UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

TEACHER ATTITUDE TOWARDS INCLUSIVE EDUCATION: SURVEY OF SELECTED REGULAR SCHOOLS IN THE CAPE COAST MUNICIPALITY OF GHANA

BY

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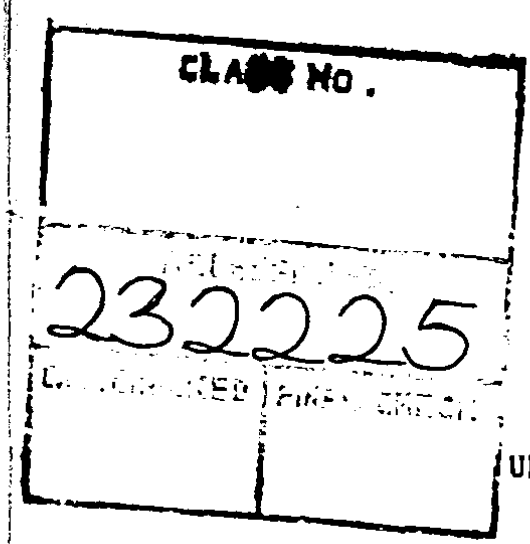

DECEMBER 2006

DECLARATION

Candidate's Declaration

I hereby declare that this thesis is the result of my own original research and that no part of it has been presented for another degree in this University or elsewhere.

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Supervisors' Declaration

We hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of the thesis were supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of thesis laid down by the University of Cape Coast.

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ABSTRACT

This study examined regular school teacher attitude towards inclusive education in the Cape Coast Municipality of Ghana. Precisely, the study investigated teachers' level of conceptualization/understanding of inclusive education, the prime factors responsible for their differing attitude towards inclusive education as well as steps that can be implemented to improve and promote inclusive education in the municipality.

One hundred and thirty-two (132) teachers were selected for the study using the purposive and simple random sampling methods. The four-point Likert-scale structured questionnaire was the main instrument for study. Frequencies, percentages, means, the Independent sample t-test and One-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) were the main statistical tools used for the analysis of data.

The study revealed that: (1) majority (84.1%) of regular school teachers in the Cape Coast Municipality of Ghana have high level of conceptualization/ understanding of the concept "inclusive education"; (2) most (89.4%) teachers hold favourable attitude towards inclusive education; (3) gender, school location, teaching experience and professional qualification have no significant relationship with the attitude of teachers towards inclusive education. Teacher knowledge of special education and disabilities was quite high (76.0%).

The distinctive factors identified as responsible for differing teacher attitude towards inclusive education in the Cape Coast Municipality of Ghana were (1) teacher understanding of inclusive education; (2) type of disability and

associated educational problems; (3) teaching experience of teachers; (4) class taught by teachers; (5) contact and interaction with children with disabilities and (6) training and education in special education and disabilities.

Among the recommendations aimed at improving and promoting inclusive education included the following: (1) modification of teacher training colleges' curriculum. (2) collaboration with experts of inclusion and special education. (3) systemic and intensive training courses. (4) collaborative pupil arrangements. (5) collaboration with support personnel and specialists. (6) definite and committed policy on inclusive education. (7) consideration of the severity level of disability.(8) positive attitude towards the education of children with disabilities and (9) extensive supports to teachers.

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To all persons who contributed in diverse and progressive ways to make this thesis a success, I say thank you. I greatly acknowledge all my sources of information. However, I am solely responsible for any deficiencies in this work.

DEDICATION

To my dear parents, siblings, wife and friends.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background to the Study

Regular schools with this inclusive orientation are the most effective means of combating discriminatory attitudes, creating welcoming communities, building an inclusive society and achieving education for all; moreover, they provide an effective education to the majority of children and improve the efficiency and ultimately the cost-effectiveness of the entire education system (The UNESCO Salamanca Statement, 1994).

The extract from the Salamanca Statement signed by 92 governments and 25 international organizations has become a framework which has given the field of special education and ultimately inclusion a new paradigm shift and focus. This reflects in policy direction, provisions and decision making about children with special needs in most developed countries and currently developing countries.

Education contributes significantly to an individual's journey towards self-reliance and independence. It empowers, enables and enhances individuals to take charge of their lives and become functional members of society. Education and participation in the cultural life of the community are fundamental and inalienable rights for all children regardless of race, colour, gender, language, religion or birth. These provisions are mandated by the Universal Declaration of Human Rights adopted in 1945 by the United Nations.

Inclusiveness in all facets of society is of paramount importance to all individuals either with or without disabilities. In the words of Sapon-Shevin (O'Neil, 1995) "we know that the world is an inclusive community..." (p.7). All individuals must have equal rights, opportunities and access to all aspects of everyday living. Children with disabilities or special education needs (SEN) children however, are still discriminated against the world over, especially, in developing countries. Children have the basic right to attend the mainstream school and be fully included in its academic, social or physical processes. Any form of discrimination: institutional, environmental or attitudinal (Okyere and Adams, 2003) and subsequent exclusion is tagged as a potential threat to this basic human right.

Regular schools have experienced stages of incorporating large number of students with disabilities into classrooms. Research and literature have pointed to drastic decline in the number of students served in residential and separate schools (Winzer, 1996, 2000). Recent trends indicate an increasing placement of children with disabilities in general education classes in public schools. In the USA, Fine (2002) affirms that in the 1984-5 school year only, 25% of disabled students were educated in inclusive environments. Similarly, in 1991, about 65% of students who needed special education services in the US did so in regular classrooms either for part or all of the school day (US Department of Education, 1991). The US Department of Education's 23rd annual report to Congress on the implementation of the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA, 2001), indicated that the number of students with disabilities being educated in general education classes has risen to 47.4 percent. This represents almost a quarter more than in the early 1980's.

In Ghana, Kwawu (1998) reports that out of the estimated 1.8 million persons with disabilities, 3111 are educated in special and inclusive settings. Further, only 432 are in integrated settings. These figures are not only marginal but very distressing indicative of the meagre attention and will to educating disabled individuals in inclusive settings.

Prior to the 19th and 20th centuries, there was a lengthy period of institutional segregation for persons with disabilities. A separate, segregated system of schooling for pupils classified as 'handicapped' was built up. Segregation or exclusion was the rule rather than the exception for meeting the needs of children with special needs. Exclusion has a long history. In recent times, however, exclusion finds its roots in the 1954 decision, Brown v. Board of Education, America (Murphy, 1996) where a separate education was also considered unequal. This system was highly legitimized by the early development of psychological testing and assessment techniques which were later found to be fraught with cultural biases, prejudices or discrimination.

Segregation programming emphasizes differences while promoting dependence and decreasing self-sufficiency (Byrnes, 1990). In support, Morris (2001) found that socially excluded young people frequently feel unsafe, unheard, have few friends and are the victims of bullying. Further, Edwards (2001) posits that in the past exclusion has been likened to poverty, inequality and unemployment. However, the recent focus has been Disabled Rights especially with regard to education. Excluding children, young people and adults from the mainstream because of disability or learning difficulty became increasingly seen as negative discrimination and as a major human rights issue (CSIE, 2000).

The inclusive movement grew out of dissatisfaction with special education and the tendency by school districts to place students with disabilities in self-contained special classes (Biklen, 1992; Stainback & Stainback, 1992). Austin (1992) intimates that comprehensive inclusion presents the best alternative to segregated special education. Oliver (1995) asserts that inclusion is important because the Special Education System in America like some countries has failed since 1890 to provide children with the knowledge and skills to take their rightful place in the world. Mason and Rieser (1994) maintain that "inclusion is a challenge to the long standing traditional approach that regard impairment and disabled people as marginal or an 'afterthought', instead inclusion promotes that impairment and disablement are a common experience of humanity and should be a central issue in the planning and delivery of human services such as education" (p.41).

The term inclusive education, a merger of regular and special education was mentioned in the mid- 1980s (Stainback & Stainback, 1996; Winzer, 1996, 2002; Mittler, Brouillette & Harris, 1993; UNESCO, 1995) and has been used extensively in the field of special education in recent years. Inclusive education has become increasingly popular; described and discussed in educational literature for more than a decade (Stainback & Stainback, 1984; Stainback, Stainback & Forest, 1989).

According to Booth (1999) inclusion is the process of increasing participation of learners in regular schools and reducing their exclusion for the curricula, cultures and communities of neighbourhood centres. Inclusive education attempts to remove barriers to participation experienced by special

children. improve outcomes and movement from special to mainstream contexts with implications that they are 'included' once they are there.

On his part, Mittler (2000) views inclusive education as a radical reform of school in terms of curriculum, assessment, pedagogy and grouping pupils. Inclusion is not about placement of children in mainstream environment but rather restructuring schools to become responsive to the needs of children. The Index for Inclusion (Centre for Studies on Inclusive Education, CSIE, 2000, 2002) defines inclusion as the processes of increasing the participation of students in, and reducing their exclusion from the cultures, curricula and communities of local schools.

Inclusive education is now firmly established as the main policy imperative with respect to children who have special educational needs or disabilities (Department of Education and Skills, 2001a). The movement toward inclusive education is worldwide devoid of boundaries. Internationally, a paucity of initiatives towards including disabled children in general education classroom have been undertaken in both policy and practice. In this light, Mittler, Brouillette and Harris (1993) asserted that there is increasing acceptance of the principles of inclusive education and an increasing number of examples of good practices around the world in developing as well as developed countries. It suffices to mention a few of the main documents covering these developments.

The UNESCO Salamanca Statement (1994) from the UN's Education Agency calls on the international community to endorse the approach of inclusive schools through their implementation of practical and strategic changes. Its guiding principle outlined in the Framework for Action, directs

that schools should accommodate all children regardless of physical, intellectual, social, emotional, linguistic or other conditions (USAID/Ghana Report, 2003). In a similar direction, the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) which has been ratified by most nations commits them to full implementation of inclusion. Fortunately, Ghana was the first country to ratify the CRC in 1989 which is enshrined in the 1992 constitution and the policy document ''The Child Can't Wait''. It is expedient to also reference the UN Standard Rules on the Equalization of Opportunities for Persons with Disabilities which stipulates an international policy-making and action covering disabled people.

Difficulty exists in conceptualizing inclusive education. However, inclusive education is mainly conceptualized as both social and human rights issues. As a social issue, inclusion is based on the premise that society and its institutions are oppressive, discriminatory, disabling and deterministic. Inclusive education as a human rights issue is based on a number of international agreements and laws which support the view that compulsory segregation in education frowns on children and young people's basic rights. Hence, discrimination on the basis of disability offends the human dignity of the child. Ultimately, inclusive education is a human rights issue which makes good educational and social sense (CSIE, 2000).

Children that learn together, learn to live together. Inclusion is based on the philosophy and belief that all forms of segregation are morally inhuman and educationally inefficient (Avramidis, Bayliss & Burden, 2000). People or adults work in inclusive communities; work with people of different races, religions, aspirations, and disabilities. In the same vein, children of all ages

should learn and grow in inclusive environments that resemble the environment that they will eventually work in. Melissa (1996) alludes that when good inclusion is in place, the child who needs the inclusion does not stand out.

Inclusive education involves all kinds of practices that are ultimately practices of good teaching. What good teachers do is to think thoughtfully about children and devise ways and means to reach them. Inclusion is about membership and belonging to a community and (Oliver, 1995; CSIE, 2000) should be based on a collaboration of difference.

What makes inclusive education acceptable to many individuals? Research points to a plethora of benefits derived from inclusive education. Advocates argue that inclusive education benefits all children (with and without disabilities), teachers, school administrators, and parents among others (Kennedy & Itkonen, 1994; Knight, 1999; Kochhar, West & Taymans, 2000; Stainback & Stainback, 1996 & Winzer, 1996, 2002).

According to Taylor (1992) including students with disabilities in general education classrooms heightens the awareness of each interrelated aspect of the school as a community; its boundaries, its benefits to members, its internal relationships, its relationships with the outside environment and its history. Inclusion is crucial in creating increased social development while strengthening learning. Knight (1999) opined that the concept inclusion sees children with disabilities as full-time participants in and members of their neighbourhood schools and communities. Academic gains are reported for individuals with mild disabilities; those with severe disabilities benefit more

from gains in areas of social competence, communication and engaged time (Kennedy and Itkonen, 1994; Hunt, Staub, Alwell & Goetz, 1994).

Several studies have found inclusion as a viable method of instruction for students with and without disabilities (D'Alonzo, Giordano & Vanleeuwen, 1997; Stainback & Stainback, 1996 & Winzer, 1996, 2002). Preliminary data from the Collaborative Education Project by Salibury, Evans, Palombora and Veech (1990), which employed the full inclusion model, suggested positive social and academic outcomes for students with and without disabilities (Murphy, 1996). Ferguson, Meyer, Jeanchild, Juniper & Zingo's (1992) project to achieve both social and learning outcomes from students in general education classrooms resulted in the finding that "integration does not work, but inclusion does".

Attitudes are extremely important; attitudes expressed by people involved with children with disabilities influence the way they behave towards them. Harris, Fink-Chorzempa and MacArthur (2003) maintain that attitudes have a major impact on behaviour and one's ability to manage and adapt to change while also influencing the behaviour of others. Teachers' attitudes are known to influence their teaching practices and management strategies and therefore directly influence students' learning (Garvar-Pinhas & Schmelkin, 1989; Smith, 2000 & Winter, 1995). Through a review of research, both positive and negative teacher attitudes are typically evident. Phillips, Alfred, Brulli and Shank (1990) note that teachers have positive attitudes or develop them overtime, especially when inclusion is accompanied by training, administrative and other support, help in the classrooms; and for some lowered class size and use of labeling to obtain special services. In support, Cook,

Tankersley and Landrum (2000) maintain that teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education are positive, but differ substantially with individual student with special needs.

