that have not constituted SBSTs could be urged to do so. Because it has been shown that in ISASA schools there is a dependent relationship between having SBSTs and SENCOs, creating a SENCO post may be a way to ensure that such a team is established.

- The role of parents in support of learners who experience barriers to learning should be encouraged in ISASA schools. Consideration could be given to establishing parent groups where information can be shared, and where parents can assume an active role in contributing to the provision of support in the school. This may involve gathering resources, offering time and mobilising support for the inclusion effort in the school.

- While many ISASA schools offer extra lessons and language support, attention needs to be given to the addition of disability awareness programmes to the curriculum. Even in schools where there are no learners with impairments, disability awareness can raise acceptance and understanding of diversity in society.

- Wheelchair accessibility needs to be planned for new buildings and facilities in ISASA schools. In particular, specialist teaching facilities like laboratories need to be reviewed in the light of their accessibility.

- Networks of support beyond the schools could be further explored. The community and special schools have the potential to yield resources that could increase the capacity of ISASA schools to respond to diversity. The support already provided by many family members should be strengthened and further support sought from volunteers and community and welfare organisations. The use of classroom aides or facilitators could be explored as a means to promote participation of learners who experience barriers to learning. Special schools have a wealth of expertise that ISASA schools could access. In particular, the

capacity of special schools to provide staff training in identifying barriers to learning and effective classroom strategies needs to be further utilised.

- The Department of Education should be lobbied for clarity on the extent to which independent schools can access support from their DSTs.

- The fact that more inclusive schools tend to be in the higher fee paying categories suggests that the implementation of inclusion is financially expensive. Schools should therefore be encouraged to consider budgeting for the costs of meeting the support needs of learners who experience barriers to learning.

6.3.2.2 Recommendations to schools in South Africa

Although the study was limited to independent schools belonging to ISASA, the findings suggest that recommendations can be made to schools in general in South Africa:

- Inclusion is an underlying principle of the Revised National Curriculum Statement and is integral to the implementation of Outcomes-Based Education in South Africa. This study has revealed that inclusion is not merely an ideal espoused by the curriculum but, based on the findings of ISASA schools, is both feasible and practical in the South African context. Other schools can look to the experiences of ISASA schools and can be encouraged to pursue inclusivity.

- Highly inclusive ISASA schools have ensured that specialist support personnel (therapists, psychologists, etc.) are available at the school and that teachers are trained and implement classroom practices that promote effective teaching and learning in diverse classrooms. This suggests that the successful implementation of inclusion in schools in South Africa will require a significant commitment of human resources at school level. Employing additional staff and training them is costly, and schools will need to make inclusion a financial priority when developing budgets.

In addition to the recommendations that can be made to schools, further research arising from this investigation is indicated.

6.3.2.3 Recommendations for further research

The findings of this investigation suggest further research to determine:

- The nature of barriers to learning experienced by learners in ISASA schools, for example, what constitutes "family problems", "chronic illness" and "language barriers";
- Details of the classroom strategies that are being employed, for example, what co-operative learning strategies are proving effective;
- Whether inclusivity in ISASA schools will change over time. Repeating the investigation after some years elapse would be instructive;
- What the findings would be if the investigation was repeated in non-ISASA independent or state schools, with the possibility of comparative studies;
- Whether the assessment for inclusivity status can be applied to other schools, and, if so, what the results would be;
- Why some of the variables are mutually dependent, for example, why ISASA schools with higher inclusivity status are clustered in Gauteng and the Western Cape.

Further research in any of these areas would increase the South African education community's understanding of inclusion and how it can be implemented successfully for the benefit of South African learners.

6.4 Conclusion

6.4.1 The extent and practice of inclusion in ISASA schools

The extent of inclusion is seen in the number of learners who experience intrinsic and extrinsic barriers to learning who are accommodated in ISASA schools, and in the diversity of learning needs represented in these schools. Ensuring the support of these diverse learners has resulted in the implementation of inclusive practice that has been described in the international and local literature. Inclusive practice at school-wide, classroom and individual level has ensured support through the provision of trained and specialist personnel, the accessibility of facilities, the implementation of inclusive classroom strategies and individually relevant curriculum and assessment adaptations.

Implementing inclusion in schools has been described as a journey. There are ISASA schools at various points in this journey. Some are already highly inclusive, serving diverse learners and implementing an array of inclusive practice. Some show few signs of inclusivity, with relatively homogeneous learner populations and offering minimal support. It is encouraging to note that the majority of ISASA schools show evidence that they are progressing towards inclusivity or that they are committed to inclusion. There may, however, be theoretical objections to the ways in which inclusion is practised and omissions and inconsistencies in the inclusive practice of some ISASA schools. At this early stage of inclusive education in South Africa, it seems that all efforts towards greater inclusivity in schools should be encouraged so that schools continue on the journey of inclusion and learn from one another's challenges and successes.

6.4.2   The value of this study

The study was motivated by the belief that inclusive education has a role to play in the development of an inclusive society. This is confirmed by the Minister of Education, who maintains that every institution in South Africa, including schools, has a role to play in reshaping society. The Minister also asserts that one of the impediments to the realisation of a shared destiny as a nation is "exclusionary institutional cultures" (Pandor 2006). Schools that pursue the inclusion, rather than the exclusion, of learners who experience barriers to learning and provide support for these learners can be seen to be contributing to the reshaping of South African society towards a shared destiny, where constitutional values of equality, dignity and non-discrimination are realised. The extent to which independent schools, and in particular ISASA members, are pursuing inclusion has been the focus of this study.

This study was undertaken with a goal to describe, through the analysis of data collected from independent (ISASA) schools practicing inclusion, the extent to which learners who experience barriers to learning are included in these schools and the school-wide and classroom practices that facilitate inclusion. This goal has been achieved with a detailed description of data gathered from ISASA schools, and interpretation of the data in the light of South African and international literature. ISASA schools, independent schools, and schools in general in South Africa can, with due consideration of differing contexts, benefit from this description of what ISASA schools are doing to ensure the inclusion and support of learners who experience barriers to learning in their midst. From adaptations made for the specific support of an individual learner, to classroom techniques that enhance the learning of a class of diverse learners, to school-wide interventions that

ensure the human and material resources are directed towards the inclusive effort, ISASA schools have offered examples of how inclusion can be a reality in South African schools. This study has thus confirmed Hofmeyr's assertion (quoted in section 1.1) that a number of independent schools are implementing inclusion and are learning valuable lessons for the whole system. It is to the system's advantage to heed these lessons, to learn from ISASA schools and so to build a truly inclusive education and training system for South African learners.

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Appendices

Appendix 1: Letter requesting permission to undertake research into ISASA schools

<div align="right">

P.O. Box 77587
Fontainebleau
2032
15 October 2004

</div>

Dr J Hofmeyr
National Executive Director
ISASA
P O Box 87430
Houghton
2041

Dear Dr Hofmeyr

<u>Request to undertake research into independent schools</u>

Some two years ago I wrote to you as I was considering conducting research into the inclusive practices of independent schools. At that time you graciously responded and gave me the contact details of some schools that were pursuing inclusion. Since then, I have registered with UNISA and the department of special needs education has approved a proposal to investigate the extent and practices of inclusion in independent schools (ISASA members). I am convinced that the results of a survey into what schools are doing to become more responsive to the needs of learners who experience barriers to learning will be valuable both for ISASA and for the education system in South Africa as a whole.

I would hereby like to request permission to conduct a survey through a postal questionnaire (with internet response option) of the principals of ordinary ISASA schools to ascertain the numbers of learners who experience barriers to learning included in the various schools and the school-wide and classroom practices that facilitate this inclusion. I would like to pilot the questionnaire with a few schools in February next year and, after making the necessary alterations, send the survey out in May next year, after the schools return for the winter term. At the suggestion of Mr Lee, and after brief discussion with Ms Rees-Gardener, I would like somehow to link awareness of the survey with the advertising of the inclusion conference planned for July. I feel that it would be important to try to complete the survey before the conference so that principals report on what is actually happening in their schools, rather than what they have learnt ought to be happening.

I have deliberately limited the survey to ISASA member schools because ISASA seems at this point to be the only association of independent schools that has made specific reference to the inclusion of 'special needs' learners in policy for member schools. The results of the investigation would be made available to you in full, and to any of the schools that participate (anonymity of schools would be guaranteed in the report). Achieving a reasonable response rate will be most important for the validity of the results and I would be grateful for any assistance or suggestions in this regard. The questionnaire itself is still in draft form.

My professional and academic background is that I am the deputy principal and head of academics at The King's School Robin Hills (a member of ACSI, not ISASA!). I qualified as a high school English teacher at Wits and taught first at Parktown High School for Girls and have been at The King's School since 1992. I have engaged in part time studies through UNISA for the past ten years, first completing a B.Ed in Special Needs and then an M.Ed in Educational Leadership. My dissertation was on the role of education managers in implementing inclusion in Christian schools. This led on to doctoral studies and to my current research interest in inclusion in independent schools. I have conducted various in-service training seminars on the topic of inclusion and recently presented papers at the SAALED conference at Wits.

I look forward to your favourable response to this request. Please do not hesitate to contact me should you require further information.

Yours sincerely

Elizabeth Walton (Mrs)

elizawalton@yahoo.co.uk
011 792-1420 (phone – school)   011 792-7604 (phone – home)
011 792-4539 (fax)   083 239 0318 (cell)

Appendix 2: Response from ISASA

Independent Schools Association of Southern Africa
Association incorporated under Section 21   Reg. No. 99/19655/08

16 St David Road, Houghton
PO Box 87430, Houghton 2041

Email: info@isasa.org
Website: www.isasa.org

Tel: (011) 648-1331 ● Fax: (011) 648-1467

February 2005

Dear Heads

Mrs Elizabeth Walton is undertaking an investigation into the extent and practice of inclusion within independent schools in South Africa. We believe that this is a most important investigation and have therefore agreed to provide administrative assistance and co-operation for the investigation. The arrangement is that all her findings and conclusions will be made available to ISASA.

I would thus request that you assist with the filling in and submission of this questionnaire. All information is for statistical purposes and will be kept confidential at all times.

If you do have any queries please do not hesitate to contact me.