Conversely, some teachers felt that inclusion would bring little benefit to students with disabilities and consequently they questioned the advantages of inclusion (Heiman, 2002; Priestly & Rabiee, 2002). According to Smith and Smith (2000) many teachers feel too overworked to address the needs of special students in general education classrooms. General educators have little confidence in their ability to plan and implement instructional modifications in the classroom (Schumm & Vaughn, 1995). McLesky and Waldron (2002) comment that one negative teacher attitude towards inclusion was that the students in the classroom without disabilities noticed the difference between themselves and their peers and rejected them by labeling and/or calling them names.

It is evident that, inclusive education is the best alternative to special education and is beneficial to all (Austin, 1992). For inclusive education to succeed, the development of positive attitudes by teachers is not only paramount but also highly necessary (D'Alonzo, Giordano & Vanleeuwen, 1997). With positive teacher attitude, students with disabilities will be given more educational opportunities with their non disabled peers and will more likely benefit to the fullest extent.

Statement of the Problem

It is evident that there is a strong international trend towards developing education systems to become more inclusive (UNESCO, 1999). In this direction, most developed and developing nations have enacted laws

ensuring that all children despite their disabilities receive their education needs in inclusive settings. In the United States for example, the Public Law 94-142, now IDEA, 1997, that is, the education of all individuals with disabilities caters for this provision. Similarly, in Ghana the Educational Act 1961 and FCUBE which re-emphasized the theme "Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education" for all children partially direct the education of children with disabilities in inclusive/mainstream settings.

Inclusive education for children with disabilities is gaining currency world-wide. However, teacher attitude is crucial for its successful implementation and practice in Ghana. Teacher attitude towards inclusive education have a powerful influence on their expectations for the progress of children with SEN in mainstream schools, learning ability of children with SEN, school learning environment and availability of equitable educational opportunities for all students.

Positive attitudes towards inclusive education are increasing among educators as inclusion is more incorporated into the school system (Jones, Thorn, Chow, Thompson & Wilde, 2000). Training and education is fundamental to inclusive practice but appears inadequate for regular school teachers. In many regular schools, it appears teachers have differing attitudes usually negative towards inclusion. Teachers view inclusion as extra load or lack the requisite training and skills for its practice. Jones et al. (2000) report that inclusion overwhelms many teachers because they see it as increasing their workload in several ways.

Again, some regular school teachers seem to lack knowledge of disabilities and special education which influence a better conceptualization of

inclusive education and its practice. Due to these differing attitudes, the benefits of inclusive education may not be wholly recognized. Without positive teacher attitude, inclusion will return to being just a physical placement of students with disabilities and will not improve the development of students. Hence, the study seeks to find out teacher attitude towards inclusive education in regular schools.

Purpose of the Study

The major purpose of the study was to ascertain regular school teachers' attitude towards inclusive education in the Cape Coast Municipality. Explicitly, the study examined:

1. how teachers conceptualize/understand inclusive education in the Cape Coast Municipality of Ghana.
2. whether a significant difference exists between male and female teachers with respect to attitudes towards inclusive education.
3. the main factors responsible for differences in teacher attitude towards inclusive education in the Cape Coast Municipality of Ghana.
4. whether teachers' school location has any effect on their attitude towards inclusive education.
5. whether there is a significant difference between teachers' teaching experience and attitude towards inclusive education.
6. whether a significant difference exists between teachers' professional qualification and attitude towards inclusive education.
7. teachers' knowledge about special education and individuals with disabilities

8. the steps that can be employed to improve and promote the practice of inclusive education in the Cape Coast Municipality of Ghana.

Research Questions

The study centred on the following research questions:

1. How do regular school teachers conceptualize/understand inclusive education in the Cape Coast Municipality of Ghana?
2. What is the attitude of regular school teachers towards inclusive education in the Cape Coast Municipality of Ghana?
3. If differences exist, what are the main factors responsible for differences in teacher attitude towards inclusive education?
4. What steps can be employed to promote the practice of inclusive education in the Cape Coast Municipality of Ghana?

Hypotheses

Four(4) hypotheses are formulated to guide the study.

1. Ho: There is no significant difference between male and female teachers attitude towards inclusive education.
2. Ho: There is no significant difference between teachers' school location and attitude towards inclusive education.
3. Ho: There is no significant difference between teachers' teaching experience and attitude towards inclusive education.
4. Ho: There is no significant difference between teachers' professional qualification and attitude towards inclusive education.

Significance of the Study

Inclusive education is receiving world-wide acclaim and practice based on its benefits for all individuals especially those with disabilities. A study on teacher attitude towards inclusive education will be of great importance to individuals, parents/families, institutions, stakeholders in education and the nation at large. It will indicate among other things how the concept of inclusive education is valued and understood and the need for all to support it to succeed in the Cape Coast municipality and Ghana in general.

The study will bring to the fore the different teacher attitude towards inclusive education and the principal factors responsible. Specifically, it will also identify whether teacher differing attitudes are mainly due to gender, school location, teaching experience or professional qualification so that appropriate measures can be implemented to off set their effect. Again, teacher knowledge about special education and individuals with disabilities and its effects on inclusive education would be determined so as to help educational planners in their policy decisions about teacher education.

Further, the findings would inform the development of effective strategies and policies (for example, in-service training and provision of support services for regular school teachers) to help overcome teacher negative attitude towards inclusive education in regular schools in the Cape Coast Municipality of the Central Region of Ghana. This would lead to the implementation of effective inclusive education programmes in Ghana and ultimately enhance the development of positive teacher attitudes.

Again, beneficiaries of education such as the government, parents, teachers, educationists and all stakeholders in education would realize the

need to give priority attention to the inclusion of children with disabilities in regular schools and commit the necessary resources for its success.

Finally, the study will serve as a reference point for researchers, educators and policy makers as well as complement previous studies on this topic.

Delimitation of the Study

The study is confined to teacher attitude towards inclusive education in regular schools in the Cape Coast Municipality. This is because inclusive education is currently the new frame and paradigm shift for educating children with disabilities due to its multi-dimensional benefits. Again, the success of inclusive education to a larger extent depends on teacher attitudes. For example, positive teacher attitude is contingent to successful implementation of inclusive programmes because it influences teaching practices and management strategies for all children especially those with disabilities. Further, most children with disabilities are educated in some regular schools in the Cape Coast Municipality.

Specifically, the study is limited to the conceptualization of inclusive education, factors responsible for teacher differing attitude and steps which can be employed to promote the practice of inclusive education in the Cape Coast Municipality and Ghana at large.

Limitations of the Study

The study was mainly constrained by time, finance and logistics. This made the researcher sample some regular school teachers from the six circuits in the Cape Coast Municipality.

The Likert scale method adopted for attitude measurement is besieged with some limitations. It does not sufficiently measure attitude with the best precision. The "Very True" and "True"; "Strongly Agree" and Agree" interval may not perfectly equate to "True" and "Agree" category respectively likewise the " Very Great" and Great" interval fitting into the " Great" category among others.

Nonetheless, through careful construction of the scale supported by elaborate literature and expert evaluation, the validity was enhanced. Further, the Likert scale is considered appropriate and best for measuring attitude, notwithstanding its limitations. However, the findings from the study can be generalized to other regular schools and teachers in the Cape Coast municipality. On the whole, however, the study was time consuming, tedious, cost-intensive and frustrating.

Definition of Terms

There are numerous terms that need to be defined to facilitate clarity of understanding. These include:

Regular Schools: These refer to general education schools where children with and without disabilities are taught and learn together. It comprises both primary and junior secondary schools and excludes special schools.

Rural School: A school located in community whose population is below 5000 people.

Urban School: A school located in community whose population is 5000 people and above.

Neighbourhood School: This refers to a public school a child would normally attend if he or she did not have a disability. In Ghana, it is a Basic School in a child's community.

Mainstream: It is the general education setting where children with and without disabilities receive their education.

Mainstreaming: It is the practice of providing a child with disabilities with some of his/her education in a general classroom. Mainstreaming is not synonymous to inclusion but may be called partial inclusion. In mainstreaming the child with disabilities receives a part (often, the majority) of his/her education in a separate, self-contained special education classroom.

Children with disabilities: They refer to all children with special needs who have limitations in functioning such that special education and related services are required to meet their unique needs. For the purpose of this study, children with disabilities include those with mild-moderate disabilities.

Special Education: It refers to specially designed instruction at no cost to parents, to meet the unique needs of a child with disability, including instruction conducted in the classroom, in the home, in hospitals and institutions and in other settings and instruction in physical education (IDEA, 1997, p. 12). Special education refers to purposeful intervention (remedial, compensatory and preventive).

Public Law (PL) 94-142: PL 94-142 is practised in the USA. It is the Education for all Handicapped Children Act, now Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (1991). It stipulates that to the maximum extent appropriate, children with disabilities are educated with children without disabilities, that special classes, separate schools or removal from general education occurs

only when the nature and severity of the disability is such that education in regular classes with the use of supplementary aids and services cannot be achieved satisfactorily.

Segregation: It refers to the process of placing children with disabilities in special schools and a recurring tendency to exclude differences.

Organization of the Rest of the Study

The study is organized into five chapters. Chapter One deals with the introduction, the background to the study, the statement of the problem and the purpose of the study. These are accompanied with the statement of the research questions and hypotheses, significance of the study as well as the delimitation of the scope and limitations of the study. The chapter ends with definitions of terms and organization of the study.

Chapter Two focuses on a review of literature relevant to the study. The thrust of the literature was both theoretical and empirical. It encompassed the definition and characteristics of inclusive education, its conceptualization /understanding and philosophy. The types, benefits and teacher attitude towards inclusive education as well as factors responsible for their differences and steps to improve the practice of inclusive education are also covered. Essentially, the nature, functions and acquisition of attitudes and its relationship with behaviour are reviewed.

The Third chapter describes the research methodology. Precisely, the research design, population, sample and sampling procedure, research instrument, pre-testing, data collection procedures and data analysis are discussed.

Chapter Four presents an analysis and discussion of the research results. The summary and conclusions as well as recommendations and areas for further research are made in the final chapter.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter presents a review of related literature relevant to the research topic. The thrust of literature review is theoretical and empirical and, it was discussed under the following sub-headings:

1. Definition and Characteristics of Inclusive Education
2. Conceptualization of Inclusive Education
3. Philosophy of Inclusive Education
4. Types of Inclusive Education
5. Benefits of Inclusive Education
6. Attitude: Definition and Characteristics
7. Functions of Attitude
8. Attitude Formation
9. Attitude and Behaviour
10. Teacher Attitude Towards Inclusive Education
11. Factors Responsible for Teacher Differing Attitude Towards Inclusive Education
12. Steps to Improve and Promote the Practice of Inclusive Education

Definition of Inclusive Education

Inclusive education like some terminologies used in the language of education has often been a contentious issue. To Lindsay (2003) inclusion is a complex and contested concept and its manifestations in practice are many and varied. The complexities and contradictions about inclusive education make

oversimplification an inherent danger in the process of reviewing and interpreting literature. Part of the complexity stems from the differing practices being utilized. The word 'inclusion' may be used to describe different philosophies and educational practices. The Centre for Studies on Inclusive Education (CSIE, 2000) uses the term inclusion, inclusive schooling and inclusive education to denote current understanding. Notwithstanding, numerous definitions of inclusive education have evolved throughout the world over the years.

Falvey (1995) postulates that "inclusion is the placement of students with disabilities in chronologically age appropriate, general education home/neighbourhood schools and classes while providing the necessary supports to allow successful participation in events offered to and expected of classmates without disabilities" (p. 34). In a similar vein, Coots, Bishop and Gremt-Scheyer (1998) maintain that inclusion is generally referred to as placement of a child with disabilities in a general education classroom with supplemental supports and adaptations that allow the child to benefit from the placements. Inclusion, unlike mainstreaming provides support services to all individuals in the classroom based on individual expectations and goals. It involves bringing the support services to the child and requires only that the child will benefit from being in the class (rather than having to keep up with the other students). On his part, Rogers (1993) views inclusive education as the commitment to educate each child to the maximum extent appropriate in the school and classroom he or she would attend. Hence, students with special needs are not considered "visitors" but are an integral part of the school community. Thus, inclusion recognizes children as integral and permanent

members of the regular school who are provided the necessary support services for effective functioning and success.

Arends (2000) opines that inclusive education is the practice of including students with disabilities in general education classrooms, but the incorporation of inclusion in schools goes much beyond the simple physical placement of students with disabilities into the classroom and also includes to what extent the students are participating in classroom activities and assignments. Thus, inclusion means students with disabilities learning in the same classroom as their peers without disabilities even though the educational goals may be different (Kochhar, West & Taymans, 2000).

In addition to learning along side their peers without disabilities, inclusion also means that school classes and activities are scheduled for students with disabilities so that opportunities for their participation are maximized (Kochhar, West & Taymans, 2000). Thomas and Loxely (2001) maintain that "inclusion is about comprehensive education, equality and collective belonging" (p. 118). In support, Avramidis,Bayliss and Burden (2000) state that the concept of inclusion thereby becomes part of a broad human rights agenda that argues that all forms of segregation are morally wrong" (p. 3). Hardman, Drew and Egan (2002) defined inclusion as the process of allowing all children the opportunity to fully participate in regular classroom activities regardless of disability, race or other characteristic. Inclusion welcomes all despite their weaknesses, gifts or differences.

The CSIE (2000) views inclusion as a continuing process of breaking down barriers to learning and participation for all children and young people. That is, inclusion identifies and eliminates any barrier to learners' access and

participation in mainstream environment. It reduces students' exclusion from the cultures, curriculum and communities of local schools. According to the Association of Educational Psychologists (AEP, 1994), inclusion is a broader concept than special educational needs and refers to all those at risk of exclusion from the mainstream of education involving a range of vulnerable groups such as those vulnerable to disciplinary exclusion, pregnant pupils, those of ethnic minority descent or for whom English is an additional language, children from traveler communities, gay or lesbian pupils and so on.

Lipsky and Gartner (1992) viewed inclusion, as the provision of specially designed instruction to special needs students in the general education classroom. In inclusion, the needs of children with disabilities inform the choice of appropriate instructional procedures. Inclusion means extending the scope of ordinary schools so that they can include a greater diversity of children (Clark et al., 1995). That is, disabled and non-disabled children and young people learning together in ordinary pre-school provision, schools, colleges and universities, with appropriate networks of support. Further, pupils participate in the life and work of mainstream institutions to the best of their abilities, whatever their needs.

The term inclusion refers to a much more radical model. According to Shebba and Sachdev (1997), inclusive education connotes a process involving changes in the way schools are organized, the curriculum and in teaching strategies to accommodate the range of needs and abilities among pupils. Thus, through this process, the school builds its capacity to accept all pupils from the local community who wish to attend and in so doing reduces the need to exclude pupils especially with disabilities.

In short, there is no agreed definition of inclusive education. There is however, consensus that inclusion calls for a fundamental re-organization of regular schools and classrooms in order to cater for a greater diversity of children's needs in the community (Mittler, 2000). Hallahan and Kauffman (2000) on their part maintain that all definitions of inclusive education have three main points: all students with disabilities are only in general education classes, they attend their neighbourhood schools and general educators have primary responsibility for students with disabilities. Inclusive education has a shared value that promotes a single, co-ordinated system of education dedicated to ensuring that all students are empowered to become caring, competent and contributing citizens in an integrated, changing and diverse society.

Conceptualization of Inclusive Education

The conceptualization of inclusive education poses difficulty due to the absence of a single model of the process and fully developed structure with paradigms and database. Considerations of inclusive education must take cognizance of conceptual and practical issues. Inclusive education must be principally conceptualized and understood as both social and human rights issues. However, other conceptualization/understanding also exists.

Inclusion as a Social Issue

Inclusion is conceptualized as a paradigm shift from the defect/within – child or medical model to the social model. The medical model is based on the assumption that the origins of learning difficulties rest largely within the child and as such a child's under achievement is blamed on his/her handicapping conditions. To Rieser and Mason (1992) the medical model

affirms that a human being is malleable and alterable whilst society is fixed and unalterable thereby assuming that it is the responsibility of a disabled person to adapt to a hostile environment.

Lindsay (2003) asserts that the social model is on the ascendancy and a necessary development from previous practices which were condition-related, categorical and deterministic to a very large degree. The social model appreciates the existence of serious illness and physical or intellectual impairments but only become disabling due to rejection and oppressive response to such impairments by the non-disabling world (Hall, 1996). In the words of Rieser and Mason (1992), it is society's unwillingness to employ aids to impairments that causes disability not the impairment itself. Thus, people with disabilities are more limited by the attitudes of others than their physical and intellectual impairments.

The social model is based on the premise that society and its institutions are oppressive, discriminatory, disabling and deterministic. Hence, disability is wholly and exclusively social (Oliver, 1996), and the external world disables individuals. According to Mittler (2000), the social model acknowledges that the needs of children must be considered with respect to their own relative strengths and environment-home, school and community. The social model sees disability as a social construct and individuals who have an impairment become disabled by a society preoccupied with normality (British Association for Community Child Health, 1994). Hence, the social model suggests that rather than requiring people who have impairment to change, social and cultural norms must change.

Inclusion as a Human Rights Issue

Inclusive education as a human right issue is based on a number of international and national human rights agreements and laws which support the view that compulsory segregation in education is against children's and young people's basic rights. These include the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989), the UN Standard Rules on the Equalization of Opportunities for Persons with Disabilities (1993), UNESCO's Salamanca Statement (1994) and IDEA (1991).

Mittler (2000) posits that the main agenda driving inclusion is the human right issue. Segregation in schooling isolates children and does not recognize their self worth, self esteem and equality (CSIE, 2002). Discrimination on the premise of disability offends the human dignity of the child. Human rights perspectives recognize the right of all students to inclusive education and segregated special schools as forms of institutional discrimination. Students' right to inclusive education are universal.

Regular schools with inclusive orientation are the most effective means of combating discriminatory attitudes, creating welcoming communities, building on inclusive society and achieving education for all (UNESCO,1994). These schools eliminate all forms of segregation and discrimination (institutional, environmental or attitudinal) which threaten the basic right of the children to appropriate education. The needs of all children especially, those with disabilities are catered for and they are fully included in all academic, social or physical processes of the educational environment (UNESCO, 1994).

Philosophy of Inclusive Education

Numerous philosophies explain inclusive education. Each reflects the orientation of specific countries or nations. Basically, the philosophy of inclusive education reflects the idea "of educating all children especially those with disabilities in general education classrooms with the provision of appropriate and supporting services".

Melissa (1996) opined that inclusive education operates from the assumption that almost all students should start in general education classroom, and then based on their needs, move into more restrictive environments. Hence, when we exclude people, it ultimately costs more than the original efforts to include them. Inclusive education means teachers working with students in a context that is suitable to a diverse population of students; teachers may need alternative expectations and goals for students and it is difficult to get teachers to do this. Teachers set realistic individualized goals for special needs children based on their unique strengths and weaknesses.

Inclusion means that diversity is the norm. It even implies a celebration of diversity. Every individual is viewed as having different talents, gifts or weaknesses which become the norm than the exception. For inclusion to exist (Swain & Cook, 2001; CSIE, 2000) note that it cannot be selective, exclusive or rejecting but must reflect openness and diversity and must be negotiated in decision making partnerships.

According to the Association of Educational Psychologists (AEP) (1994) inclusion starts from a clear set of values that sees access to the mainstream as a right for all pupils and focuses on enabling full participation

within the life of the school as a community. It incorporates children described as having special educational needs but challenges the need for a separate system of special education.

Commenting further, Uditsky (1993) posited that inclusion is based on a set of principles which ensures that the student with disability is viewed as a valued and needed member of the community in every respect. This is accomplished through educational strategies designed for a diverse student population and collaboration between educators so that specially designed instruction and supplementary aids and services are provided to all students as needed for effective learning. Hence, inclusion in education is concerned with overcoming barriers to learning and participation for all (Booth, Ainscow, Black-Hawkins, Vaughn & Shaw, 2000). To them, creating inclusive cultures is about creating a secure, accepting, collaborating, stimulating community in which everyone is valued as the foundation of the highest achievements of all students.

Salisbury and Smith (1993) observed further that inclusion is based on the premises that students are alike than not alike. Learning can occur through participation with modeling of competent peers, the supplementary instructional support needed to help students succeed can be provided in a regular classroom and everyone benefits from having students with different learning styles and behavioural traits in the same classroom. As such, Stainback and Stainback (1992) stress that the basic philosophy behind inclusion is that all children can learn together, and the multiplicity of learning styles found in diverse groups of children is valued. Inclusion as a philosophy should begin as early as primary grades. Beginning at an early

age, all children will work side by side in an environment that represents their future.

The Appalachia Educational Laboratory, College of William and Mary, and Virginia Education Association (1996) posit that inclusive education is a shared responsibility among teachers, administrators, students, families and communities to help all students become productive members of society. Teams or individuals work together to ensure that a continuum of support services, appropriate resources and ongoing assessment procedures are provided. As a result Salisbury (1991) affirmed that teachers, students, parents and administrators define the school and classroom culture as including children with diverse background, abilities and contributions.

Further, Rogers (1993) postulated that inclusion views students in a school attendance area as full members of that school community and each student participates equitably in the opportunities and responsibilities of the general education environment. Those involved in inclusion efforts understand that classrooms are becoming more and more diverse and that the teacher's job is to arrange instruction that benefits all students – even though the various students may derive different benefits.

On his part, Yatvin (1995) identified a major factor that led to the philosophy of inclusion: all children learn best in regular classrooms when there are flexible organizational and instructional patterns in place and human and material supports for those with special needs. Inclusive school programmes are developed based on a belief that students with disabilities belong and have a right to participate fully within a general education classroom with age appropriate peers (Waldron, 1997). This is reflexive in

efforts to bring special services and supports to the child in the general education classroom instead of removing the child from the classroom to provide such services.

Inclusion is all about belonging and participation in a community of one's peers. It ensures that all students are part of the classroom community. These are important life lessons. Hence, Coots et al. (1998) noted that developing a sense of community in the classroom can be enhanced by having a child with disabilities present.

The Parent Education and Assistance for Kids (PEAK) and Parent Training Centre stress that the philosophy of inclusion does not (Schaffner, Buswell, Summerfield and Kovar, 1998):

1. dump students with disabilities into general education without needed supports for success
2. sacrifice quality or appropriate education in order to include students with disabilities
3. reduce or eliminate special services
4. ignore individual needs of students
5. require all students to learn the same instruction the same way at the same time
6. require general education teachers to teach and support students with disabilities without special support in addition to the entire class; or
7. lessen the quality of education of students without disabilities just for the sake of inclusion.

Carro (1998) maintained that the fundamental philosophy and principle

of inclusive school is that all children should learn together where possible and that ordinary schools must recognize and respond to the diverse needs of their students while having a continuum of support and services to match these needs.

Inclusion is never enforced without appropriate support and fiscal resources (e.g. scheduled planning time for collaboration, team decision making opportunities or ongoing staff development). It will not eliminate the need for special education support and services and should never be implemented indiscriminately without consideration of student needs and available resources (The Appalachia Educational Laboratory, College of William and Mary and Virginia Education Association, 1996).

The Phi Delta Kappa (1998) summarized the philosophy of inclusive education to include:

a. Inclusion is about all of us
b. Inclusion is about living full lives – about learning to live together.
c. Inclusion makes the world our classroom for a full life.
d. Inclusion treasures diversity and builds community.
e. Inclusion is about our 'abilities' – our gifts and how to share them.
f. Inclusion is not just a 'disability' issue.
g. Inclusion creates and shares tools, resources, capacities so that all can live full lives.
h. Inclusion is for citizens: educators, families, individuals, organizations – all of us.

To the Education White Paper 6 on Special Needs Education: Building an Inclusive Education and Training System (2001), South Africa, inclusive education is about:

a. Acknowledging that all children can learn and that all children and youth need support.
b. Accepting and respecting that all learners are different in some way and have different learning needs which are equally valued and an ordinary part of our human experience.
c. Enabling education structures, systems and learning methodologies to meet the needs of all learners.
d. Changing attitudes, behaviour, teaching methodologies curricula and the environment to meet the needs of all learners.
e. Maximizing the participation of all learners in the culture and the curricula of educational institutions, and uncovering and minimizing barriers to learning.
f. Empowering learners by developing their individual strengths and enabling them to participate critically in the process of learning.

Inclusionists note that the policy does not necessarily mean an end to special education. Rather, as Viadya (1997) pointed out, inclusion simply entails the best of special education with regular education which involves a much greater degree of social interactions and relationships.

The fundamental philosophy and principle of inclusive education is that, it promotes a single educational system which recognizes children with disabilities as full participants of the mainstream by addressing their unique and diverse needs within a welcoming, non-discriminatory and responsible

learning environment through the provision of appropriate support services and fiscal resources complemented with the development of positive attitudes by all.

Types of Inclusive Education

Different types of inclusive education are practised in various countries. These exist due to the different levels of conceptualization of inclusive education. Basically, there are two main types namely: Partial inclusion and full inclusion. However, within each type, other forms are evident based on the need levels of children with disabilities. These include functional inclusion, social inclusion, responsible inclusion and physical inclusion.

Partial Inclusion

Partial inclusion refers to when students with disabilities spend a portion of their day in a special education classroom or resource room and portion of their day in the general education classroom with the provision of supportive services. In the view of The Cooke Centre for Learning and Development (2004), partial inclusion means that students are in self-contained classrooms but participate in daily inclusion activities with the general education peers. There is a dual educational environment for children with disabilities. It can be likened to mainstreaming.

Full Inclusion

Full inclusion means when students with disabilities are educated in the general classroom full time. There is no separate special education classroom or resource but support may be given to the general education teacher and the student with disabilities. It generally means that one or two

students are enrolled in regular education classroom, reflecting the natural proportion of individuals with special needs in the general population (The Cook Centre for Learning and Development, 2004).

Proponents of full inclusion argue for including all special needs children in regular schools at their home schools and eliminating all special education classes (Fuchs & Fuchs, 1994). They further believe that all children (including the most severe disabilities) should receive their entire education within general education and that all special services should be brought to the child.

Principally, the aim of full inclusion is three fold: to develop the social skills of children with disabilities, to improve the attitude of non disabled students toward children with disabilities and to develop positive relationships and friendships between disabled and non disabled children (Snell, 1991).

Functional Inclusion

Functional inclusion refers to an individual's ability to function successfully within a given environment. This means necessary adaptations to allow individuals with varying abilities to participate in educational programmes or benefit from services are made. According to Lewis and Doorlag (1995), teachers must modify instructional materials and activities, change teaching procedures and alter requirements of learning tasks before functionally including children with disabilities in regular schools.

Functional inclusion is partially addressed by Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act which prohibits the denial of benefits under any programme or activity receiving federal funding for special needs children. According to the Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA, 1992), functional inclusion must

provide reasonable accommodations to people with disabilities to ensure equal enjoyment of goods and services (Bullock and Mahon, 1997).