Yours faithfully

John Lobban
Deputy Director: Membership

National Director: **Jane Hofmeyr** ● Personal Assistant: **Kim Curran** ● Deputy Director Membership: **John Lobban**
Deputy Director Policy: **Sue Rees Gardener** ● Development Coordinator: **Jean James-Smith**
Policy Analyst: **Peter Mosang** ● Office Administrator: **Lesley Viljoen** ● Financial Administrator: **Joyce Mdlongwa**
Communications Manager: **Simon Lee** ● Receptionist: **Daphne Mthombeni**

Appendix 3: Questionnaire covering letter

P.O. Box 587
Fontainebleau
2032
2005-05-04

Dear Principal

Request for assistance: questionnaire

In its submission to the Minister of Education, the National Alliance of Independent School Associations (NAISA) noted that independent schools had implemented a number of policies and programmes that have benefited the education system as a whole in South Africa. One of the policies and programmes mentioned is "inclusivity for learners with special needs". I would like to request your assistance in a survey that will ascertain the extent to which learners with special needs have been included in independent (ISASA) schools and the various practices that facilitate this inclusion.

The study, which forms part of a doctoral programme at the University of South Africa, is conducted by means of the attached questionnaire which has been sent to the principals of all ISASA schools. ISASA has endorsed the study and will receive a full report on the analysed data (see attached letter). The extent to which the results will be a reliable reflection of ISASA schools will be determined by the rate of response by principals. Your participation would thus be greatly valued. Absolute confidentiality of information received from the questionnaire is guaranteed and schools will in no way be individually identified in any reports arising from the data.

I am convinced that the inclusive practices of independent schools merit research and their experiences deserve articulation for the possible benefit of all schools in South Africa. I therefore look forward to your response. If you have any questions, please do not hesitate to contact me.

Yours sincerely

Elizabeth Walton

Phone: 011-792-1420 (Until 14h30 each day)
             011-792-7604 (Home)
             083-239-0318
Fax: 011-792-4539
E-mail: elizabeth@inclusion.co.za

Appendix 4: Questionnaire

Instructions for completing and returning this questionnaire

- **Your honest, candid answers are appreciated**
- **Various types of questions are included in this questionnaire: some ask for facts and figures, some ask for a 'Yes/No' response and some ask for an answer on a scale.**
- **The symbol ✎ asks for a written response.**
- **The symbol # asks for a numerical response**
- **The symbol X asks that you place an "X" in the block(s) or next to the answers that apply to your school**
- **Please answer questions fully. If necessary, please use the *'not applicable (N/A)'* or '*not at all'* options where these are offered, rather than leaving the question blank. This is important for analytical purposes.**
- **Not all questions will be applicable to all schools. Please follow the arrows and the directions in the shaded blocks.**
- **Please return the completed questionnaire in the self-addressed, stamped envelope to: E. Walton**
  P.O. Box 587
  Fontainebleau
  2032
- **Please respond at your earliest convenience, and by 8 July at the latest. Schools on holiday at this time are requested to return the questionnaire as soon as possible in the new term.**

1. Biographical information of the responding school:

1.1.1 School name (will not in any way be revealed, but necessary to track responses to this questionnaire)

✎

1.1.2 Province (schools in RSA) **or country** (schools outside RSA). Please place X in the block that applies:

1. Eastern Cape	2. KwaZulu-Natal	3. Mpumalanga	4. North West	5. Free State	6. Northern Cape	7. Western Cape
8. Gauteng	9. Limpopo	10. Mozambique	11. Swaziland	12. Lesotho	13. Namibia	14. Botswana

1.2 Please indicate the **grades you serve**: Grade _____ to _____

1.3 What is the **total number of learners** currently enrolled in the school?

#

1.4. Please indicate your average annual tuition fee structure per learner by placing X in the block that applies:

1.4.1 Primary Schools	1. Above R19 000	2. R13 000 to R19 000	3. R7 500 to R13 000	4. R5 400 to R7 500	5. R3 750 to R5 400	6. Below R3 750	7. Not Appli-cable

1.4.2 High Schools	1. Above R24 000	2. R16 000 to R24 000	3. R8 500 to R16 000	4. R5 400 to R8 500	5. R3 750 to R5 400	6. Below R3 750	7. Not Appli-cable

2. Is the school a mainstream or ordinary school? Please place X next to the answer that applies

1.Yes	2. No
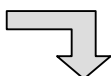
If you answered **'yes'**, please proceed with **question 3** on the next page**.**

If you answered **'no'**, that is, the school is a special or remedial school; please proceed directly to **question 26** on page 16 at the end of the questionnaire.

Questions 3 – 25 apply to MAINSTREAM or ORDINARY SCHOOLS

3.1   Learners in schools may experience various barriers to their learning. These learners are often described as having 'special education needs'. Please indicate approximately *how many* learners in the school experience the following barriers to learning?

(Please count learners only once. If a learner experiences more than one barrier to learning in the list below, please only indicate that learner under the most significant barrier that he or she faces.)

Barriers to learning (intrinsic to the learner)	Number
1. Attention Deficit (Hyperactivity) Disorder	#
2. Autism spectrum disorder	#
3. Chronic illness (include epilepsy, asthma, tuberculosis, HIV/AIDS and other illnesses that cause barriers to learning)	#
4. Emotional and behavioural disorder	#
5. Intellectual impairment	#
6. Learning disability	#
7. Physical disabilities: motor impaired	#
8. Physical disabilities: wheelchair-bound	#
9. Sensory impaired: blind or partially sighted	#
10. Sensory impaired: deaf or hard of hearing	#
11. Other (please specify) 🖊	#
Other (please specify) 🖊	#
Barriers to learning (extrinsic to the learner)	
12. Debilitating lack of parental involvement in learners' education	#
13. Family problems (e.g. divorce, death, violence)	#
14. Socio-economic deprivation	#
15.Language barriers (learning in a language in which the learner is not competent)	#
16.Feeling unsafe when traveling to or from school	#
17. Feeling unsafe at school	#
18. Other (please specify) 🖊	#

For official use only column:
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3.2   What percentage of an average, general classroom would comprise learners who experience barriers to learning? Please place X next to the number of the block that applies.

1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.
0%	< 5%	6 - 9%	10 - 14%	15 - 19%	20 - 24%	25 - 29%	30 - 39%	40+%

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If your school **does include** at least some learners who experience barriers to learning as indicated in question 3.1 and 3.2, please proceed with **question 4** on the next page.

If your answers to question 3.1 and 3.2 are **zero**, that is, your school **does not or cannot include** learners who experience barriers to learning; please proceed directly to **question 25** on page 15 on the second last page of the questionnaire.

Questions 4 - 24 apply to all schools that in some way *include* 'learners with special education needs'. The term 'learners who experience barriers to learning' will be used in preference to 'learners with special education needs'.

The following questions refer to policies

4.   ISASA's Diversity and Equity Policy mentions that member schools should
> ***"… include learners with special education needs wherever feasible educationally".***

Please place X in the block that best describes your response to this policy:

                                                                              X

1. This school includes learners with special education needs **irrespective of** ISASA's policy	
2. This school includes learners with special education needs **because of** ISASA's policy	

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5.1   Does the school have a *specific or separate policy* document that guides the admission and support of learners who experience barriers to learning (for example, an 'inclusion policy')? Please place X next to the answer that applies:

1.Yes	2. No

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5.2   Do any of the following *school policy documents* make reference to learners who have special needs or who experience barriers to learning?
Please place X next to your answer(s):

1. Assessment policy	1. Yes	2. No
2. Sport policy	1. Yes	2. No
3. Language policy	1. Yes	2. No
4. Discipline policy	1. Yes	2. No
5. Other policies that make reference to learners who have special needs or who experience barriers to learning (please specify)✎		

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6.   Please indicate the extent to which the following are prerequisites in your *admissions policy and practice*.
Please place X next to the answer that applies where:

1= Always
2= Usually
3= Sometimes
4= Never
5= Not applicable

1. Passing a school readiness test	1	2	3	4	5
2. Passing an entrance test in Mathematics	1	2	3	4	5
3. Passing an entrance test in the language of instruction	1	2	3	4	5
4. Undergoing a standardised IQ test	1	2	3	4	5
5. Adherence to the school's dominant religion	1	2	3	4	5
6. Physical health	1	2	3	4	5
7. Mobility	1	2	3	4	5
8. Other admission requirements (please specify): ✎	1	2	3	4	5

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<u>This question is concerned with school organization</u>

7.   Schools are *organized* in different ways to ensure that barriers to learning are addressed. Please place X next to the answer that indicates the extent to which the following model(s) are used in your school. Please use the following scale:

1 = Always
2= Often
3= Occasionally
4=Not at all

1. Learners who experience barriers to learning remain in the general classroom and are **only** supported by the general classroom teacher.	1	2	3	4
2. Learners who experience barriers to learning remain in the general classroom. Support personnel* provide support only **indirectly** to these learners by working closely with the general classroom teacher.	1	2	3	4
3. Learners who experience barriers to learning remain in the general classroom and support personnel provide support **in** the classroom.	1	2	3	4
4. Learners who experience barriers to learning remain in the general classroom and are **"taken out"** of the classroom on an individual or small group basis to receive support from support personnel.	1	2	3	4
5. Learners who experience barriers to learning are in **separate** classrooms for **most of the day** but join their peers for some academic activities (like outings, art etc.).	1	2	3	4
6. Learners who experience barriers to learning are in **separate** classrooms **all day** and would interact with their peers during break or after hours.	1	2	3	4
7. Other (please specify): 🖉	1	2	3	4

*Support personnel would refer to special needs or remedial teachers, therapists of various kinds and members of the school support team

The following questions are concerned with personnel

8.   Are the following *specialist support personnel available* on the school property to support learners who experience barriers to learning? Please place X next to the answer that applies.

If your answer is "yes" in any category, please indicate how many such specialists are available on the school property.

Physiotherapist	1. Yes	2. No	#
Occupational therapist	1. Yes	2. No	#
Speech and hearing therapist	1. Yes	2. No	#
Play therapist	1. Yes	2. No	#
Psychologist	1. Yes	2. No	#
Remedial or special needs teacher	1. Yes	2. No	#
Social worker	1. Yes	2. No	#
Other specialist (please specify) ✏			#

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9.   How are these support personnel *paid*? Please place X next to the answer that applies where:

> **1= Paid a salary by the school**
> **2= Bills parents directly**
> **3= Voluntary work (i.e. not paid)**
> **4= Not applicable (i.e. no such person available)**

Physiotherapist	1	2	3	4
Occupational therapist	1	2	3	4
Speech and hearing therapist	1	2	3	4
Play therapist	1	2	3	4
Psychologist	1	2	3	4
Remedial or special needs teacher	1	2	3	4
Social worker	1	2	3	4
Other specialist (please specify) ✏	1	2	3	4

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If you have another payment option, please describe this:

✏

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10.   Do learners who receive additional support *pay additional school fees*? Please place X next to the answer that applies:

1.Yes	2. No	

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11.   Do you have a *special needs co-ordinator*? Please place X next to the answer that applies:

1.Yes	2. No

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⤷ **If you answered "Yes", please indicate the nature of the post by placing X in the appropriate block(s):**

	X
1. The special needs co-ordinator is a general classroom teacher who assumes this as an **additional responsibility**	
2. The special needs co-ordinator is a **specific post** filled by a trained special needs teacher	
3. The special needs co-ordinator is a **specific post** filled by a psychologist or other therapist	
4. The special needs co-ordinator is a **senior appointment** (i.e. carries the status of HOD or deputy)	
5. Other (please specify) ✎	

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12.1   How many teachers* do you employ?