Responsible Inclusion

"Responsible" inclusion as defined by Fuchs et al. (1995) calls for a more individualized approach to inclusion in order to ensure that the child's needs are addressed and that the inclusion plan does not deprive students of an appropriate education. "Responsible" inclusion demands that a continuum of services remains always available, at least until the necessary supports and transformations are incorporated into general education. In the face of these concerns, more educators are turning towards 'responsible' inclusion as a philosophy. Thus, there should be a reservoir of support services tailored to the specific needs of children with disabilities.

Social Inclusion

Social inclusion is the highest level of inclusion. It denotes one's ability to gain social acceptance and/or participate in positive interactions with peers during recreational activities and other social activities designed for all children with and without disabilities. The underlying goal of social inclusion is the acquisition of relevant and appropriate social skills for the development of proper behaviour.

Schleien, Green and Stone (1999) posit that true social inclusion is contingent upon internally motivated acceptance by peers. This is because it can not be legally mandated. It thrives well on the principle of acceptance, non-discrimination, shared values and celebration of diversity among others by all individuals in the school, home or community. Social inclusion can be promoted through a combination of internal and external facilitation strategies,

programmes and activities which are welcoming and conducive to making friends and sharing experiences.

Physical Inclusion

Physical inclusion is defined as the situation where an individual's right to access is recognized and assured. It involves the elimination of intentional or inadvertent practices that prevent individuals from entering a facility or joining a programme. In an inclusive classroom or environment, physical inclusion includes effective seating arrangement which allow easy mobility by all children. Physical inclusion is a prerequisite to functional inclusion and dependent on the elimination of all barriers or obstructions in the instructional environment.

Benefits of Inclusive Education

Inclusive education has numerous benefits. Children with and without disabilities, regular and special teachers, school administrators, parents, school communities as well as society as a whole benefit from inclusive education. The benefits of inclusive education that accrue to students and teachers are seen below.

Benefits of Inclusive Education to Children with Disabilities

In the text of Bender, Vail and Scott (1995) inclusion has been beneficial for disabled children. However, the benefits are achieved when children with special needs are provided appropriate experiences in regular schools than special schools.

Learning in an inclusive environment provides for many especially children with disabilities an opportunity to grow academically. Hunt, Staub, Alwell and Goetz (1994) and Kennedy and Itkonen (1994) maintain that

inclusive education promotes improved academic progress and communication skills, increased appropriate behaviours and the development of friendships. A study by D'Alonzo, Giordano and Vanleeuwen (1997) reported many academic and social benefits of inclusion from multiple studies. One of these benefits indicates that students with disabilities spend more time engaged in learning than in special settings.

In a meta-analysis of effective settings (Baker, Wang & Walberg, 1995) a small-to-moderate beneficial effect of inclusive education on the academic and social outcomes of special needs children was noted. Special education students educated in general education exhibit better academic and social skills than comparable non-included students. This arises because research demonstrates that students with special needs benefit by the examples of learning from non-disabled peers. Additionally, the more time students with disabilities are included, the more positive the effect upon educational, social, and occupational outcomes (Ferguson & Asch, 1989; Wehman, 1990).

In support, Shapiro (1999) reports that students with disabilities learn a lot from the inclusive classroom because they are experiencing peer interaction, ideas and activities. Although McLeskey and Waldron (2002) acknowledge that a concern of teachers is that inclusion would bring academic performance down in the overall class. A study by Sharpe, York and Knight cited in D'Alonzo, Giordano and Vanleeuwen (1997) refutes this statement. They contend that inclusion of students with disabilities is not associated with a decline in the academic or behavioural performance of student without disabilities on standardized tests or report cards.

Kochhar, West and Taymans (2000), note that inclusion gives students a feeling that they are performing more successfully, contributing more, increasing their ability to work well with different instruction and increasing their ability to work up to a higher or of equal level as in their special education classroom. Further, students with disabilities spend more time on general education curriculum and this leads to the completion of a high school course – a requirement for a regular high school diploma. This commensurates with the US Department of Education: National Centre for Education Statistics (2002) finding that more students with disabilities are receiving high school diplomas today due to inclusive education.

Inclusion creates strategies to decrease drop out rates by creating appropriate school-to-work programmes, intense support and partnerships between businesses in the community and the school (Kochhar, West & Taymans, 2000). These resources are tailored to the students' interests which help them obtain the necessary training to work independently after school. Through school-business community partnership, students acquire on-the-job training and/or links to potential employment.

The most significant benefit attributed to inclusion practices seems to be social development. To Forrest and Maclay (1997) being involved in the same learning activities as their non-disabled peers allows disabled children to develop better interpersonal skills. Often disabled children are lonely and increased social connections give them more opportunities for forming relationships with their peers (D'Alonzo, Giordano & Vanleeuwen, 1997). Thus, by including students with special needs into the mainstream of socialization, friendships arise and bonding occurs. Students who participate

in inclusion programmes receive the benefits of higher learning while establishing themselves within a social community.

Two studies reviewed found additional social benefits of inclusion. Helmstetter, Peck and Giangreco (1994) concluded that "high school students report that their relationships with students with disabilities resulted in more positive attitudes, increased response to the needs of others and increased appreciation for diversity" (p.2). This assertion confirms the tremendous social benefit inclusion can have on all students as it equips them with the requisite experiences and social gymnastics to work and live with people from diverse backgrounds. It also clears misconceptions and doubts by giving non disabled students first hand knowledge and experiences about their peers with disabilities.

Hendrickson et al. (1996) commenting on the benefits of inclusion in another study found that students with severe disabilities developed social networks, positive interpersonal relationships and friendships with students without disabilities. This study reveals that for some students with disabilities, increased social interaction with other peers will increase their self-esteem and make them feel truly part of the school community. The environment (Shapiro, 1999) gives students with disabilities a real sense of belonging in the community they live as they receive instruction and practice skills in the community where they live.

Research demonstrates that in an inclusive environment there is a greater "demand for appropriate social behaviour" as well as increased "opportunities for observational learning and interactions" and "higher levels of play" (Hanline & Daley, 2002). Expectations are higher (Hine, 2001) and

self-esteem may increase as students are no longer labeled "special" but are fully included in a normal learning environment (Tompkins & Deloney, 1995).

Benefits of Inclusive Education to Children Without Disabilities

Including exceptional children in regular classroom environment also provides benefits to non-disabled peers as well. In the estimation of Bender et al. (1995) inclusion has been beneficial for non disabled students in mainstream classes. Mostly, the benefits are social in nature. Advocates of inclusion acclaim beneficial social effects such as increased diversity, awareness and tolerance.

Non-disabled students experience diversity first hand in the classroom and work with counterparts who are different as such tolerance and respect become evident. Hence, Forrest and Maclay (1997) say, students can learn to be helpers – not superior, but useful. Similarly noted is an "increased responsiveness to the needs of others" (Peltier, 1997). Being around students with disabilities inadvertently creates a willingness to help; a characteristic which can remain with students for the rest of their lives in school, home or community.

Despite being more accepting and helpful, students report a better self-image after serving their disabled peers in such a unique way. Additionally, students without disabilities who are in mainstream classrooms accept and value the differences in their classmates, have enhanced self-esteem and develop a genuine capacity for friendship (Mainstreaming in Classrooms, 2002). This becomes possible through the development of appropriate social skills which will make students without disabilities better members of society.

In the words of Petlier (1997), "non-disabled students found that true affectionate friendships can be formed with their special needs classmates" (p.20). Thus, if students had not been included but rather separated in a special classroom, these special relationships most likely would not have been formed.

Complementing other authors, Wood (1991) asserted further that through contact with handicapped students, regular students acquire a realistic view of a heterogeneous society. Thus, learning from a prime age that physical, intellectual and emotional differences are acceptable produce more mature adults who are able to accept the weaknesses of being human. Hence, non-disabled students learn to value and accept difference.

Staub and Peck (1995) outlined five positive outcomes of inclusion for non disabled peers: reduced fear of human differences accompanied by increased comfort and awareness, growth in social cognition, improvements in self-concept, development of personal principles and warm and caring friendships. These are essential ingredients for the success of inclusion. Available research revealed no statistically significant effects on the academic outcomes of the non disabled peers (Staub & Peck, 1995). Instructional time was not lost by non disabled students when disabled students were included in their classrooms.

Students without special needs can benefit from the myriad of learning styles taken into consideration an inclusive environment, because each and every student whether disabled or not has his/her own style of learning. Thus, different teaching techniques must be used in order to effectively educate all types of learners (Hine, 2001). If as many different learning styles as possible

are presented in the classroom due to the inclusion of children with special needs, the benefits can reach to every student.

Regular students benefit from the presence of an extra aide in the classroom. In a fully inclusive environment, a one-on-one assistant is necessary and Hines (2001) affirms that a highly qualified assistant or special education teacher can provide valuable resource for the non-disabled classmates.

Benefits of Inclusive Education to Teachers

Teachers do not only make inclusion possible, but benefit as well. The experience of teaching students with disabilities also increases the knowledge of teachers. It affords teachers an opportunity to develop professional competences. Both regular and special teachers gain through the sharing of ideas and skills (Wood, 1991). Special educators gain competencies relevant for regular education while the regular teachers acquire new pedagogical gymnastics relevant to special education. Hence, teachers can develop new orientation for educating all children.

Inclusion supplies teachers with extra resources such as strategy and curriculum manuals, collaboration manuals and in-service training (Kochhar, West & Taymans, 2000). These materials and training are very helpful and useful support system to pre and in-service teachers throughout their career. This becomes beneficial to the whole school and community because more teachers are effectively trained and competent to facilitate team meetings and curriculum adaptations. In the long run, teachers will have the knowledge and skills needed to select and adapt curricula and instructional methods according to individual student needs (ERIC Digest, 2000).

By expanding instructional skills, teachers become stronger, more prepared educators to effect changes in the life of all children especially the disabled. Thus, teachers have the opportunity to make a difference in their students' lives. By promoting collaboration, friendship and shared learning, students and teachers alike benefit from the new regular environment.

Attitude: Definition and Characteristics

Attitude is a key psychological and educational concept. The term defies a single definition. Allport (1935) gave a famous definition of attitude as ''a mental and neural state of readiness, organized through experience'' (p.13). In the words of Scholl (2002) attitudes are defined as a mental disposition to act that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favour or disfavour (p.1). This disposition can be expressed by different types of evaluative responses.

Attitudes express values, evaluate or show feeling about some idea, person, object, event, situation or relationship. They are likes or dislikes involving some degree of evaluation and some action-preparedness too. Attitudes are excellent predictors of conceptual cognitive processes and reliably determine how individuals make sense of their world. For instance, if an individual reacts favourably towards inclusive education, it means that person has a good attitude and would express positive feelings about it and vice-versa.

Similarly, the Webster's Universal Dictionary and Thesaurus (2002) defines attitude as a state of mind or feeling with regard to some matter; a disposition. It refers to the intensity of positive or negative affect for a psychological object. In a broader perspective, attitudes denote the sum total

of man's inclinations and feelings, prejudices or pre-conceived notions about phenomenon.

Attitudes are learned predisposition to respond either positively or negatively to situations or objects. Hence, in the view of Sprinthal, Sprinthal and Oja (1994), attitudes can never be neutral as they have a strong emotional component.

The main characteristics of attitudes are:

1. Attitudes are learned from personal experience and its measures are indirect
2. Attitudes are predispositions
3. Attitudes have a relationship with behaviour; but the relationship is not necessarily causal
4. Attitudes are consistent. However, this does not necessarily mean that they are permanent; attitudes can change
5. Attitudes are directed towards an object and are very specific reactions to that object. For example, you like 'X' but you don't like 'Y'
6. Attitudes are situationally determined.

Components of Attitude

Attitude as a psychological construct is compartmented, that is, it has some components. Psychologists such as Sprinthal et al.(1994) outlined three major components of attitudes. That is, the ABC of attitudes namely: affective (A), behavioural (B) and cognitive(C). However, Scholl (2002) adds a fourth component as the evaluative component.

The affective component consists of a person's feelings or emotions (fear, liking or anger) towards an attitude object which is generally favourable

or unfavourable.This affective component is often the most deep rooted component and the most resistant to change. It manifests in verbal expressions of feelings and physiological changes in an organism (e.g. increase arousal). The affective component of attitude is measurable while the behavioural (conative) component manifests in actual intentions and actions. It is the tendency to act towards the attitude object in particular ways expressed in terms of what people say they will do.

Knowledge, ideas, beliefs and opinions about an object constitute the cognitive component. Cognitions are beliefs, theories, expectancies, cause and effect beliefs and perceptions relative to the focal object.

The evaluative component is considered the central component of attitudes. It consists of the imputation of some degree of goodness or badness. Evaluations are function of cognitive, affect and behavioural intentions of the object.

Functions of Attitude

Katz (1960) asserted that attitude might serve four psychic functions. These are: (1) ego-defensive function, which describes attitudes that may serve as self-defense mechanisms in helping individuals avoid hurtful truths about themselves;(2) value-expressive function, this serves as a form of expression for a particular value held by an individual;(3) knowledge function, this function permits individuals to better understand their environment and (4) utilitarian function, this describes attitudes which allow individuals to acquire rewards and avoid punishment. Similarly, a person's attitude has a function in object appraisal and social adjustment. Again, attitudes are a selective force in perception and memory. For example, people seek

information that agrees with attitudes while avoiding disagreeing information (Festinger 1957). Thus, a person's attitude influences the way things are perceived, experienced and thought about.

Writing on the functions of attitude, Osgood, Suci and Tannenbaum (1957) say attitudes are pervasive. This has been verified by: (a) the ease with which people report evaluative reactions to a wide variety of objects, (b) the difficulty of identifying categories of objects within which evaluative distinctions are not made, and (c) the pervasiveness of an evaluative component in judgements of meaning.

Attitude Acquisition/Formation

Attitude formation denotes a shift from having no attitude towards an object to having some positive or negative attitude towards that object (Oskamp, 1991). As a process, attitude formation requires time either short or long.

Some attitudes are formed and shaped by mere exposure to the attitude object. For example, simple exposure to an object increases one's inclinations toward that object. It occurs usually through repeated exposure to advertisements. However, there is a limitation to mere exposure. According to Bornstein (1989) the effect of mere exposure is powerful when it occurs randomly over time.

Direct personal experience also aids in attitude formation. It has the power to create and cause attitude change. For example, an unpleasant experience with the teacher (excessive reprimand) would precipitate an attitude change by the individual either positively or negatively. Thus, attitudes are expected to change as a function of experience. Davison, Yantis,

Norwood and Montano (1985) maintain that attitudes acquired through direct personal experience are likely to be strongly held and affect behaviour.

Another important factor for attitudes acquisition is homogeneity of the attitude objects. For example, same friends, same faces, same ideas, same information and same environment. These tend to be roughly the same. Even if the child is exposed to a new environment, he/she will be selective and this would continue in adulthood (Scholl, 2002).

Many social psychologists believe attitudes are mainly learned. These result from our experiences and interactions with the environment as social beings through the process of socialization. This is defined by Bandura (1972) as... "the process whereby individuals develop the qualities essential to function effectively in the society in which they live" (p.2). Parents and peer group, work, church, school and mass media are important agencies in the socialization process.

According to Social Psychologist, Bandura, learning simply occurs through observation and imitation of others, particularly parents and the peer group. This comprises watching the rewards and punishments other people reap from their behaviour as well as deducing what kind of behaviour on our part is likely to be viewed positively by them, thus gaining acceptance. For example, children who imitate the expressed attitudes of their parents or friends are more likely to receive positive rewards or reinforcement for that imitation.

Instrumental conditioning is another way attitudes are formed. In instrumental conditioning, the person's behaviour is either strengthened or weakened by means of rewards or punishments. For example, when a child is

reinforced for appropriate attitude through praise or attention, he/she is more likely to repeat and internalize that attitude. Each time the child is rewarded, the attitude becomes stronger.

Personality is important in attitude formation. Peoples' personality makes them susceptible to certain socializing influences and therefore develops certain attitudes. For example, Eysenck (1971) who sees the introvert-extrovert dimension as the most significant in personality assert that introverts are more easily conditioned into learning of social values and attitudes than are extroverts. Further, someone who takes a Freudian view of personality would take a view that the superego's internalization of the parents' attitudes and values will predispose a person to identify with certain groups later in life and then internalize their attitudes in turn.

Attitudes are also acquired through classical conditioning. This is a learning process in which a conditioned stimulus is paired with an unconditioned stimulus over long number of trials until the conditioned stimulus alone has the power to elicit a conditioned response (Sprinthall, Sprinthall & Oja, 1994). Thus, if an attitude object is repeatedly paired or associated with a stimulus capable of evoking positive or negative feelings, then the attitude object itself may come to evoke similar feelings.

Apart from environmental influences, genetic or heredity plays a vital role in attitude formation. Eye colouration is mutually determined by genetics with no environmental or learning influences (Tesser, 1993). Height is also based on one's heredity. However, genetics may have indirect effect on our attitudes. Biologically based traits may predispose people to certain behaviours and attitudes. For example, genetic differences in sensory

structures such as hearing and taste could affect our preferences for certain types of music and foods (Tesser, 1993).

Attitudes and Behaviour

Behaviour is the result of a person's reaction to a situation, group or person. It is a complex and multi-determined construct. Attitudes are directly linked with our actual actions and behaviours. Thus, attitudes do predict behaviour toward their objects. In support, Plunkett (1994) maintains that a dynamic relationship exists between behaviour and attitudes. Generally, people try to keep them consistent with each other; so that if an attitude is changed, behaviour will also alter to correspond.

According to the Attitude-to- Behaviour Process Model, attitudes can guide a person's behaviour even when the person does not actively reflect and deliberate about the attitude (Fazio & Powell, 1989). For example, how an event or decision is viewed by the subject becomes the main indicator of attitude which eventually leads to a course of action (behaviour). Hence, attitude becomes the main predictor of behaviour.

Two major researches attempt to clarify attitude-behaviour relationships. Fishbein and Ajzen (1974) proved that attitude and behaviour are correlated when (a) the observed behaviour is judged to be relevant to the attitude, (b) the attitude and behaviour are observed at comparable levels of specificity, and (c) mediation of the attitude-behaviour relationship by behavioural intentions is taken into account. Similarly, Fazio (1986) showed that attitude and behaviour are correlated when (a) the attitude is based on direct experience with the attitude object, and (b) to the extent that the attitude is cognitively accessible.

On the contrary, behaviour and attitude are not always consistent. Both attitude and behaviour do not suggest or assume a casual relationship. In the view of Eiser (1992) if the attitude being assessed is much more specific, the relationship between the attitude and behaviour is consistent.

Behaviour is not only determined by attitudes. External factors, for example, the social situation also exerts a great influence. Thus, many behaviours taken together reflect a particular attitude. It must be noted that, when behaviour is measured, several attitude subjects can be of influence and the attitude of interest does not especially have to be the most important motivator for behaviour.

Teacher Attitude Towards Inclusive Education

Teacher attitudes towards inclusive education vary greatly across the field of education. Due to the perceived importance teachers' attitudes play in the successful implementation of inclusion programmes, teacher attitudinal studies represent a significant proportion of the research literature investigating inclusion (Cook, Tankersley, Cook & Landrum, 2000).

Findings documented in literature concerning teacher attitudes regarding inclusion in general and specific attitudes concerning the implementation of inclusion programmes within their classrooms have been inconsistent and paradoxical. For example, McLeskey et al. (2001) and Scruggs and Mastropieri (1996) found that teachers hold positive attitudes toward the concept of inclusion but negative attitudes about the implementation of inclusion programmes within their own school. Further, Vaughn, Schumm, Jallard, Slusher and Saumell (1996) note that teachers held more negative attitudes regarding inclusion than positive ones. Despite the

over 40 years of research investigating teacher perspectives concerning inclusion (Scruggs & Mastropieri, 1996), the exact nature of teachers' attitudes concerning inclusion is unknown and contradictory at best.

Waldron (1997) notes that the success or failure of inclusive education is dependent on teacher attitudes regarding inclusion and appropriate resources. Teachers' attitudes and beliefs concerning students with special needs have a very powerful influence on their expectations for progress of such children in mainstream schools (Deisinger, 2000; Minke, Bear, Deemer & Griffin, 1996; Odoom, 2000; Scruggs & Mastropieri, 1996).

To Van Reusen, Shoho and Baker (2001), "the attitudes and beliefs of teachers, administrators and whole school personnel hold toward inclusion and the learning ability of students with disabilities may influence school learning environments and the availability of equitable educational opportunities and for all students" (p.2). It is noted in literature that positive attitudes towards inclusion among educators are increasing as inclusion is more incorporated into the school system (Jones et al., 2002). Hence, in the view of Voltz, Brazil and Ford (2000) an important part of inclusion is that all school staff shares the responsibility in meeting and supporting the needs of all students. Thus, both special and general education teachers should collaborate in order to chalk success for all students in the general education classroom.

Teachers' attitudes are linked to actual experience with included students and being provided with sufficient support to meet teachers-identified needs. Some researchers have found that teachers with more positive experience of having had students with disabilities in their classes have more favourable attitudes towards inclusion (Bender et al, 1995). On the contrary,

Forlin (1995) and Forlin and Hattie (1996) report that teachers with more experience have less positive attitudes towards inclusion. Less favourable attitudes towards inclusion result when resource supports are limited.

Shifting to more positive attitudes is contingent upon attaining information about specific students, involvement in the development and implementation of inclusion strategies and when support and resources are clarified. On the converse, researchers say that negative attitudes held by teachers may result in part from their lack of experience with well designed programmes as well as their resistance to change.

Another attitude held by teachers regarding inclusion is that it will create more work for them (Heflin & Bullock, 1999). Too much seems to be demanded from the already overloaded teachers (Peltier, 1997) and the range of abilities is just too great for one teacher to adequately teach (Tompkins & Deloney, 1995). This disposition can be particularly frustrating for teachers and cause negative attitudes towards inclusion especially if they are already feeling overwhelmed with their regular workload. As a result Jones, Thorn, Chow, Thompson and Wilde (2002) report that the teacher workload consequence from inclusion could also have negative consequences for students with and without disabilities.

McLeskey and Waldron (2002) assert that the worry of some general education teachers is that the overall academic performance of the class will go down or future teachers will have negative perceptions of previous teachers who passed students with disabilities onto the next grade without mastering materials. Teachers believe that some students with disabilities do not gain a lot academically or socially from inclusion.

According to Hardman, Drew and Egan (2002), attitude barriers exist amongst general education teachers because they feel unprepared to work in an inclusive setting. Most complaints from general education teachers in the literature about inclusion are that they fear they do not have the necessary knowledge or abilities to adequately teach students with special needs (McLesky & Waldron, 2002; D'Alonzo Giordano & VanLeeuwen, 1997 and Shade & Stewart, 2001).

Since most teachers do not receive any special education training in their diploma, degree or teacher education studies, they feel unqualified to cope with the inclusion process. Some teachers say inclusion can not work without help from special education. Hence, countless training would never make them fully understand the process of including the special needs child (Salazar & Flores, 2003).

Teachers further complain about the disruptive and destructive behaviours of special needs children and maintain that due to these behaviours, the whole group suffers. These behavioural problems are the most frequently mentioned dilemma (Winzer, 2000). The attitudes and confidence of teachers may vary significantly according to the type and severity of a student's disability (Avramidis, Bayliss & Burden, 2000; Ward, Center & Bochner, 1994; Westwood & Graham, 2000). In this perspective, Forlin (1995) reports that emotionally and behaviourally disordered students are commonly regarded as the most problematic and a potential source of teacher stress. Teachers appear more willing to include students with mild disabilities rather than those with severe disabilities and with challenging problems. Others stressed that as more students are included, teachers would need

additional tools and skills for coping with the social and emotional problems that accompany inclusive schooling (Idol, 1997).

Attitude studies claim general educators have not developed an empathetic understanding of the disabling conditions that some children possess (Avramidis et al., 2002). Hence, teacher's negative attitudes towards children with special needs affect the children's self-esteem. Children do not feel they belong and therefore feel different from the other children.

Some general educators lack the feeling responsible for educating students with disabilities (National Council on Disability, 1995). However, Bender, Vail and Scott (1995) and Vaughn and Schumm (1995) declare that general educator's willingness to include students with disabilities is critical to the successful implementation of inclusion.

Naturally, feeling positive about something will create increased motivation. A study conducted by Bender, Vail and Scott (1995) came to light that teachers with negative attitudes towards mainstreaming/inclusion did not use effective teaching strategies for students with disabilities as often as teachers with positive attitudes.

To Hutchinson and Martin (1999), a review of research suggests that general education teachers, particularly pre-service teachers, may not be adequately prepared to provide educational modifications and work successfully with included students who have disabilities. Semmel, Abernathy, Butera and Lesar (1991) corroborated these in an earlier study. The study revealed that regular education teachers did not believe they had the skills needed to adapt their teaching for individual students with disabilities who

were placed in their classes. General education teachers seldom make educational accommodations for individual students (Harris et al, 2003).

Schumm and Vaughn (1995) note further that general educators have little confidence in their ability to plan and implement instructional modifications in the classroom. Teachers believe their pre-service training did not adequately prepare them to meet the educational needs of students with disabilities (Rojewski & Pollard, 1993).

Teachers who have more confidence in their teaching ability (high teaching self-efficacy) are more likely to hold positive attitudes towards inclusion and teachers with low sense of teaching efficacy are less likely to endorse increased mainstreaming practices (Soodak, Podell & Lehman, 1998). High-efficacy teachers utilize more effective instructional strategies (e.g. specialized grading systems, peer tutoring and advance organizers) (Bender et al., 1998). Teachers are less apt to refer students for special education testing and set higher goals for their students compared to teachers with low teaching self-efficacy. General educators report negligible confidence on their ability to teach students with disability (Schumm et al., 1994).

Teachers also raise objections to inclusion due to the large number of students in the class, budget shortages, the teachers' work load and difficulties in standard evaluation (Vaughn et al., 1996). The class size and proportion of children with disabilities compound teacher attitude. Others pointed to lack of team work or asked for guidance in dealing with students with special needs (Danne & Beirne-Smith, 2000). Further, mainstream teachers assert they had chosen to teach a specific discipline and not special education. Hence, the

inclusion policy forced them to enter areas they were unsure about or not interested.

Factors Responsible for Teacher Differing Attitude Towards Inclusive Education

Research has revealed that teacher differing attitudes arise from numerous factors, which are mostly interrelated. These are discussed under three main headings namely: Child-related variables, Teacher-related variables and Educational Environment-related variables.

Child-Related Variables

Avramidis and Norwich (2002) note that the nature of disabilities and/or educational problems presented have been found to influence teachers' attitudes. Teachers' concepts of children with SEN normally consists of types of disabilities, their prevalence and the educational needs they exhibit (Clough &Lindsay, 1991).