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(*Exclude the principal and teachers whose only role is to provide learning support from the total.)

12.2   Please indicate how many of this total number of teachers have *training* in special needs education:

1. Number of teachers (excluding those whose *only* role is to provide learning support) who have **informal training** in special needs education (e.g. have attended workshops to equip them to teach effectively in diverse classrooms)	#
2. Number of teachers (excluding those whose *only* role is to provide learning support) who have **formal training** in special needs education (e.g. have degrees or diplomas in special needs education)	#

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13.   Please indicate, by placing X on the appropriate block, the extent to which the principal has training in special needs education

	X
1. The principal has **informal training** in special needs education (e.g. has attended conferences, seminars or workshops).	
2. The principal has **formal training** in special needs education (e.g. degree, diploma).	
3. The principal has **no training** in special needs education.	

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The following questions are concerned with support

14.   Does the school have a formally constituted *'school based support team'* **to address barriers to learning? Please place X in the block that applies:**

1.Yes	2. No

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⇨   **If you answered 'yes' to question 14, please provide the following information about this support team:**

1. **How often** does the team meet? Please specify: ✎
2. **Who comprises** the team? (Please indicate number and role, e.g. 3 educators, 1 HOD, 1 Occupational Therapist etc.) ✎
3. What specific **functions** does this team perform? Please be as specific as possible. ✎

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15.   Please indicate the extent to which the following support is provided for *learners* **who experience barriers to learning. Please place X next to the answer that applies where:**

> **1= Often**
> **2= Sometimes**
> **3= Very occasionally**
> **4= Not used at all**

Specialist agency support is used (e.g. Epilepsy South Africa, Down Syndrome South Africa)	1	2	3	4
Family members provide resources or support	1	2	3	4
Volunteers assist learners	1	2	3	4
Aides or facilitators who provide classroom assistance are assigned to individual learners	1	2	3	4
Local hospitals provide resources or support	1	2	3	4
Other community resources are used (please specify) ✎	1	2	3	4

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16. **Please indicate the extent to which the following support is provided for *teachers* who teach learners who experience barriers to learning. Please place X next to the answer that applies where:**

> **1= Often**
> **2= Sometimes**
> **3= Very occasionally**
> **4= Not used at all**

Aides who provide classroom assistance are assigned to teachers	1	2	3	4
Timetables are adjusted to allow for collaboration	1	2	3	4
Class sizes are managed	1	2	3	4
Teaching load is reduced	1	2	3	4
Extra-mural responsibilities are reduced	1	2	3	4
Training is provided	1	2	3	4
Other support for teachers (please specify) ✐	1	2	3	4

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17.1 Has the school sought support for learners who experience barriers to learning from the local *District Support Team*? Please place X next to the answer that applies:

1.Yes	2. No

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> If you answered **'yes'**, please now answer question **17.2.** If you answered **'no'**, please answer question **17.3.**

17.2

1. What was the **nature** of support sought from the District Support Team? (please specify)✐
2. Did the support that was provided by the District Support Team **meet your needs**? Please place X next to the answer that applies: 1. Yes   2. No

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17.3 Why has the school *not* sought support for learners who experience barriers to learning from the local District Support Team? Please answer by placing X on the appropriate block.

	X
1. There has been **no need** to seek support form the District Support Team.	
2. As an independent school, there is **no expectation** of support from the District Support Team	
3. Other reason (please specify)✐	

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18.   Have you used *special schools* as a resource for supporting learners who experience barriers to learning in your school? Please place X next to the answer that applies:

1.Yes	2. No

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If you answered 'yes', please answer questions 18.1 and 18.2.
If you answered 'no', please proceed to question 19.
```

18.1   Please indicate what kind of support has been provided by the special school by placing X next to the answer that applies.

Assessment for the identification of barriers to learning	1. Yes	2. No
Training for staff	1. Yes	2. No
Training and support for parents	1. Yes	2. No
Providing specialised resources	1. Yes	2. No
Other (please specify)✎		

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18.2   What kind of special schools have provided this support? Please place X in the block that applies:

1.Mainly state special school(s)	2. Mainly independent special school(s)

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19.1   Does the school have any support groups for *parents* whose children experience barriers to learning? Please place X next to the answer that applies:

1.Yes	2. No

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If you answered "yes", please give details of the support group(s):

19.2 ✎

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The following questions are concerned with accessibility

20.   How much of your *school building* is accessible to a person in a wheelchair? Please place X in the appropriate block:

1. All	2. Most	3. About half	4. Less than half

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21.   How much of your *grounds,* including playgrounds and sport venues, are accessible to a person in a wheelchair? Please place X in the appropriate block:

1. All	2. Most	3. About half	4. Less than half

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22.   How much of your specialist *teaching equipment* (e.g. laboratory and technology benches and home economics equipment) is accessible to a person in a wheelchair? Please place X in the appropriate block:

1. All	2. Most	3. About half	4. Less than half

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This question is concerned with classroom strategies

23. Please indicate the extent to which the following *classroom strategies* are used to address barriers to learning. Please place **X** next to the answer that applies where:

> **1= Often**
> **2= Sometimes**
> **3= Very occasionally**
> **4= Not used at all**

1. **Co-operative learning**, including peer-tutoring	1	2	3	4
2. Teaching to accommodate preferred **learning and cognitive styles**	1	2	3	4
3. **Individualised Education Programmes** (IEPs) are formulated for learners who experience barriers to learning	1	2	3	4
4. Modifying the classroom **environment** for learners who experience barriers to learning (e.g. seating arrangements, lighting etc.)	1	2	3	4
5. Modifying **assessment tasks** for learners who experience barriers to learning (e.g. reduced or alternative tasks)	1	2	3	4
6. Modifying the assessment performance of learners who experience barriers to learning by **reading** the task to the learner	1	2	3	4
7. Modifying the assessment performance of learners who experience barriers to learning by allowing **oral response**	1	2	3	4
8. When marking, **spelling concessions** are made for learners who experience barriers to learning	1	2	3	4
9. When marking, **handwriting concessions** are made for learners who experience barriers to learning	1	2	3	4
10. **Extra time** is given to learners who experience barriers to learning for the completion of tasks	1	2	3	4
11. Learners who experience barriers to learning receive non-standard or modified termly **reports**	1	2	3	4
12. Using **multi-media** (e.g. film clips, slides and tape recordings) to benefit learners who experience barriers to learning	1	2	3	4
13. Learners who experience barriers to learning use **word processors**	1	2	3	4
14. Learners who experience barriers to learning use **digital personal organisers**	1	2	3	4
15. Learners who experience barriers to learning use **assistive devices** (e.g. microphones, Braille translators)	1	2	3	4
16. Other (please specify) ✐				

These questions are concerned with general issues

24.   Are any of the following included in the life of the school to address barriers to learning and meet the diverse needs of learners? Please place X next to the answer that applies:

1. Disability awareness programmes	1.Yes	2. No	3. N/A
2. Training in study skills	1.Yes	2. No	3. N/A
3. Non-exemption matriculation (high schools only)	1.Yes	2. No	3. N/A
4. Standard Grade only subjects (e.g. compu-typing, woodwork) (high schools only)	1.Yes	2. No	3. N/A
5. School programme that does not lead to a Senior Certificate or equivalent (high schools only)	1.Yes	2. No	3. N/A
6. Support for those who learn in a language other than their home language	1.Yes	2. No	3. N/A
7. Extra lessons outside school hours	1.Yes	2. No	3. N/A
8. Meals provided to address deprivation	1.Yes	2. No	3. N/A
9. Professional counselling	1.Yes	2. No	3. N/A

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Please describe any other strategies that your school employs that enables you to accommodate respond to learners who experience barriers to learning: 🖉

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Thank you for the time you have given to answering this questionnaire. The remainder of the questionnaire is not applicable to schools that do include learners who experience barriers to learning and may be ignored. I would be most grateful if you would return it to me at your earliest convenience, but by 8 July at the latest.

Please use the self-addressed, stamped envelope to post to:
Elizabeth Walton
P.O. Box 587
Fontainebleau
2032

**25. This question is only for schools which DO NOT
include learners who experience barriers to learning.**

**The following is a list of reasons why schools do not or cannot
include learners who experience barriers to learning. Please place
X on the block(s) that would best reflect your school:**

X

1. **Buildings and facilities** are not suitable	
2. **Staff** are not appropriately trained	
3. The **school community** is resistant	
4. The school's **vision and mission** statement precludes including 'learners with special education needs'	
5. 'Learners with special education needs' **have not sought admission**	
6. **Classes** are **too large**	
7. Other reasons (please specify) ✎	

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**The rest of this questionnaire would not be applicable to
schools which do not include learners who experience barriers
to learning and may be ignored. Thank you for the time you have
given to answering this questionnaire. Please return it to me at
your earliest convenience but by 8 July at the latest.**

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P.O. Box 587
Fontainebleau
2032

The following question is only applicable to **SPECIAL or REMEDIAL SCHOOLS**.

Special schools have an important role to play in the development of an inclusive education system. One of the roles that they can play is to provide support to ordinary schools that include learners with barriers to learning.

26.1   Please indicate the capacity you have to provide support to ordinary schools by placing X next to the answer that applies:

Assessment for the identification of barriers to learning	1. Yes	2. No	196
Training for staff in curriculum, assessment or instruction for learners who experience barriers to learning	1. Yes	2. No	197
Training for staff in knowledge about disabilities	1. Yes	2. No	198
Training and information for parents	1. Yes	2. No	199
Support and advice for parents	1. Yes	2. No	200
Providing specialised resources	1. Yes	2. No	201
Other capacity (please specify)			202

26.2   To what extent are independent schools making use of your capacity in these areas? Please place X next to the answer that applies where:

> 1= Often
> 2= Occasionally
> 3= Never
> 4= Not applicable

Assessment for the identification of barriers to learning	1	2	3	4	203
Training for staff in curriculum, assessment or instruction for learners who experience barriers to learning	1	2	3	4	204
Training for staff in knowledge about disabilities	1	2	3	4	205
Training and information for parents	1	2	3	4	206
Support and advice for parents	1	2	3	4	207
Providing specialised resources	1	2	3	4	208
Other capacity (please specify)					209

The rest of this questionnaire would not be applicable to special or remedial schools and may be ignored. Thank you for the time you have given to answering this questionnaire. I would be most grateful if you would return it to me at your earliest convenience, but by 8 July at the latest.

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Appendix 5: Rubric for establishing levels of inclusivity

Assessment Tool for inclusivity status						
Questionnaire #						
Evidence		**Level 1** **Hardly** **Inclusive**	**Level 2** **Making some** **progress** **towards** **inclusivity**	**Level 3** **Showing** **commitment to** **inclusion**	**Level 4** **Highly inclusive**	**Score**
Criterion 1: Increasing participation and reducing exclusion, particularly of those who experience barriers to learning.						
Intrinsic barriers: Diversity	None	1 – 2 types of intrinsic barriers represented	3 types of intrinsic barriers represented	4 types of intrinsic barriers represented	5 – 6 types of intrinsic barriers represented	
	0	1/2	3	4	5/6	
Intrinsic barriers: Percentage of whole	None	1%	2 – 3%	4 – 5%	6% +	
	0	1	2	3	4	
Extrinsic barriers: Diversity	None	1 type of extrinsic barrier represented	2 types of extrinsic barrier represented	3 types of extrinsic barrier represented	4 types of extrinsic barrier represented	
	0	1	2	3	4	
Extrinsic barriers: Percentage of whole	None	1%	2 – 3%	4 – 5%	6% +	
	0	1	2	3	4	
Percentage barriers in a class	None		<5%	6 – 9%	10% +	
	0		2	3	4	
Admission policies do not exclude	6 or more admission exclusions	3 - 5 admission exclusions	2 admission exclusions	1 admission exclusion	No admission exclusions	
	0	1	2	4	6	
Sub-total: criterion 1						
Criterion 2: Training and support for staff						
Training of staff (formal or informal)	None	Few trained (1 - 29%)	Some trained (30 – 59%)	Many trained (60 – 79%)	Almost all trained (80% +)	
	0	1	2	4	6	
Sometimes or often, staff supported by…		No support	1 of aides; timetable adjustment; class size; teaching load; extra murals; training	2 – 3 of aides; timetable adjustment; class size; teaching load; extra murals; training	4 or more of aides; timetable adjustment; class size; teaching load; extra murals; training	
		0	1	2/3	4	
Therapists and other specialised staff available to meet needs		None	1 type of specialist personnel	2 types of specialist personnel	3 or more types of specialist personnel	
		0	1	2	3	
Sub-total: criterion 2						
Criterion 3: Developing collaborative relationships						
School based support team		No	Yes, meets once a term or less	Yes, meets monthly or twice a term	Yes, meets weekly or fortnightly	
		0	2	4	6	
Sometimes or often, drawing support from outside the school		None	1 of specialist agency; family members; volunteers; aides; hospital; special school	2 of specialist agency; family members; volunteers; aides; hospital; special school	3 or more of specialist agency; family members; volunteers; aides; hospital; special school	
		0	2	4	6	
Sub-total: criterion 3						

Criterion 4: Making necessary modifications to instruction, the curriculum and the environment						