According to Forlin (1995) educators were cautiously accepting of including a child with cognitive disability but more accepting of children with physical disabilities. The degree of acceptance for part-time inclusion was high for children considered to have mild or moderate SEN. Further, the degree of acceptance by educators for the placement of children with SEN in mainstream classes declined rapidly with a converse increase in the severity of disability across both physical and cognitive categories. Teachers wish placement should be part-time rather than full-time. Teachers were unanimous in rejection of the inclusion of children with severe disabilities (Ward et al., 1994). Children with profound sensory disabilities and low

cognitive ability were labelled of having a relatively poor chance of being successfully included.

Teacher-Related Variables

Teacher characteristics tend to determine a relationship between those characteristics and attitudes toward children with special needs (Avramidis & Norwich, 2002). Researchers have documented a host of specific teacher variables which might influence teacher acceptance of the inclusion process. These teacher variables include gender, age, years of teaching, class/grade level, contact with disabled persons and personality factors.

Gender

Evidence appears inconsistent regarding gender as an indicator of teacher differing attitudes. Some researchers found female teachers had a greater tolerance level for integration/inclusion and for special needs persons than did male teachers. There was a marginal tendency for female teachers to express more positive attitudes towards the idea of integrating/including children with behaviour problems than male teachers. Leyser, Kapperman and Keller (1994) however report that gender was unrelated to attitudes towards inclusion.

Age-Teaching Experience

Teaching experience is another teacher-related variable cited by several studies as having an influence on teachers' attitudes. To Clough and Lindsay (1991), younger teachers and those with fewer years of experience have been found to be more supportive to integration/inclusion. The acceptance of a child with physical disability was highest among educators with less than six to ten years of teaching.

Leyser et al. (1994) believe in the opposite. They postulate that teachers with 14 years or less teaching experience had a significantly higher positive score in their attitude. Further, there was no significant difference in attitudes to integration/inclusion among teachers whose teaching experience was between one and four years, five and nine years and ten and 14 years. Although, younger teachers and those with fewer years of experience are more supportive of inclusion, researchers have concluded that teaching experience was not significantly related to teachers' attitudes (Avramidis et al., 2000).

Class/Grade Level Taught

The class/grade level taught and its influence on teacher attitudes towards inclusion has been the focus of most research. An international study by Leyser et al. (1994) found that senior high school teachers displayed significantly more positive attitudes towards integration/inclusion than did junior school and elementary school teachers. Junior high school teachers were significantly more positive than elementary school teachers.

As children's age increased, teacher attitudes became less positive due to teacher increase concern about subject matter and less about individual children differences. In support, Clough and Lindsay (1991) claim because teachers are more concerned with subject matter, the presence of children with SEN in the class is a problem from the practical point of managing class activity.

Experience of Contact

Experience of contact with SEN or disabled persons is an important variable in shaping teacher attitudes toward integration/inclusion. The 'contact hypothesis' suggests that as teachers implement inclusive programmes and

therefore get closer to students with significant disabilities, their attitude might become more positive (Yuker, 1988a cited in Avramidis & Norwich, 2002).

Janney, Snell, Beers and Raynes (1995) found experience with low ability children as an important contributing factor to their eventual acceptance by teachers. Supporting, Leyser et al. (1994) noted that, overall, teachers with much experience with disabled persons had significantly more favourable attitudes than those with little or no experience. As experience of mainstream teachers with children with SEN increases, their attitudes change in a positive direction (LeRoy & Simpson, 1996).

On the contrary, social contact per se does not lead to favourable attitudes (Avramidis & Norwich, 2002). Studies reveal no significant correlation between contact with children with disabilities and teachers' attitudes towards including these children in regular classrooms. Social contact could even produce unfavorable attitudes. Teachers not involved (but who were aware of the concept of inclusion) believed that coping with a child with SEN and a mainstream child was equally stressful. Hence, experience of a child with SEN might not promote favourable acceptance of inclusion due to the stress factor.

Training

Knowledge acquired about children with SEN gained through formal studies either pre-service or in-service training is a crucial factor. It is viewed as an important factor in improving teachers' attitudes towards the implementation of an inclusive policy. In this realm, Avramidis and Norwich (2002) ascertain strongly that without a coherent plan for teacher training in

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the educational needs of children with SEN, attempts to include these children in the mainstream would be difficult.

The importance of training in the formation of positive attitudes towards inclusion is well acknowledged in research. Avramidis et al., (2000) reinforce the view that special education qualification acquired from pre and in-service courses were associated with less resistance to inclusive practices. Further, college teachers trained to teach students with learning difficulties express more favourable attitudes and emotions reactions to students with SEN and their inclusion than did those who had no such training. Dickens-Smith (1995) writes that both regular and special educators expressed more favourable attitudes towards inclusion after their in-service training than they did before. Regular teachers showed the strongest positive attitude change. Hence, staff development in special education and inclusive practice is key to the success of inclusion.

Teachers' Beliefs

Teachers' beliefs influence not only their attitudes but also actual teaching styles as well as adaptations in heterogeneous classrooms. That is, teachers' views about their responsibilities in dealing with the needs of students who are exceptional or at risk.

According to Jordan, Lindsay and Stanovich (1997), teachers holding pathognomonic perspective (where the teacher assumes that a disability is inherent in the individual student) differed in their teaching instruction from those closer to an interventionist perspective (where the teacher attributes student problems to an interaction between student and environment).Teachers with the most pathognomonic perspectives demonstrated the least effective

interaction patterns while those with interventionist perspectives engaged in numerous academic interactions and persisted more in constructing student's understanding.

Further, teachers' responses on pathognomonic/interventionist interview scale were found to be important predictors of effective teaching behaviour.Teachers who accept responsibility for teaching a wide diversity of students and feel confidence in their instruction and management skills can successfully implement inclusive programmes.

Teachers' Socio-Political Views

Few studies exist on educators' wider personal beliefs and attitudes. Favourable attitudes are expressed when teachers believed that publicly funded schools should educate exceptional children. Classroom teachers with abstract conceptual systems held more positive attitudes depending on the ethnic origin of the included child.

In a comparative study of educators in rural and urban areas in Pennsylvania, USA and Northamptonshire, England, Norwich (1994) compared the relationships of integration/inclusion attitudes to political outlook, socio-political views and other situational factors. It was concluded that while educators' socio-political or ideological beliefs and values have some relation to integration, attitudes can not be considered as a strong predictor and other situational factors need to be taken into consideration.

Educational Environment-Related Variables

Numerous studies have examined environmental factors and their influence in the formation of teachers' attitudes towards inclusion. A major and

consistent factor associated with more positive attitudes is the availability of support services at the classroom and school levels (Clough & Lindsay, 1991).

The support services could be both physical (teaching materials, IT equipment, a restructured physical environment, etc) and human (learning support assistants, special teachers, speech therapists, etc). Support received from relevant authorities was instrumental in allaying teachers' apprehension that part-time integration would result in extraordinary workloads. A significantly restructuring of the physical environment (making building accessible to students with physical disabilities) and the provisions of adequate and appropriate equipment and materials were also instrumental in the development of these positive attitudes.

Other forms of physical support such as availability of adapted teaching materials and small classes have also been found to generate positive attitudes. Continuous encouragement from the head teacher has also been mentioned in several studies as being instrumental in the creation of positive attitudes to inclusion. In the review of relevant literature, Chazan (1994) cited that mainstream teachers have a greater tolerance of integration/inclusion if head teachers are supportive.

Support from specialist resource teachers was also identified as an important factor in shaping positive teacher attitudes to inclusion. Clough and Lindsay (1991) comment that special education specialist teachers are important co-workers in providing advice to subject specialist teachers on how to make a particular subject accessible to children with SEN.

Steps to Improving and Promoting Successful Inclusive Education

Successful inclusion is defined at least as the ability of teachers to expand the borders of the circle of tolerance and make a broader range of behaviours ordinary in their classrooms (McLeskey & Waldron, 2002).

To improve and promote successful inclusive education, responsibility does not lie with general education teachers alone but with support from the special education teachers, school administration, school counselors and the special education students' parents. Kochhar, West and Taymans (2000), stated that school administrators, teachers and other staff have a responsibility to meet personal, social and academic needs of all students while they are in school. Children with and without disabilities, parents/families, government, other stakeholders in education and society in general are not left out.

According to authors such as Lipsky (1994), Stainback and Stainback (1996) and Shapiro (1999) there are multiple of steps which can be adopted to improve and promote successful practice of inclusion education. Many of the negative attitudes held by special and general education teachers and students towards inclusion could be changed to a more positive outlook if some specific factors were considered.

Moore (1998) identified training and education in special education as a prime step towards successful inclusive education. Few teachers report receiving training (Scruggs & Mastropieri, 1996). Researchers postulate that training and education are not only critical for successful implementation of inclusion programmes (McLesky, Henry & Axelrod, 1999) but also crucial for the development of positive teacher attitudes towards the concept of inclusion. For example, training at the pre-service level in collaborative strategies might

serve to provide new teachers with the skills for collaboration and the confidence that inclusion can be implemented.

Teachers must have opportunities to develop adequate knowledge and teaching skills appropriate for inclusion. This is because general education teachers complain they are unprepared or don't have enough knowledge about students with disabilities in order to teach them effectively. Most literature reviewed such as McLeskey and Waldron (2002), D'Alonzo, Giordano, and VanLeeuwen (1997), and Shade and Stewart (2001), indicated general education teachers needed extra training in the area of teaching students with special needs in order to be adequately prepared. Leyser and Tappendorf (2001) concur that teachers needed knowledge from in-services or pre-services on subjects such as simulations, discussions, panel presentations, and relevant information about disabilities.

On the part of Simpson, Myles, and Simpson (1997) educators need to be knowledgeable about structuring methods such as the use of antecedents, contingencies, consequences, and manipulation of other things in the general education classroom that can better meet the needs of students with disabilities. Teacher training institutions must undertake one or more courses dealing with SEN children and inclusive practices. Hence, special education must be fully integrated into the curriculum for teacher education.

Lindsay (2000) identifies collaboration as an important factor behind successful inclusion. Collaboration is relevant at levels from national policy to classroom practice. It is especially valuable between special and general education teachers. Leyser and Tappendorf (2001) noted its usefulness when special and general education teachers are trained together in in-services or

pre-services so they could share ideas and learn skills on how to effectively collaborate, team, and teach together. According to Voltz, Brazil, and Ford (2001), it is important for the special and general education teachers to collaborate on issues, concerns, and appropriate instruction and structure in the classroom for students with disabilities. Further, the entire school staff should collaborate and work together to meet the needs of all students and should not leave special educators alone or as experts in the move toward more inclusive classes.

According to Salezar and Flores (2003), the top three support resources for successful inclusion were identified as funds for staff, funds and/or release time for collaborative planning, and a lead teacher trained in special education and instructional strategies. According to Gallagher (1994), Hamre-Nieptuski et al. (1995), Lipsky (1994) and National Council on Disability (1995) the implementation of these strategies may serve to increase the inclusion of students and the success of students placed in regular education classrooms on the least restrictive environment.

The formation of partnerships with parents, caregivers and paraprofessionals is important. Parental involvement in inclusive practice is important as parents may serve as the point of contact for relevant information about the needs and problems of children with disabilities. In recognition, Lewis and Doorlag (1995) claim that programmes are more effective for students when parents are active members of the mainstreaming team.

Teachers need to develop positive attitudes towards inclusion to make the concept successful (D'Alonzo, Giordano & Vanleeuwen, 1997). For example, the general educator needs to understand included SEN children not

as just people with labels. Smith et al. (2000) say all individuals have special needs; all of our children are at risk. As a result, regular teachers should play down fear and accept special children.

In addition to positive attitudes, the whole school needs to be supportive of inclusion. Administrative support is primal and paramount because it has been evident as a factor in the failure of effective inclusion programmes (Salezar & Flores, 2003). The flow of support services and resources required by teachers enable them feel good about the changes toward inclusion. Teachers must feel prepared and supported by their peers, school administration, and other staff for the increased workload and changes accompanying inclusion. Team teaching is a way of preventing the feeling of extra and overwhelmed burden of teachers. It allows two teachers to share most of their workload with each other. Kochhar, West, and Taymans (2000) posit that "teachers must plan instruction together, evaluate student progress, communicate with parents, and generally work together with a group of students" (p. 90). This approach reduces most of the added pressure and overwhelming feelings that some teachers would initially have towards inclusion.

Essentially teachers must have adequate planning time. Hence, administrators should be supportive in allowing teachers have the necessary extra planning time and time for collaboration with each other.

Effective planning time (Kochhar, West & Taymans, 2000) must include:

1. Teachers hold a special meeting after the initial or annual IEP meeting to discuss new implications for curriculum or instruction in the general education classroom
2. Teachers have daily meeting times in the morning to plan instruction for the day
3. Teachers use part of their regular in-service days for semester planning or review of student progress
4. Teachers have an established afternoon or extended planning period to prepare for the following week: substitute teachers or parent volunteers are enlisted to cover for the period
5. Teachers use after-school time to prepare for the following day (p. 88).

In the view of Voltz, Brazil and Ford (2001), in order for inclusion to really be successful, students with disabilities must also get a good amount of quality interaction with teachers and students without disabilities. Children with SEN must participate in meaningful ways in everyday classroom instruction and social activities with their non-disabled peers and teachers. Lewis and Doorlag (1998) maintain that inclusion is workable when educators prepare both general and special education students for this change in the general education classrooms. Inclusion provides students with disabilities increased social interaction. Hence, it is important that students without disabilities accept them. This does not naturally occur (Simpson, Myles & Simpson, 1997). Educating students without disabilities about their peers with disabilities can accomplish this goal. According to Fiedler and Simpson cited in Simpson, Myles and Simpson (1997), "curricula and procedures designed to

facilitate better understanding and sensitivity towards students with disabilities have proved their worth in integration programs" (p. 177). Various curricula and methods such as peer mentoring, peer tutoring and co-operative learning will allow students to know each other while also teaching them valuable methods.