Instructional modifications used sometimes or often		None	1 of: co-operative learning; learning styles; IEPs; modified environment	2 of: co-operative learning; learning styles; IEPs; modified environment	3 or 4 of: co-operative learning; learning styles; IEPs; modified environment	
		0	1	2	3/4	
Assessment modifications used sometimes or often	None	1 of: task modification; reading; oral response; spelling concessions; handwriting concessions; extra time; modified reports	2 or 3 of: task modification; reading; oral response; spelling concessions; handwriting concessions; extra time; modified reports	4 or 5 of: task modification; reading; oral response; spelling concessions; handwriting concessions; extra time; modified reports	6 or 7 of: task modification; reading; oral response; spelling concessions; handwriting concessions; extra time; modified reports	
	0	1	2/3	4/5	6/7	
Technology or other devices used sometimes or often		None	1 of: multi-media; word processors; personal organisers; other assistive devices	2 of: multi-media; word processors; personal organisers; other assistive devices	3 or 4 of: multi-media; word processors; personal organisers; other assistive devices	
		0	1	2	3/4	
Wheelchair access		Less than half	Less than half – about half	About half - most	Most - all	
		0	2	4	6	
Other ways of addressing needs		None	1 or 2 of: disability awareness; study skills; language support; extra lessons; meals; counselling	3 or 4 of: disability awareness; study skills; language support; extra lessons; meals; counselling	5 or 6 of disability awareness; study skills; language support; extra lessons; meals; counselling	
		0	1/2	3/4	5/6	
Other ways of addressing needs (Secondary schools)		None	1 of: non-exemption matric; SG only subjects; school leaving without matric	2 of: non-exemption matric; SG only subjects; school leaving without matric	3 of: non-exemption matric; SG only subjects; school leaving without matric	
		0	1	2	3	
					Sub-total: criterion 4	
Criterion 5: Inclusive policies						
Policies in place that initiate and entrench inclusive practice		None	1 of: inclusion policy; assessment; sport; language; discipline	2 of: inclusion policy; assessment; sport; language; discipline	3 of: inclusion policy; assessment; sport; language; discipline	
		0	2	4	6	
					Sub-total: criterion 5	
					Total for all criteria	
Percentage calculated (primary schools: divide total by 88, high schools, divide total by 91)						
Level of inclusion < 44.4% = hardly inclusive (level 1) 44.55% – 57.75% = making progress towards inclusion (level 2) 57.8% - 71% = showing commitment towards inclusivity (level 3) > 71% = highly inclusive (level 4)						

Appendix 6: Frequency tables

6.1   Frequency tables that profile the responding schools

6.1.1   Table indicating location of responding schools

Location of responding schools (Question 1.1.2)				
Province	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
E Cape	6	5.04	6	5.04
KwaZulu Natal	23	19.33	29	24.37
Mpumalanga	8	6.72	37	31.09
North West	3	2.52	40	33.61
Free State	2	1.68	42	35.29
W Cape	22	18.49	64	53.78
Gauteng	45	37.82	109	91.60
Limpopo	8	6.72	117	98.32
Swaziland	2	1.68	119	100.00

6.1.2   Table indicating type of school (primary/ secondary/ combined)

Type of school (primary/ secondary/ combined) (Question 1.2)				
Type	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
mainly primary/ primary	63	52.50	63	52.50
mainly secondary/ secondary	22	18.33	85	70.83
primary and secondary	35	29.17	120	100.00

6.1.3   Table indicating type of school (mainstream or special/remedial school)

Type of school (mainstream or special/remedial school) (Question 2)				
mainstream	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
yes	113	94.17	113	94.17
no	7	5.83	120	100.00

6.1.4 Table indicating number of learners enrolled

	Number of learners enrolled (Question 1.3)			
Nr learners	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
< 100	12	10.00	12	10.00
100 - 199	24	20.00	36	30.00
200 - 299	19	15.83	55	45.83
300 - 399	20	16.67	75	62.50
400 - 499	15	12.50	90	75.00
500 - 599	10	8.33	100	83.33
600 - 699	6	5.00	106	88.33
700 - 799	8	6.67	114	95.00
800 - 899	3	2.50	117	97.50
900+	3	2.50	120	100.00

6.1.5 Tables indicating annual tuition fee

6.1.5.1 Annual tuition fee: primary schools

	Annual tuition fee – primary schools (Question 1.4.1)			
Primary fee category	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
R19,000+	39	33.33	39	33.33
R13,000-R19,000	23	19.66	62	52.99
R7,500-R13,000	18	15.38	80	68.38
R5,400-R7,500	7	5.98	87	74.36
R3,750-R5,400	3	2.56	90	76.92
R3,750-	5	4.27	95	81.20
n.a.	22	18.80	117	100.00

6.1.5.2 Annual tuition fee: secondary schools

	Annual tuition fee – secondary schools (Question 1.4.2)			
High fee category	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
R24000+	30	25.21	30	25.21
R16000 - R24000	13	10.92	43	36.13
R8500 - R16000	7	5.88	50	42.02
R5400 - R8500	1	0.84	51	42.86
R3750 - R5400	3	2.52	54	45.38
R3750-	2	1.68	56	47.06
n.a.	63	52.94	119	100.00

6.2 Frequency tables for intrinsic barriers to learning (in the order in which they appear in the questionnaire)

6.2.1   Table indicating frequencies for AD(H)D

AD(H)D (Question 3.1.1)				
q3.1.1	**Frequency**	**Percent**	**Cumulative Frequency**	**Cumulative Percent**
0	28	23.33	28	23.33
1-9	35	29.17	63	52.50
10-19	27	22.50	90	75.00
20-29	18	15.00	108	90.00
30-39	6	5.00	114	95.00
40-49	4	3.33	118	98.33
70-79	1	0.83	119	99.17
90-99	1	0.83	120	100.00

6.2.2   Table indicating frequencies for Autism spectrum disorders

Autism spectrum disorders (Question 3.1.2)				
q3.1.2	**Frequency**	**Percent**	**Cumulative Frequency**	**Cumulative Percent**
0	95	79.17	95	79.17
1-9	25	20.83	120	100.00

6.2.3   Table indicating frequencies for chronic illness

Chronic illness (Question 3.1.3)				
q3.1.3	**Frequency**	**Percent**	**Cumulative Frequency**	**Cumulative Percent**
0	59	49.17	59	49.17
1-9	46	38.33	105	87.50
10-19	10	8.33	115	95.83
20-29	3	2.50	118	98.33
30-39	1	0.83	119	99.17
40-49	1	0.83	120	100.00

6.2.4   Table indicating frequencies for emotional and behavioural disorders

	Emotional and behavioural disorders (Question 3.1.4)			
q3.1.4	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	52	43.33	52	43.33
1-9	48	40.00	100	83.33
10-19	16	13.33	116	96.67
20-29	3	2.50	119	99.17
40-49	1	0.83	120	100.00

6.2.5   Table indicating frequencies for intellectual impairment

	Intellectual impairment (Question 3.1.5)			
q3.1.5	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	84	70.00	84	70.00
1-9	30	25.00	114	95.00
10-19	5	4.17	119	99.17
20-29	1	0.83	120	100.00

6.2.6   Table indicating frequencies for learning disability

	Learning disability (Question 3.1.6)			
q3.1.6	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	37	30.83	37	30.83
1-9	34	28.33	71	59.17
10-19	24	20.00	95	79.17
20-29	9	7.50	104	86.67
30-39	10	8.33	114	95.00
40-49	1	0.83	115	95.83
50-59	3	2.50	118	98.33
70-79	1	0.83	119	99.17
90-99	1	0.83	120	100.00

6.2.7   Table indicating frequencies for motor impairment

	Motor impairment (Question 3.1.7)			
q3.1.7	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	83	69.17	83	69.17
1-9	36	30.00	119	99.17
20-29	1	0.83	120	100.00

6.2.8   Table indicating frequencies for being wheelchair bound

q3.1.8	Wheelchair bound (Question 3.1.8)			
	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	111	92.50	111	92.50
1-9	8	6.67	119	99.17
10-19	1	0.83	120	100.00

6.2.9   Table indicating frequencies for blindness or partial sight

q3.1.9	Blindness or partial sight (Question 3.1.9)			
	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	102	85.00	102	85.00
1-9	17	14.17	119	99.17
10-19	1	0.83	120	100.00

6.2.10 Table indicating frequencies for deafness or hard of hearing

q3.1.10	Deafness or hard of hearing (Question 3.1.10)			
	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	85	70.83	85	70.83
1-9	35	29.17	120	100.00

6.2.11 Table indicating frequencies for other intrinsic barriers to learning

q3.1.11	Other intrinsic barriers to learning (Question 3.1.11)			
	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	118	98.33	118	98.33
1-9	2	1.67	120	100.00

6.3   Frequency tables for extrinsic barriers to learning (in the order in which they appear in the questionnaire)

6.3.1   Table indicating frequencies for lack of parental involvement

q3.1.12	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
Lack of parental involvement (Question 3.1.12)				
0	70	58.33	70	58.33
1-9	33	27.50	103	85.83
10-19	4	3.33	107	89.17
20-29	3	2.50	110	91.67
30-39	3	2.50	113	94.17
40-49	1	0.83	114	95.00
50-59	1	0.83	115	95.83
70-79	1	0.83	116	96.67
80-89	1	0.83	117	97.50
90-99	1	0.83	118	98.33
100-199	1	0.83	119	99.17
>300	1	0.83	120	100.00

6.3.2   Table indicating frequencies for family problems

q3.1.13	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
Family problems (Question 3.1.13)				
0	41	34.17	41	34.17
1-9	19	15.83	60	50.00
10-19	21	17.50	81	67.50
20-29	13	10.83	94	78.33
30-39	6	5.00	100	83.33
40-49	4	3.33	104	86.67
50-59	4	3.33	108	90.00
60-69	2	1.67	110	91.67
80-89	1	0.83	111	92.50
90-99	2	1.67	113	94.17
100-199	5	4.17	118	98.33
200-299	2	1.67	120	100.00

6.3.3   Table indicating frequencies for socio-economic deprivation

Socio-economic deprivation (Question 3.1.14)				
q3.1.14	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	89	74.17	89	74.17
1-9	16	13.33	105	87.50
10-19	8	6.67	113	94.17
20-29	1	0.83	114	95.00
30-39	1	0.83	115	95.83
40-49	1	0.83	116	96.67
50-59	1	0.83	117	97.50
60-69	1	0.83	118	98.33
100-199	2	1.67	120	100.00

6.3.4   Table indicating frequencies for language barriers

Language barriers (Question 3.1.15)				
q3.1.15	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	49	40.83	49	40.83
1-9	41	34.17	90	75.00
10-19	11	9.17	101	84.17
20-29	6	5.00	107	89.17
30-39	3	2.50	110	91.67
50-59	2	1.67	112	93.33
60-69	1	0.83	113	94.17
70-79	3	2.50	116	96.67
100-199	1	0.83	117	97.50
200-299	2	1.67	119	99.17
>300	1	0.83	120	100.00

6.3.5   Table indicating frequencies for feeling unsafe when travelling to or from school

Feeling unsafe when travelling to or from school (Question 3.1.16)				
q3.1.16	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	102	85.00	102	85.00
1-9	10	8.33	112	93.33
10-19	5	4.17	117	97.50
20-29	3	2.50	120	100.00

6.3.6   Table indicating frequencies for feeling unsafe at school

q3.1.17	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
Feeling unsafe at school (Question 3.1.17)				
0	111	92.50	111	92.50
1-9	7	5.83	118	98.33
10-19	1	0.83	119	99.17
40-49	1	0.83	120	100.00

6.4   Frequency table indicating the percentage of learners who experience barriers to learning in a classroom

q3.2	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
Proportion of learners who experience barriers to learning in classrooms (Question 3.2)				
0%	3	2.94	3	2.94
<5%	45	44.12	48	47.06
6-9%	13	12.75	61	59.80
10-14%	13	12.75	74	72.55
15-19%	13	12.75	87	85.29
20-24%	8	7.84	95	93.14
25-29%	3	2.94	98	96.08
30-39%	2	1.96	100	98.04
40%	2	1.96	102	100.00

6.5   Frequency tables showing diversity in intrinsic and extrinsic barriers to learning

6.5.1   Table indicating diversity in intrinsic barriers represented in schools

Types of barrier represented	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
Diversity in schools: types of intrinsic barriers to learning represented (Question 3.1)				
No intrinsic barriers	2	1.9	2	1.9
1 – 2 types of intrinsic barriers represented	18	16.98	20	18.88
3 types of intrinsic barriers represented	16	15.09	36	33.97
4 types of intrinsic barriers represented	14	13.2	50	47.17
5 – 6 or more types of intrinsic barriers represented	54	50.94	104	98.11