The success of inclusion also depends on the provision of a continuum of services to students with disabilities. This includes resource rooms and time in other classroom settings. The goal of inclusion is to educate under one umbrella and open doors to all. This does not mean education and inclusion is one size fits all approach. What is offered and supportive to special education students should also be offered to the rest of the student population (Schattman & Dennis, 1998).

On the part of Carro (1998) the steps for promoting successful inclusion are summarized to include:

a. A change in attitudes
b. Putting into practice a stated commitment to the principles of inclusive education and communities
c. Reducing-not increasing- the proportion of children selected out for special education
d. Re-allocating from segregated sector the extensive resources and expertise to the mainstream
e. Adapting initial and in-service training of teachers; supporting head teachers and governors in these changes
f. Listening to disabled people's views on their experience of special school education

g. Understanding that the greatest barriers to inclusion are caused by society, not by medical impairments

h. Rejecting the medical model of disability and responding positively to the social model.

Further, Schaffner and Buswell (1996) identified ten critical factors for facilitating effective inclusion:

a. Develop a common philosophy and a strategic plan

b. Provide strong leadership

c. Promote school wide and classroom cultures that welcome, appreciate and accommodate diversity

d. Develop support networks

e. Use deliberate processes to ensure accountability

f. Develop organized and on going technical assistance

g. Maintain flexibility

h. Examine and adopt effective teaching approaches

i. Celebrate success and learn from challenges

j. Be knowledgeable about the change process, but don't let it paralyze you (p.50).

The National Association for the Education of Young Children (1997) claims that successful inclusive education demands that children in inclusive classrooms must:

1. Demonstrate increased acceptance and appreciation of diversity;
2. Develop better communication and social skills;
3. Show greater development in moral and ethical principles;
4. Create warm and caring friendships; and

5. Demonstrate increased self-esteem.

Pupil participation and learning enhanced by high expectations, drawing on pupils' previous experiences and maximizing peer support is requisite to making inclusion successful. Collaborative pupil arrangements such as peer tutoring, co-operative group work, buddying and pupils providing feedback to teachers on the effectiveness of teaching are also essential (Shebba & Sachdev, 1997). Through peer tutoring, children with disabilities receive support which can be equal if not more effective than that provided by adults.

Schleien, Green and Stone (1999) identified friendship formation with children with disabilities through increased social interaction is an essential ingredient to successful inclusion. Friendship plays an integral role in the quality of life of all children especially the disabled. According to authors such as Amado (1993) and Schleien, Green and Stone (1999), structured activities such as co-operative learning, peer tutoring, buddy systems and active learning which enhance interaction and participation must characterize inclusive classrooms for the promotion of friendship formation among children with disabilities. Other factors determined to be 'necessary for inclusion to succeed' are: visionary leadership, collaboration, refocused use of assessment, supports for staff and students, funding and effective parental involvement (Lipsky, 1994).

Summary of Major Issues Emanating From the Literature Review

Major issues emerged from the theoretical and empirical review of literature. Attitude depicts how people feel, think or react towards a psychological object such as a person, an object or idea. It has four main

components namely; cognitive, affective, behavioural (conative) and evaluative components.

Attitudes are directional, consistent and possess intensity. An attitude is either positive or negative and cannot be neutral because it carries a strong emotional component. Most literature annotate that predominantly attitudes are formed primarily through learning but they have heredity underpinnings.

The empirical review of literature indicated that the practice of inclusive education varies from country to country due to conceptualization difficulty. Its fundamental philosophy is a single and support-oriented educational system that welcomes all. Inclusive education can be full, partial or variations such as functional, responsible, physical or social. However, inclusion is mainly conceptualized as both social and human rights issues. Inclusive education is beneficial to children with and without disabilities, regular and special teachers, school administrators, parents, school communities as well as society as a whole.

Literature however, reveals that the exact nature of teachers' attitudes concerning inclusion is unknown and contradictory. Teacher attitude towards inclusive education is positive contingent upon knowledge and information acquired through training and education and when support services and resources are available.

Basically, child-related variables, teacher-related variables and educational environment-related variables underlie teacher differing attitude towards inclusive education. Training and education is critical for successful implementation of inclusion programmes and the development of positive teacher attitude. Nonetheless, government commitment, reflexive in effective

funding and policy direction is paramount to the success of inclusive education.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

In this chapter, the methodology for the study is presented. The research design, population, sample and sampling procedures and research instrument are also described. The mode of establishing validity and reliability, data collection and data analysis procedures are also highlighted.

Research Design

Gay (1992) defines a research design as the basic structure of a study, the nature of the hypothesis and variables involved in the study. On the part of Fink (2001), research design refers to all the stages and processes involved in reaching the respondents. Most researchers and writers such as Flick (2000b) see a research design in a wider context, covering all aspects of research from the selection of the topic to the publication of the data.

In the view of Flick (2000) and Pfeifer (2000), the purpose of research design reflects goals such as (1) offers a guide that directs the research action and help rationalize the use of time and resources, and reduce costs; (2) helps to introduce a systematic approach to the research operation; and (3) enables accurate assessment of the validity and reliability of the study among others.

The descriptive survey design was deemed appropriate and employed for the study. To Ary, Jacobs and Razavieh (1990), descriptive research studies are designed to obtain information concerning the current status of phenomena existing at the time of study. Babbie (1990) opines that descriptive survey is useful for generalizing from a sample to a population so that

inferences can be made about the characteristics, attributes or behaviour of the population. Further, Gay (1992) sees descriptive research as the collection of data in order to test hypothesis or answer research questions concerning the current status of the subjects of the study. It involves asking the same set of questions to a large number of individuals either by mail, by telephone or in person. Gay (1992) further maintains that descriptive survey is useful for investigating variety of educational problems including the assessment of attitudes, opinions, demographic information, conditions and procedures. In this context, teacher attitude towards inclusive education in Regular Schools in the Cape Coast Municipality fits appropriately in descriptive survey.

Descriptive survey research design has the advantage of providing a more accurate and meaningful picture of events and seeks to explain peoples' perception and behaviour on the basis of data gathered at a particular time (Fraenkel &Wallen, 1993). Thus, descriptive survey design allows for in-depth follow-up questions and items that are unclear can be explained. Further, descriptive survey design can be used with greater confidence with regard to particular questions of special interest and value to a researcher. The major advantage of descriptive survey is that it has the potential to provide a lot of information from quite a large sample of respondents (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2000).

Despite the advantages of the descriptive survey design, there are inherent disadvantages. Fraenkel and Wallen (1993) and Seifert and Hoffnung (1991) maintain that there is the difficulty of ensuring that the questions to be answered using the descriptive survey design are clear and not misleading. This is because survey results can vary significantly depending on the exact

wording of questions. Hence, it may produce unreliable results as it delves into private matters that respondents are reluctant to provide answers. Further, there is difficulty obtaining a sufficient number of questionnaire completed and returned for meaningful analysis to be made in some cases.

However, in spite of these deficiencies, the descriptive survey design was considered most appropriate for the study. It would aid the researcher collect accurate data on attitudes of teachers on variables underlying the study for meaningful conclusion to be drawn.

Population

Polit and Hungler (1996) define a population as the entire aggregation of cases that meet a designated set of criteria. It comprises the universe of elements the researcher is interested for the study. The target population for the study comprised all teachers in all Regular Schools (Primary and JSS) in the Cape Coast Municipality. The accessible population, however, was all such teachers in Primary and Junior Secondary Schools in the six circuits in the Cape Coast Municipality.

Sample

According to Amedahe (2002), a sample consists of carefully selected subset of the units that comprises the population. It is usually a small and representative proportion of the population.

The sample for the study consisted of 132 teachers in regular schools (Primary and JSS). Before arriving at the sample size of 132, the table for determining the sample size from a given population as provided by Krejcie and Morgan (1970) was used.

In all, the sample was selected from 16 regular schools (urban or rural) in the six circuits in the Cape Coast Municipality.

Sampling Procedure

Sampling is a common and indispensable research tool, which describes the process of choosing the respondents and units of a study. It facilitates necessity, effectiveness and economy of time (Sarantakos, 2005).

Basically, two main sampling techniques were adopted to select the sample for the study. First, the purposive sampling technique was used to select 16 Primary and JSS schools and classes attended by children with and without disabilities. This was based on information from the Cape Coast Municipal Education Directorate and the researcher's previous knowledge. Also the absence or lack of sampling frame for individuals with disabilities in regular schools in the Cape Coast Municipality motivated the choice of the purposive sampling procedure.

The teachers were selected taken cognizance to their school location either urban or rural. It was also ensured that teachers selected had at least children with disabilities in their schools/classrooms and that children without disabilities actually interact or have peers with disabilities in their schools or classes.

The simple random sampling technique was used to select teachers from the identified schools through the lottery method. This gave equal chances to teachers selected for the study. The simple random sampling procedure was appropriate because the population of study had similar characteristics of interest such as school location and teacher qualification.

Research Instrument

The questionnaire was the main instrument used to collect data for the study. A set of questionnaire was designed for regular school teachers in Primary and Junior Secondary Schools.

Best and Kahn (1993) stress that the questionnaire serves as the most appropriate and useful data-gathering device in a research project if properly constructed and administered. Further, Sarantakos (2005) assert that the coverage of questionnaire is wide as researchers can reach respondents more easily than other methods and unaffected by problems of 'non-contacts'. The questionnaire was developed using the Likert scale format with few open-ended items.

Polit and Hungler (1995) maintain that the Likert scale is the most widely used scaling technique. The Likert scale is particularly used as a means for studying attitudes (Sarantakos, 2005). Similarly, Lehmann and Mehrens (1991) posit that the Likert scale appears to be the most popular method of attitude scale construction. The Likert scales are easier to construct and score than the Thurstone and Guttmann Scales. Further, the Likert scale produces more homogeneous scales; allows the subject to indicate the degree or intensity of feelings and permits greater spread of variance. In terms of return rate, the Likert scale has added advantage over open-ended questionnaires (Amedahe, 1994; Oppenheim, 1992 & Sarantakos, 2005).

The researcher used the four-point Likert scale. This scale had attitude level and score values for positive statements as: Very True (VT) = 4, True (T) =3, False (F) = 2 and Very False (VF) = 1;Strongly Agree (SA) =4, Agree (A) = 3, Disagree (D) =2 and Strongly Disagree (SD)= 1 as well as Very Great

(VG) =4,Great (G) =3,Little (L) = 2 and Very Little (VL) =1. For negative statements the score values were reversed.

The four-point scale was chosen against the traditional Likert scale which usually measures attitudes on a continuum ranging from 1 to 5 or 7. Casely and Kumor (1988) argue against the use of odd number of responses in the centre of the Likert scale. According to authors such as Sarantakos (2005), the use of an even number of response reflects the concern that respondents might use 'not sure', 'no opinion', 'I don't know' or 'undecided' to avoid making a real choice. With an even number, respondents are 'forced' to choose between favourable and unfavourable responses. Further, attitudes (Sprinthal, Sprinthal & Oja, 1994) carry a strong emotional component and can never be neutral. Hence, respondents would have no chance to play it safe by being neutral in their responses.

The questionnaire administered to teachers comprised two main parts. Its items dealt with topical issues raised in the research questions. The first part (A) focused on demographical data. The second part consisted of five sub-sections namely: B, C, D, E and F. Items on teacher knowledge of special education and disabilities formed Section B.

Items on Section C were to determine teacher conceptualization/ understanding of inclusive education while Section D was designed to measure teacher attitude towards inclusive education. Section E covered items unearthing factors responsible for teacher differing attitude towards inclusive education while the final section dealt with the steps to promote and improve the practice of inclusive education in Regular Schools in the Cape Coast Municipality and Ghana in general.

Validity of Instrument

Validity is the property of a research instrument that measures its relevance, precision and accuracy (Sarantakos, 2005). Further, it is a measure of the quality of the process of measurement, essential value of a study, which is accepted, and indeed expected by the researcher and users of research.

To ensure validity of the study, the questionnaire was submitted to the researcher's supervisors and lecturers in Special Education for expert appraisal. This enabled them give a face and content related evidence to the items and examine whether the items related to the research questions and comprehensively cover the dimensions of the study. Suggestions made were incorporated to refine the content and improve the questionnaire.

Reliability of Instrument

Reliability is a measure of objectivity, stability, consistency and precision (Sarantakos, 2005). Like validity, reliability is important to social researchers.

The Cronbach's Alpha measure of internal consistency was used to establish the reliability of the instruments. This statistic provides an indication of the average correlation among all of the items that make up the scale of the instrument.

The choice of the Cronbach's Alpha measure of internal consistency is based on the merit that it is useful when measures have multiple scored items such as attitudinal scale (Ary, Jacobs & Razavieh, 1990). The reliability co-efficient was derived after correlating the results from the administration of the instrument. The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (Version 11.0) was

used for the calculations. The final instrument had an internal consistency reliability coefficient of 0.80.

Pre-testing of Instrument

A pre-test was conducted to improve the validity of the instrument. It involved twenty-four (24) teachers selected from two schools namely the St. Nicholas and Kubease Primary and Junior Secondary Schools. These schools were excluded from the sample and were chosen based on their location. The pre-test was predominantly used to check the "mechanical" structure of the research instrument for enhancing the validity and reliability.

The researcher used the responses obtained to eliminate ambiguous, non-specific, hypothetical and misleading questions before the final administration.