No response	2	1.9	106	100

6.5.2   Table indicating diversity in extrinsic barriers represented in schools

Diversity in schools: types of extrinsic barriers to learning represented (Question 3.1)				
Types of barrier represented	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
No intrinsic barriers	13	12.26	13	12.26
1 type of extrinsic barriers represented	19	17.92	32	30.18
2 types of extrinsic barriers represented	23	21.7	55	51.88
3 types of extrinsic barriers represented	22	20.75	77	72.63
4 types of extrinsic barriers represented	28	26.42	105	99.05
No response	1	0.94	106	100

6.6   Frequency tables indicating school policies

6.6.1   Table indicating schools that are inclusive in response to ISASA policy

ISASA Diversity and Equity policy response (Question 4)				
Response to policy	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
Includes, irrespective of ISASA's policy	106	99.07	106	99.07
Includes because ISASA's policy stipulates	1	0.93	107	100.00

6.6.2   Table indicating the frequency with which schools report having an inclusion policy

Inclusion policy (Question 5.1)				
q5.1	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
yes	33	31.43	33	31.43
no	72	68.57	105	100.00

6.6.3   Tables showing school policies that mention learners who experience barriers to learning

Assessment policy (Question 5.2.1)				
q5.2.1	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
yes	31	29.52		29.52
no	74	70.48	105	100.00
Sport policy (Question 5.2.2)				
q5.2.2	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
yes	10	9.52	10	9.52
no	95	90.48	105	100.00
Language policy (Question 5.2.3)				
q5.2.3	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
yes	25	23.81	25	23.81
no	80	76.19	105	100.00
Discipline policy (Question 5.2.4)				
q5.2.4	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
yes	15	14.29	15	14.29
no	90	85.71	105	100.00
Learner support policy*(Question 5.2.5)				
q5.2.5	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
yes	6	5.77	6	5.77
no	98	94.23	104	100.00

* Learner support policy was entered as a code in response to the number of schools

that mentioned such a policy in the category 'other' in the questionnaire.

6.7   Frequency tables showing admission prerequisites

6.7.1   Table indicating school readiness testing as an admission prerequisite

Admission prerequisites: school readiness test (Question 6.1)				
q6.1	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
always	29	27.36	29	27.36
usually	27	25.47	56	52.83
sometimes	18	16.98	74	69.81
never	10	9.43	84	79.25
n.a.	22	20.75	106	100.00

6.7.2   Table indicating mathematics testing as an admission prerequisite

Admission prerequisites: math test (Question 6.2)				
q6.2	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
always	17	16.04	17	16.04
usually	27	25.47	44	41.51
sometimes	18	16.98	62	58.49
never	23	21.70	85	80.19
n.a.	21	19.81	106	100.00

6.7.3   Table indicating language testing as an admission prerequisite

Admission prerequisites: language test (Question 6.3)				
q6.3	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
always	22	20.75	22	20.75
usually	31	29.25	53	50.00
sometimes	15	14.15	68	64.15
never	19	17.92	87	82.08
n.a.	19	17.92	106	100.00

6.7.4   Table indicating I.Q. testing as an admission prerequisite

Admission prerequisites: IQ test (Question 6.4)				
q6.4	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
usually	3	2.88	3	2.88
sometimes	8	7.69	11	10.58
never	51	49.04	62	59.62
n.a.	42	40.38	104	100.00

6.7.5   Table indicating adherence to a religion as an admission prerequisite

Admission prerequisites: religion (Question 6.5)				
q6.5	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
always	16	15.24	16	15.24
usually	8	7.62	24	22.86
sometimes	6	5.71	30	28.57
never	38	36.19	68	64.76
n.a.	37	35.24	105	100.00

6.7.6 Table indicating physical health as an admission prerequisite

Admission prerequisites: health (Question 6.6)				
q6.6	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
always	4	3.85	4	3.85
usually	3	2.88	7	6.73
sometimes	16	15.38	23	22.12
never	46	44.23	69	66.35
n.a.	35	33.65	104	100.00

6.7.7 Table indicating mobility as an admission prerequisite

Admission prerequisites: mobility (Question 6.7)				
q6.7	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
always	4	3.85	4	3.85
usually	7	6.73	11	10.58
sometimes	22	21.15	33	31.73
never	41	39.42	74	71.15
n.a.	30	28.85	104	100.00

6.7.8 Table indicating other admission prerequisites

Admission prerequisites: other (Question 6.8)				
q6.8	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	72	67.92	72	67.92
always	31	29.25	103	97.17
usually	1	0.94	104	98.11
sometimes	1	0.94	105	99.06
n.a.	1	0.94	106	100.00

6.8   Frequency tables showing school organisation for the provision of support

6.8.1 Table indicating schools where learners who experience barriers to learning are only supported by classroom teachers

School model: supported only by classroom teacher (Question 7.1)				
q7.1	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
always	19	18.27	19	18.27
often	27	25.96	46	44.23
occasionally	30	28.85	76	73.08
not at all	28	26.92	104	100.00

6.8.2 Table indicating schools where learners who experience barriers to learning are indirectly supported by support personnel

School model: indirect support (Question 7.2)				
q7.2	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
always	13	12.38	13	12.38
often	22	20.95	35	33.33
occasionally	45	42.86	80	76.19
not at all	25	23.81	105	100.00

6.8.3 Table indicating schools where learners who experience barriers to learning are supported by support personnel in the classroom (in-class support)

School model: in-class support (Question 7.3)				
q7.3	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
always	8	7.69	8	7.69
often	14	13.46	22	21.15
occasionally	34	32.69	56	53.85
not at all	48	46.15	104	100.00

6.8.4 Table indicating schools where learners who experience barriers to learning are taken out of the classroom to receive support from support personnel (pull-out support)

School model: pull-out support (Question 7.4)				
q7.4	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
always	22	20.75	22	20.75
often	37	34.91	59	55.66
occasionally	23	21.70	82	77.36
not at all	24	22.64	106	100.00

6.8.5 Table indicating schools where learners who experience barriers to learning are taught mostly in separate classes

School model: mostly separate classes (Question 7.5)				
q7.5	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
always	1	0.94	1	0.94
often	6	5.66	7	6.60
occasionally	2	1.89	9	8.49
not at all	97	91.51	106	100.00

6.8.6   Table indicating schools where learners who experience barriers to learning are taught in separate classes all day

School model: separate classes all day (Question 7.6)				
q7.6	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
often	1	0.94	1	0.94
not at all	105	99.06	106	100.00

6.8.7   Table indicating schools where learners who experience barriers to learning are supported through other models

School model : other (Question 7.7)				
q7.7	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	87	84.47	87	84.47
always	12	11.65	99	96.12
not at all	4	3.88	103	100.00

6.9   Frequency table indicating the nature of the post of special needs co-ordinator (SENCO)

Nature of the post: SENCO (Question 11)				
q11	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
The SENCO is a general classroom teacher who assumes this as an additional responsibility	11	20.37	11	20.37
The SENCO is a specific post filled by a trained special needs teacher	14	25.93	25	46.30
The SENCO is a specific post filled by a psychologist or other therapist	7	12.96	32	59.26
The SENCO is a senior appointment carrying the status of HOD or deputy	14	25.93	46	85.19
The SENCO is a senior appointment filled by a general classroom teacher	2	3.70	48	88.89
The SENCO is a senior appointment filled by a psychologist or other therapist	3	5.56	51	94.44
The SENCO is a senior appointment filled by a trained special needs teacher	3	5.56	54	100.00

6.10   Frequency table indicating number of teachers employed

Number of teachers employed (Question 12.1)				
q12.1	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
no response/not indicated	23	19.17	23	19.17
1-9	13	10.83	36	30.00
10-19	25	20.83	61	50.83
20-29	19	15.83	80	66.67
30-39	13	10.83	93	77.50
40-49	16	13.33	109	90.83
50-59	6	5.00	115	95.83
60+	5	4.17	120	100.00

6.11   Frequency tables indicating number of teachers with training in special needs education

6.11.1 Table indicating number of teachers with informal training in special needs education

Number of teachers with informal training in special needs education (Question 12.2.1)				
q12.2.1	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	39	32.50	39	32.50
1-9	50	41.67	89	74.17
10-19	16	13.33	105	87.50
20-29	8	6.67	113	94.17
30-39	1	0.83	114	95.00
40-49	2	1.67	116	96.67
50-59	3	2.50	119	99.17
60+	1	0.83	120	100.00

6.11.2 Table indicating number of teachers with formal training in special needs education

Number of teachers with formal training in special needs education (Question 12.2.2)				
q12.2.2	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	48	40.00	48	40.00
1-9	70	58.33	118	98.33
10-19	1	0.83	119	99.17
30-39	1	0.83	120	100.00

6.12   Frequency table indicating the number of principals with training in special needs education

q13	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
Principals' training in special needs education (Question 13)				
informal training	63	63.00	63	63.00
formal training	16	16.00	79	79.00
no training	21	21.00	100	100.00

6.13   Frequency table indicating how often school-based support teams (SBSTs) meet

q14.1	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
How often SBSTs meet (Question 14.1)				
weekly	20	42.55	20	42.55
fortnightly	7	14.89	27	57.45
monthly	7	14.89	34	72.34
twice a term	2	4.26	36	76.60
once a term	6	12.77	42	89.36
informally/as required	2	4.26	44	93.62
formally and informally	3	6.38	47	100.00

6.14   Table indicating support for learners

q15	often	sometimes	very occasionally	not at all	Total
Support for learners (Question 15)					
Specialist agency support is used	5	18	21	56	100
Family members provide resources or support	40	33	13	17	103
Volunteers assist learners	9	18	25	49	101
Aides or facilitators who provide classroom support are assigned to individual learners	13	19	21	51	104
Local hospitals provide resources or support	6	14	9	75	104

6.15   Table indicating support for teachers

Support for teachers (Question 16)					
q16	often	sometimes	very occasionally	not at all	Total
Aides who provide classroom assistance are assigned to teachers	14	15	20	55	104
Timetables are adjusted to allow for collaboration	20	35	14	35	104
Class sizes are managed	56	16	9	24	105
Teaching load is reduced	16	29	14	46	105
Extra-mural responsibilities are reduced	20	22	15	46	103
Training is provided	25	45	15	20	105

6.16   Frequency tables indicating wheelchair accessibility

6.16.1 Table indicating wheelchair accessibility of school buildings

Wheelchair accessibility of school buildings (Question 20)				
q20	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
all	13	12.75	13	12.75
most	24	23.53	37	36.27
about half	32	31.37	69	67.65
less than half	33	32.35	102	100.00

6.16.2 Table indicating wheelchair accessibility of school grounds

Wheelchair accessibility of school grounds (Question 21)				
q21	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
all	20	19.05	20	19.05
most	41	39.05	61	58.10
about half	15	14.29	76	72.38
less than half	29	27.62	105	100.00

6.16.3 Table indicating wheelchair accessibility of specialist teaching equipment

Wheelchair accessibility of specialist teaching equipment (Question 22)				
q22	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
all	13	12.50	13	12.50
most	22	21.15	35	33.65
about half	16	15.38	51	49.04
less than half	47	45.19	98	94.23
n.a.(primary school)	6	5.77	104	100.00

6.17 Frequency tables indicating classroom strategies used

6.17.1 Table indicating the use of co-operative learning

Co-operative learning (Question 23.1)				
q23.1	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
always	44	44.44	44	44.44
often	37	37.37	81	81.82
occasionally	14	14.14	95	95.96
not at all	4	4.04	99	100.00

6.17.2 Table indicating the use of teaching to accommodate learning and cognitive styles

Teaching to accommodate preferred learning and cognitive styles (Question 23.2)				
q23.2	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
always	29	28.16	29	28.16
often	54	52.43	83	80.58
occasionally	15	14.56	98	95.15
not at all	5	4.85	103	100.00

6.17.3 Table indicating the use of IEPs

IEPs are formulated (Question 23.3)				
q23.3	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
always	30	28.57	30	28.57
often	28	26.67	58	55.24
occasionally	26	24.76	84	80.00
not at all	21	20.00	105	100.00

6.17.4 Table indicating the use of modifying the classroom environment

Modifying the classroom environment (Question 23.4)				
q23.4	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
always	54	51.43	54	51.43
often	27	25.71	81	77.14
occasionally	14	13.33	95	90.48
not at all	10	9.52	105	100.00

6.17.5 Table indicating the use of modified assessment tasks

Modifying assessment tasks (Question 23.5)				
q23.5	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
always	43	41.35	43	41.35
often	33	31.73	76	73.08
occasionally	24	23.08	100	96.15
not at all	4	3.85	104	100.00

6.17.6 Table indicating the use of reading tasks to learners

Modifying assessment performance by reading the task (Question 23.6)				
q23.6	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
always	38	36.19	38	36.19
often	35	33.33	73	69.52
occasionally	24	22.86	97	92.38
not at all	8	7.62	105	100.00

6.17.7 Table indicating the use of oral response

Modifying assessment performance by allowing oral response (Question 23.7)				
q23.7	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
always	26	25.00	26	25.00
often	34	32.69	60	57.69
occasionally	32	30.77	92	88.46
not at all	12	11.54	104	100.00

6.17.8 Table indicating the use of spelling concessions

Spelling concessions (Question 23.8)				
q23.8	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
always	44	42.31	44	42.31
often	45	43.27	89	85.58
occasionally	11	10.58	100	96.15
not at all	4	3.85	104	100.00

6.17.9 Table indicating the use of handwriting concessions

Handwriting concessions (Question 23.9)				
q23.9	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
always	52	49.52	52	49.52
often	39	37.14	91	86.67
occasionally	10	9.52	101	96.19
not at all	4	3.81	105	100.00

6.17.10 Table indicating the use of extra time

Extra time (Question 23.10)				
q23.10	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
always	62	59.05	62	59.05
often	28	26.67	90	85.71
occasionally	10	9.52	100	95.24
not at all	5	4.76	105	100.00

6.17.11 Table indicating the use of non-standard reports

Non-standard reports (Question 23.11)				
q23.11	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
always	15	14.29	15	14.29
often	14	13.33	29	27.62
occasionally	31	29.52	60	57.14
not at all	45	42.86	105	100.00

6.17.12 Table indicating the use multi-media

Using multi-media (Question 23.12)				
q23.12	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
always	10	9.62	10	9.62
often	29	27.88	39	37.50
occasionally	33	31.73	72	69.23
not at all	32	30.77	104	100.00

6.17.13 Table indicating the use of word processors

Using word processors(Question 23.13)				
q23.13	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
always	12	11.43	12	11.43
often	18	17.14	30	28.57
occasionally	23	21.90	53	50.48
not at all	52	49.52	105	100.00

6.17.14 Table indicating the use of personal organisers

Using personal organisers(Question 23.14)				
q23.14	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
always	3	2.86	3	2.86
often	10	9.52	13	12.38
occasionally	16	15.24	29	27.62
not at all	76	72.38	105	100.00

6.17.15 Table indicating the use of assistive devices

Using assistive devices(Question 23.15)				
q23.15	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
always	6	5.71	6	5.71
often	6	5.71	12	11.43
occasionally	7	6.67	19	18.10
not at all	86	81.90	105	100.00

6.18 Frequency tables showing general school strategies for support (all schools)

6.18.1 Table indicating the use of disability awareness programmes

Disability awareness programmes (Question 24.1)				
q24.1	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
yes	44	44.00	44	44.00
no	38	38.00	82	82.00
n.a.	18	18.00	100	100.00

6.18.2 Table indicating training in study skills

q24.2	Training in study skills (Question 24.2)			
	Frequency	**Percent**	**Cumulative Frequency**	**Cumulative Percent**
yes	81	78.64	81	78.64
no	15	14.56	96	93.20
n.a.	7	6.80	103	100.00

6.18.3 Table indicating language support

q24.6	Support for those who learn in a language other than their home language (Question 24.6)			
	Frequency	**Percent**	**Cumulative Frequency**	**Cumulative Percent**
yes	79	80.61	79	80.61
no	13	13.27	92	93.88
n.a.	6	6.12	98	100.00

6.18.4 Table indicating extra lessons outside of school hours

q24.7	Extra lessons outside school hours (Question 24.7)			
	Frequency	**Percent**	**Cumulative Frequency**	**Cumulative Percent**
yes	95	92.23	95	92.23
no	6	5.83	101	98.06
n.a.	2	1.94	103	100.00

6.18.5 Table indicating meals provided to address deprivation

q24.8	Meals provided to address deprivation (Question 24.8)			
	Frequency	**Percent**	**Cumulative Frequency**	**Cumulative Percent**
yes	16	15.84	16	15.84
no	37	36.63	53	52.48
n.a.	48	47.52	101	100.00

6.18.6 Table indicating the availability of professional counselling

q24.9	Professional counselling (Question 24.9)			
	Frequency	**Percent**	**Cumulative Frequency**	**Cumulative Percent**
yes	73	72.28	73	72.28
no	20	19.80	93	92.08
n.a.	8	7.92	101	100.00

6.19   Frequency tables showing general school strategies for support (secondary schools only)

6.19.1 Table indicating the availability of non-exemption matriculation

Non-exemption matriculation (Question 24.3)				
q24.3	**Frequency**	**Percent**	**Cumulative Frequency**	**Cumulative Percent**
yes	43	42.16	43	42.16
no	5	4.90	48	47.06
n.a.	54	52.94	102	100.00

6.19.2 Table indicating whether standard-grade only subjects are offered

Standard grade only subjects offered (Question 24.4)				
q24.4	**Frequency**	**Percent**	**Cumulative Frequency**	**Cumulative Percent**
yes	37	36.27	37	36.27
no	10	9.80	47	46.08
n.a.	55	53.92	102	100.00

6.19.3 Table indicating the availability of school programmes not leading to a senior certificate

School programme not leading to a senior certificate (Question 24.5)				
q24.5	**Frequency**	**Percent**	**Cumulative Frequency**	**Cumulative Percent**
yes	14	13.73	14	13.73
no	31	30.39	45	44.12
n.a.	57	55.88	102	100.00

6.20   Frequency table showing inclusivity status

Inclusivity status:				
q24a	**Frequency**	**Percent**	**Cumulative Frequency**	**Cumulative Percent**
unable to assess	3	2.86	3	2.86
Level 1: hardly inclusive	16	15.24	19	18.10
Level 2: progressing towards inclusivity	29	27.62	48	45.71
Level 3: showing commitment to inclusion	42	40.00	90	85.71
Level 4: highly inclusive	15	14.29	105	100.00

Appendix 7: Contingency tables

7.1 Contingency tables for the variables fee structure and specialist support

7.1.1 Contingency tables for the variables primary school fee and specialist support

7.1.1.1 Chi-square test

Table of primary school fee by support				
Primary fee(annual tuition fee - primary)	**support(number support specialists)**			
Frequency **Cell Chi-Square**	**0**	**1-5**	**6-16**	**Total**
R19,000+	4 3.3151	17 0.0054	12 5.8911	33
R13,000-R19,000	5 0.2138	14 0.8106	2 0.8827	21
R7,500-R13,000	9 3.9798	6 0.6809	1 1.2685	16
< R7,500	6 1.7622	6 0.0136	0 2.1951	12
Total	24	43	15	82
Frequency Missing = 16				

Statistic	DF	Value	Prob
Chi-Square	6	21.0190	0.0018
Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square	6	22.3219	0.0011
Mantel-Haenszel Chi-Square	1	13.3370	0.0003
Phi Coefficient		0.5063	
Contingency Coefficient		0.4517	
Cramer's V		0.3580	
WARNING: 42% of the cells have expected counts less than 5. Chi-Square may not be a valid test.			

7.1.1.2 Fisher's Exact test

Fisher's Exact Test	
Table Probability (P)	3.957E-08
Pr <= P	0.0024

7.1.2 Contingency tables for the variables secondary school fee and specialist support

7.1.2.1 Chi-square test

Table of secondary school fee by support			
Secondary fee(annual tuition fee - secondary)	support(number support specialists)		
Frequency Cell Chi-Square	0	1-16	Total
R24000+	6 0.7501	23 0.3125	29
R16000 - R24000	3 0.0794	9 0.0331	12
< R16000	6 3.1812	4 1.3255	10
Total	15	36	51
Frequency Missing = 6			

Statistic	DF	Value	Probability
Chi-Square	2	5.6818	0.0584
Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square	2	5.2658	0.0719
Mantel-Haenszel Chi-Square	1	4.6197	0.0316
Phi Coefficient		0.3338	
Contingency Coefficient		0.3166	
Cramer's V		0.3338	
WARNING: 33% of the cells have expected counts less than 5. Chi-Square may not be a valid test.			

7.1.2.2 Fisher's Exact test

Fisher's Exact Test	
Table Probability (P)	0.0069
Pr <= P	0.0747

7.2   Contingency tables for the variables staff training and specialist support

7.2.1   Contingency tables for the variables informal staff training and specialist support

7.2.1.1 Chi-square test

Table of q12.2.1 by support				
q12.2.1(# teachers with informal training in special needs)	support(number support specialists)			
Frequency Cell Chi-Square	0	1-5	6-15	Total
0	7 0.0133	16 0.3937	2 1.0071	25
1-9	20 1.9775	26 0.0675	4 2.0142	50
10-19	1 2.893	10 0.1771	5 2.3087	16
20-29	2 0.0493	3 0.4334	3 2.2977	8
30+	1 0.5356	3 0.1799	3 3.1394	7
Total	31	58	17	106
Frequency Missing = 14				

Statistic	DF	Value	Probability
Chi-Square	8	17.4874	0.0254
Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square	8	17.3827	0.0264
Mantel-Haenszel Chi-Square	1	11.0243	0.0009
Phi Coefficient		0.4062	
Contingency Coefficient		0.3763	
Cramer's V		0.2872	
WARNING: 60% of the cells have expected counts less than 5. Chi-Square may not be a valid test.			

7.2.1.2 Fisher's Exact test

Fisher's Exact Test	
Table Probability (P)	2.146E-08
Pr <= P	0.0185

7.2.2   Contingency tables for the variables formal staff training and specialist support

7.2.2.1 Chi-square test

Table of q12.2.2 by support				
q12.2.2(# teachers with formal training in special needs)	**support(number support specialists)**			
Frequency Cell Chi-Square	**0**	**1-5**	**6-15**	**Total**
0	13 0.9396	20 0.1048	1 3.6362	34
1-9	18 0.2984	37 0.0443	15 1.2684	70
10+	0 0.5849	1 0.0081	1 1.4384	2
Total	31	58	17	106
Frequency Missing = 14				

Statistic	DF	Value	Probability
Chi-Square	4	8.3232	0.0804
Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square	4	10.0676	0.0393
Mantel-Haenszel Chi-Square	1	3.7823	0.0518
Phi Coefficient		0.2802	
Contingency Coefficient		0.2698	
Cramer's V		0.1981	
WARNING: 33% of the cells have expected counts less than 5. Chi-Square may not be a valid test.			

7.2.2.2 Fisher's Exact test

Fisher's Exact Test	
Table Probability (P)	2.430E-04
Pr <= P	0.0317

7.3 Contingency tables for the variables school-based support teams (SBSTs) and special needs co-ordinators (SENCOs)

7.3.1 Chi-square test

Table of q11 by q14			
q11 (Special needs co-ordinator?)	**q14 (School has a formal support team?)**		
Frequency Cell Chi-Square	**yes**	**no**	**Total**
yes	36 5.2109	17 4.5354	53
no	11 5.7537	37 5.0079	48
Total	47	54	101
Frequency Missing = 19			

Statistic	DF	Value	Probability
Chi-Square	1	20.5080	<.0001
Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square	1	21.3482	<.0001
Continuity Adj. Chi-Square	1	18.7389	<.0001
Mantel-Haenszel Chi-Square	1	20.3050	<.0001
Phi Coefficient		0.4506	
Contingency Coefficient		0.4108	
Cramer's V		0.4506	

7.3.2 Fisher's Exact test

Fisher's Exact Test	
Cell (1,1) Frequency (F)	36
Left-sided Pr <= F	1.0000
Right-sided Pr >= F	5.311E-06
Table Probability (P)	4.624E-06
Two-sided Pr <= P	8.244E-06

7.4 Contingency tables for the variables inclusivity status and location

7.4.1 Chi-square test

Table of province by q24a					
Province	**q24a (inclusivity status)**				
Frequency Cell Chi-Square	**hardly inclusive**	**progressing towards inclusivity**	**showing commitment to inclusivity**	**highly inclusive**	**Total**
E Cape	3 4.4192	2 0.0446	0 2.4356	1 0.0133	6
KwaZulu Natal	3 0.035	8 1.9927	5 0.5237	1 0.9208	17
Mpumalanga	3 2.3689	2 0.0384	3 0.0189	0 1.1881	8
North West	0 0.4752	0 0.8614	3 2.6081	0 0.4455	3
Free State	1 4.4709	0 0.2871	0 0.4059	0 0.1485	1
W Cape	1 1.3421	6 0.0544	6 0.3804	6 3.5797	19
Gauteng	2 2.6843	9 0.3347	21 2.0143	6 0.0225	38
Limpopo	1 0.0107	2 488E-7	3 0.0088	1 0.0015	7
Swaziland	2 8.9418	0 0.5743	0 0.8119	0 0.297	2
Total	16	29	41	15	101
Frequency Missing = 19					

Statistic	DF	Value	Probability
Chi-Square	24	44.7605	0.0062
Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square	24	42.6231	0.0110
Mantel-Haenszel Chi-Square	1	6.4490	0.0111
Phi Coefficient		0.6657	
Contingency Coefficient		0.5542	
Cramer's V		0.3843	
WARNING: 81% of the cells have expected counts less than 5. Chi-Square may not be a valid test.			

7.4.2 Fisher's Exact test

Fisher's Exact Test	
Table Probability (P)	9.478E-16

Monte Carlo Estimate for the Exact Test	
Pr <= P	0.0098
99% Lower Conf Limit	0.0073
99% Upper Conf Limit	0.0123
Number of Samples	10000
Initial Seed	722359000

7.5 Contingency tables for the variables inclusivity status and school size

7.5.1 Chi-square test

Table of number of learners by q24a					
Nr pupils(number of learners enrolled)	q24a (inclusivity status)				
Frequency Cell Chi-Square	hardly inclusive	progressing towards inclusivity	showing commitment to inclusivity	highly inclusive	Total
< 100	2 0.4424	4 1.309	2 0.5084	0 1.1765	8
100 - 199	2 0.3225	4 0.3638	8 0.004	5 1.7415	19
200 - 299	5 2.9779	7 1.7544	2 2.8241	1 0.6592	15
300 - 399	3 0.006	4 0.5001	8 0.0067	5 1.4412	20
400 - 499	1 0.6514	3 0.2415	9 1.8157	1 0.5445	14
500 - 599	1 0.1201	1 0.9496	7 2.9281	0 1.3235	9
600 - 699	1 0.0593	2 0.2354	2 0.0017	0 0.7353	5
700 - 799	0 1.098	3 0.5124	2 0.2701	2 0.9151	7
800 - 899	0 0.3137	0 0.5686	1 0.0378	1 1.6941	2
900+	1 0.5956	1 0.0254	1 0.0448	0 0.4412	3
Total	16	29	42	15	102
Frequency Missing = 18					

Statistic	DF	Value	Probability
Chi-Square	27	32.1607	0.2262
Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square	27	35.9747	0.1159
Mantel-Haenszel Chi-Square	1	0.8184	0.3657
Phi Coefficient		0.5615	
Contingency Coefficient		0.4896	
Cramer's V		0.3242	
WARNING: 85% of the cells have expected counts less than 5. Chi-Square may not be a valid test.			

7.5.2 Fisher's Exact test

Fisher's Exact Test	
Table Probability (P)	6.399E-17

Monte Carlo Estimate for the Exact Test	
Pr <= P	0.1926
99% Lower Conf Limit	0.1824
99% Upper Conf Limit	0.2028
Number of Samples	10000
Initial Seed	1192081441

7.6 Contingency tables for the variables inclusivity status and school fees

7.6.1 Contingency tables for the variables inclusivity status and primary school fee

7.6.1.1 Chi-square test

Table of primary school fee by q24a					
Primary fee(annual tuition fee - primary)	**q24a (inclusivity status)**				
Frequency Cell Chi-Square	**hardly inclusive**	**progressing towards inclusivity**	**showing commitment to inclusivity**	**highly inclusive**	**Total**
R19,000+	2 1.419	10 0.0277	14 0.011	7 0.5	33
R13,000-R19,000	5 2.1819	1 3.6456	10 0.5967	3 0.0025	19
R7,500-R13,000	2 0.0182	7 1.2522	7 0.0242	0 2.6	16
< R7,500	2 0.0742	5 0.6964	2 1.7581	3 0.5654	12
Total	11	23	33	13	80
Frequency Missing = 18					

Statistic	DF	Value	Probability
Chi-Square	9	15.3731	0.0812
Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square	9	19.8486	0.0189
Mantel-Haenszel Chi-Square	1	2.1251	0.1449
Phi Coefficient		0.4384	
Contingency Coefficient		0.4015	
Cramer's V		0.2531	
WARNING: 63% of the cells have expected counts less than 5. Chi-Square may not be a valid test.			

7.6.1.2 Fisher's Exact test

Fisher's Exact Test	
Table Probability (P)	6.770E-09

Monte Carlo Estimate for the Exact Test	
Pr <= P	0.0322
99% Lower Conf Limit	0.0277
99% Upper Conf Limit	0.0367
Number of Samples	10000
Initial Seed	723281000

7.6.2   Contingency tables for the variables inclusivity status and secondary school fee

7.6.2.1 Chi-square test

Table of secondary school fee by q24a					
Secondary school fee(annual tuition fee - secondary)	q24a (inclusivity status)				
Frequency Cell Chi-Square	hardly inclusive	progressing towards inclusivity	showing commitment to inclusivity	highly inclusive	Total
R24000+	3 1.642	7 0.0093	13 0.2722	4 0.5014	27
R16000 - R24000	3 0.0911	4 0.5682	4 0.0742	0 1.1458	11
R8500 - R16000	3 1.9205	0 1.5	2 0.1	1 0.225	6
< R8500	2 1.2803	1 0	1 0.2667	0 0.4167	4
Total	11	12	20	5	48
Frequency Missing = 9					

Statistic	DF	Value	Probability
Chi-Square	9	10.0133	0.3494
Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square	9	12.5225	0.1854
Mantel-Haenszel Chi-Square	1	4.5621	0.0327
Phi Coefficient		0.4567	
Contingency Coefficient		0.4155	
Cramer's V		0.2637	
WARNING: 81% of the cells have expected counts less than 5. Chi-Square may not be a valid test.			

7.6.2.2 Fisher's Exact test

Fisher's Exact Test	
Table Probability (P)	9.010E-06

Monte Carlo Estimate for the Exact Test	
Pr <= P	0.2968
99% Lower Conf Limit	0.2850
99% Upper Conf Limit	0.3086
Number of Samples	10000
Initial Seed	723734000

7.7 Contingency tables for the variable inclusivity status and school organisation for support

7.7.1 Contingency tables for the variable inclusivity status and the school model where learners who experience barriers to learning are only supported by the classroom teacher

7.7.1.1 Chi-square test

Table of q24a by q7.1					
q24a (inclusivity status)	**q7.1(School model: teacher support in the general classroom)**				
Frequency **Cell Chi-Square**	**always**	**often**	**occasionally**	**not at all**	**Total**
hardly inclusive	8 8.0926	3 0.4033	2 1.2459	3 0.4033	16
progressing towards inclusivity	8 1.3501	9 0.2743	4 1.6764	7 0.0415	28
showing commitment to inclusivity	3 2.9453	11 0.0004	15 1.3952	12 0.0781	41
highly inclusive	0 2.85	4 0.0006	6 0.9389	5 0.2228	15
Total	19	27	27	27	100
Frequency Missing = 20					

Statistic	DF	Value	Probability
Chi-Square	9	21.9189	0.0091
Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square	9	23.4308	0.0053
Mantel-Haenszel Chi-Square	1	11.3490	0.0008
Phi Coefficient		0.4682	
Contingency Coefficient		0.4240	
Cramer's V		0.2703	
WARNING: 50% of the cells have expected counts less than 5. Chi-Square may not be a valid test.			

7.7.1.2 Fisher's Exact test

Fisher's Exact Test	
Table Probability (P)	2.938E-10

Monte Carlo Estimate for the Exact Test	
Pr <= P	0.0110
99% Lower Conf Limit	0.0083
99% Upper Conf Limit	0.0137
Number of Samples	10000
Initial Seed	571015031

7.7.2   Contingency tables for the variable inclusivity status and the school model where learners who experience barriers to learning receive support from support personnel in the classroom (in-class support)

7.7.2.1 Chi-square test

Table of q24a by q7.3					
q24a (inclusivity status)	q7.3(School model: specialist support in the general classroom)				
Frequency Cell Chi-Square	always	often	occasionally	not at all	Total
hardly inclusive	3 2.7631	0 1.9307	2 1.7172	10 1.3064	15
progressing towards inclusivity	1 0.7324	1 2.0006	11 0.2454	16 0.465	29
showing commitment to inclusivity	3 0.0321	7 0.47	17 0.7827	15 1.0567	42
highly inclusive	1 0.0298	5 4.8794	3 0.7374	6 0.1376	15
Total	8	13	33	47	101
Frequency Missing = 19					

Statistic	DF	Value	Prob
Chi-Square	9	19.2864	0.0229
Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square	9	20.3456	0.0159
Mantel-Haenszel Chi-Square	1	2.6613	0.1028
Phi Coefficient		0.4370	
Contingency Coefficient		0.4004	
Cramer's V		0.2523	
WARNING: 56% of the cells have expected counts less than 5. Chi-Square may not be a valid test.			

7.7.2.2 Fisher's Exact test

Fisher's Exact Test	
Table Probability (P)	4.792E-09

Monte Carlo Estimate for the Exact Test	
Pr <= P	0.0236
99% Lower Conf Limit	0.0197
99% Upper Conf Limit	0.0275
Number of Samples	10000
Initial Seed	882100693

7.7.3   Contingency tables for the variable inclusivity status and the school model where learners who experience barriers to learning are taken out of the classroom to receive support from support personnel

7.7.3.1 Chi-square test

Table of q24a by q7.4					
q24a (inclusivity status)	**q7.4 (School model: pulled out)**				
Frequency **Cell Chi-Square**	**always**	**often**	**occasionally**	**not at all**	**Total**
hardly inclusive	1 1.7408	4 0.4045	3 0.0589	8 5.347	16
progressing towards inclusivity	6 0.0104	7 0.8751	6 0.0104	10 1.8316	29
showing commitment to inclusivity	10 0.0978	17 0.4648	10 0.0978	5 2.1103	42
highly inclusive	5 0.9626	7 0.6671	3 0.0171	0 3.3824	15
Total	22	35	22	23	102
Frequency Missing = 18					

Statistic	DF	Value	Probability
Chi-Square	9	18.0784	0.0343
Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square	9	20.8495	0.0133
Mantel-Haenszel Chi-Square	1	13.9392	0.0002
Phi Coefficient		0.4210	
Contingency Coefficient		0.3880	
Cramer's V		0.2431	
WARNING: 38% of the cells have expected counts less than 5. Chi-Square may not be a valid test.			

7.7.3.2 Fisher's Exact test

Fisher's Exact Test	
Table Probability (P)	1.063E-09

Monte Carlo Estimate for the Exact Test	
Pr <= P	0.0281
99% Lower Conf Limit	0.0238
99% Upper Conf Limit	0.0324
Number of Samples	10000
Initial Seed	91732632

7.8 Contingency tables for the variables inclusivity status and parent support groups

7.8.1 Chi-square test

Table of q24a by q19			
q24a (inclusivity status)	**q19 (Parent support group?)**		
Frequency Cell Chi-Square	**yes**	**no**	**Total**
hardly inclusive	1 1.233	13 0.3203	14
progressing towards inclusivity	4 0.5446	24 0.1415	28
showing commitment to inclusivity	10 0.3724	30 0.0967	40
highly inclusive	5 1.1761	10 0.3055	15
Total	20	77	97
Frequency Missing = 23			

Statistic	DF	Value	Probability
Chi-Square	3	4.1901	0.2417
Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square	3	4.4649	0.2154
Mantel-Haenszel Chi-Square	1	4.1133	0.0425
Phi Coefficient		0.2078	
Contingency Coefficient		0.2035	
Cramer's V		0.2078	
WARNING: 25% of the cells have expected counts less than 5. Chi-Square may not be a valid test.			

7.8.2 Fisher's Exact test

Fisher's Exact Test	
Table Probability (P)	0.0027

Monte Carlo Estimate for the Exact Test	
Pr <= P	0.2587
99% Lower Conf Limit	0.2474
99% Upper Conf Limit	0.2700
Number of Samples	10000
Initial Seed	1629824000