Data Collection Procedure

The researcher administered the questionnaire to respondents personally during normal school time. This was to promote co-operation and participation and a high return rate of questionnaire from teachers.

An introductory letter was obtained from the researcher's Head of Department. The letter spelt out the purpose of the instrument, the need for individual participation, anonymity as well as confidentiality of respondents' responses. After establishing the necessary contacts with the head teachers of the selected schools, permission was granted for the administration of the instrument.

Basically, the purpose of the study, meanings of terms such as disabilities and inclusive education, and procedure for responding to the questionnaire was explained to respondents. Ample time, a maximum of three

days was given for teachers to complete the questionnaire. Almost all the co-opted teachers participated in the study .The return rate was 97.0%, which was very encouraging.

Data Analysis

Descriptive and inferential statistics were used to analyze and discuss data collected for the study. The questionnaire administered to teachers were given serial numbers for easy identification. It was edited to eliminate errors. Responses to Section B of the questionnaire were scored using a four-point Likert scale as Very True, True, False and Very False with weights of 4, 3, 2 and 1 respectively.

Further, Section C and D were also scored on a four-point Likert scale as 4,3,2 and 1 for positive statements with responses Strongly Agree, Agree, Disagree and Strongly Disagree while Section E and F, Very Great =4, Great =3, Little =2 and Very Little = 1 respectively. The scoring was reversed for negative statements.

The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS, Version 11.0) was used to aid the analysis of data for each respondent. Research questions 1 and 2 were analyzed with frequencies, percentages and means. According to Sarantakos (2005) frequency and percentage tables enable the researcher to gain an overall view of the findings. They present a quick visual overview and summary of research findings. Frequencies, percentages and means were also used for the analysis of research questions 3 and 4.

The independent sample t-test was adopted for the analysis of responses to hypothesis 1 and 2. Sarantakos (2005) reiterates that the independent sample t-test is purposeful for ascertaining whether or not

findings of a sample-based study (for example, attitude towards inclusive education) are significant. Further, the findings are also valid for the target population. Hence, the independent sample t-test was used to determine whether there existed significant difference between the independent variables (gender and school location) and dependent variable (attitude towards inclusive education). Responses on teacher knowledge of special education and disabilities were also analyzed with frequencies, percentages and means.

However, the One-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was used to analyze hypothesis 3 and 4. The One-way ANOVA is powerful and suitable for interval distributions as it compares the variance between different groups. Hence, the One-Way ANOVA was employed to determine whether significant differences existed between the independent variables (teaching experience and professional qualification) and dependent variable (attitude towards inclusive education).

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter presents the analysis of responses and discussion of the findings. The presentation is under two main headings. Whereas, the first part covers an analysis of demographic data of the respondents, the second dealt with results of the main data.

The analysis and discussion focused on teacher conceptualization/ understanding of inclusive education, teacher knowledge of special education and disabilities and teacher attitude towards inclusive education. The analysis of factors responsible for teacher differing attitude towards inclusive education and steps to promote and improve the practice of inclusive education are also captured in this chapter. The analysis and discussion concludes with the testing of hypotheses to determine significant difference between the dependent variable (attitude towards inclusive education) and other independent variables such as gender, school location, teaching experience and professional qualification. Responses on teacher knowledge on special education and disabilities are also analyzed. Appropriate tables and figures are used to support the research findings when deemed necessary.

Analysis of Demographic Data

The study comprised 132 teachers selected from 16 regular schools in the six circuits in the Cape Coast Municipality. Table 1 depicts the circuit name of school and number of teachers who participated in the study.

Table 1

Distribution of regular schools and teachers

Circuit	School: Primary & JSS	Frequency	Percent
1. Cape Coast	Ekon M/A	6	4.5
	Nkanfoa Catholic	8	6.1
	Mensah Sarbah	8	6.1
2. Aboom	Aboom AME Zion B	6	4.5
	Antem M/A B	9	6.8
3. Bakaano	Cape Coast AME Zion A	10	7.6
	Church of Christ	10	7.6
4. Pedu-Abura	Kakomdo M/A	9	6.8
	Esuekyir M/A	7	5.3
5. OLA	OLA Presby	6	4.5
	Apewosika M/A	8	6.1
	Kwaprow M/A	11	8.3
	University	11	8.3
6. Efutu	Efutu M/A	10	7.6
	Mpeasem AME Zion	6	4.5

From Table 1, out of the 132 teachers, Kwaprow M/A and University Primary and JSS contributed the largest number of teachers. That is, 11(8.3%) teachers each. Mpeasem AME Zion, Ekon M/A, OLA Presby and Aboom AME Zion B contributed the lowest number of 6(4.5%) teachers each. Four schools namely: Nkanfoa Catholic, Mensah Sarbah, Apewosika M/A and Ankaful M/A had 8 teachers each. The OLA circuit had the highest number of schools.

Gender Distribution

Data was collected on teachers' gender so as to determine the number of males and females involved in the study. Gender is an important social, cultural and psychological construct, which prescribes the expected attitudes and behaviours a society, associates with sex. Table 2 shows the distribution of teachers by gender.

Table 2

Distribution of teachers by gender

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Male	63	47.7
Female	69	52.3
Total	132	100.0

Table 2 depicts that there were 69(52.3%) female teachers and 63(47.7%) males. Clearly, more female teachers participated in the study than males. The disparity is not only slight but also a true reflection of the general gender differences currently existing among teachers in schools in the Cape Coast Municipality.

School Location

Table 3

School location of teachers

Location	Frequency	Percent
Urban	67	50.8
Rural	65	49.2
Total	132	100.0

Information on teachers' school location either urban or rural is shown in Table 3. The table reveals that 67(50.8%) teachers teach in schools located in urban settings while 65(49.2%) in schools located in rural settings. Though, the selection and classification of schools into urban and rural was proportional (eight schools each), a little more teachers in urban schools participated in the study. However, the difference may not significantly affect the result of the study.

Figure 1 presents information on the teachers' teaching experience.

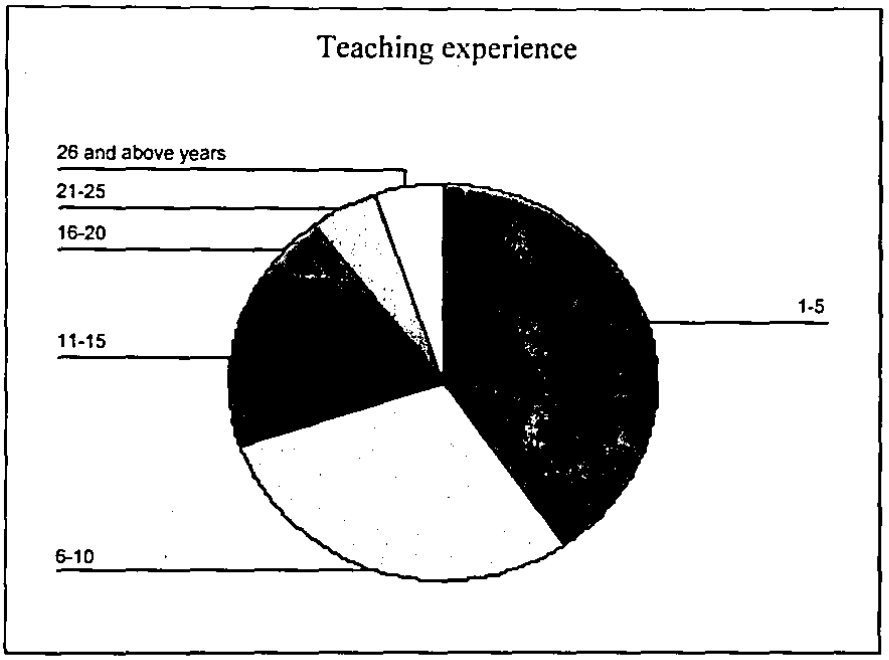

Fig. 1: Teaching Experience of Teachers.

Several studies cite teaching experience (regular and special) as an influencing factor on attitude towards inclusive education. Figure 1 shows that 40.2% and 29.5% of teachers had taught for 1-5 years and 6-10 years respectively. Nineteen (14.4%) teachers had a teaching experience of between 11 and 15 years while 5.3% of teachers each had taught for 16-20 years, 21-25 years, 26 and above years respectively. Thus, most teachers (59.8%) have enough experience with the education of children with disabilities in regular

schools in the Cape Coast Municipality since they have taught for six (6) years and above.

Professional Qualification

Table 4

Teachers' professional qualification

Qualification	Frequency	Percent
Masters' Degree in Education	4	3.0
Degree in Education	19	14.4
Diploma in Education	31	23.5
3-year post Secondary Cert A	60	45.5
4-year post Secondary Cert A	11	8.3
Others (SSS, HND, TECH.)	7	5.3
Total	132	100.0

Table 4 indicates that 60(45.5%) teachers were 3-year Post Secondary Certificate 'A' holders, Diploma in Education (23.5%) while Degree in Education (14.4%). Eleven (8.3%) were 4-year Post Secondary Cert 'A' holders and Masters Degree in Education (3.0%), the highest qualification. Thus, 94.7% of teachers are professionals from the teacher training colleges or universities. Hence, teachers possess sound professional qualification which can be a springboard for effective orientation on the practice of effective inclusive education in the Cape Coast Municipality.

Analysis of the Main Data

Research Question 1

How do teachers conceptualize/understand inclusive education?

A conceptualization of inclusive education is seen as a prelude for its effective implementation and practice in any country. Responses to Section C of the teacher questionnaire were analyzed to answer research question 1. There were 10 statements on the concept 'inclusive education' and its practice.

The degree of teacher conceptualization/understanding of inclusive education is depicted in frequencies, percentages and means. For effective data analysis, three main levels of conceptualization/understanding of inclusive education were developed. These are high, average and low conceptualization/understanding of inclusive education.

Teachers responded "Strongly Agree", "Agree", "Disagree" or "Strongly Disagree" to the 10 statements on inclusive education. For clarity, responses to "Strongly Agree" and "Agree" statements were collapsed into the "Agree" category while "Disagree" and "Strongly Disagree" were placed in the "Disagree" category.

The score for average teacher conceptualization/understanding of inclusive education was 10(50.0%) while a score above 50.0% was deemed as a high conceptualization/understanding of inclusive education. Consequently, teachers who obtained below 50.0% were considered as having low conceptualization/understanding of inclusive education. Table 5 gives an overview of teacher responses on the conceptualisation/understanding of inclusive education.

Table 5

Results of teacher level of conceptualization/understanding of inclusive education

	Statement on the Conceptualization/Understanding of Inclusive Education	Agree		Disagree		Mean
		Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
1.	Inclusive education places children with disabilities in general education schools.	99	75.0	33	25.0	3.0
2.	Students with disabilities learn in the same classrooms with their non-disabled peers.	107	81.0	25	19.0	3.1
3.	All children participate in the same classroom activities in general education environment.	106	80.3	26	18.0	3.1
4.	Only children with mild and moderate disabilities are educated in inclusive settings.	84	63.6	38	36.4	2.9
5.	Inclusive education is a right for all children.	123	93.8	9	6.2	3.5
6.	Inclusive education accepts children with different talents, gifts and weaknesses.	126	95.5	6	4.5	3.6
7.	Teachers, parents and society share responsibilities in inclusive education.	114	86.4	18	13.6	3.2
8.	Teachers set the same goals for all children in inclusive education.	95	72.0	37	28.0	2.8

Table 5 (continued)

	Statement on the Conceptualization/Understanding of Inclusive Education	Agree		Disagree		Mean
		Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
9.	Inclusive education eliminates special services from specialists (speech therapists, counsellors, psychologists).	43	32.6	89	67.4	2.2
10.	School curriculum and teaching strategies change in inclusive education.	80	60.6	52	39.4	2.7

Results from Table 5 show that teacher conceptualization/ understanding of inclusive education is varied. That is, low, average and high.

Inclusive education really places children with disabilities in general education schools. The regular school has varying and natural proportions of children with disabilities in its fold. However, the placement/presence of children with disabilities is chronological and age-appropriate (Falvey et al., 1995), and demands supplemental support services without which children with disabilities cannot function and succeed in the regular school. Teachers' performance on the statement "inclusive education places children with disabilities in general education schools" was high as shown in Table 5. Two-thirds of the teachers, 99(75.0%) agreed with the statement but a third, 33(25.0%) disagreed. This indicates that teachers believe that children with disabilities are inevitably part of the regular school education and cannot be avoided. Thus, children with disabilities cannot be construed as "visitors" but integral part of the regular school.

The statement "students with disabilities learn in the same classrooms as non disabled peers" also attracted a high teacher performance. One hundred and seven (81.0%) teachers agreed with the statement. Less than 20% of teachers disagreed. Inclusive education does not encourage "segregation" in the learning environment of the regular school. In agreement, Kochar, West and Taymans (2000) disclose that students with disabilities learn in the same classrooms as their peers without disabilities. Learning together in the same classroom is a basic philosophy of inclusion and it creates a sense of community and acceptance, which are essential for effective inclusive practice in regular schools.

Other teacher response on inclusive education indicated a high level of conceptualization/understanding. It is evident from Table 5 that, 106(80.3%) teachers agreed with the statement "All children participate in the same classrooms activities in general educational environment" in inclusive education. Only 18.0% teachers disagreed with the statement. Thus, as children learn together, they participate in the same classroom activities. Opportunities are created for them to participate maximally in classroom activities and assignments. In support, Rogers (1993) remarked that each student participates in the opportunities and responsibilities of the general education environment. Teachers maintained there is no exclusion of some students from the activities of the school.

Inclusive education comprises varying degrees of children with disabilities (mild to profound). It can consist of only children with mild and moderate disabilities if the orientation and policy of the government and stakeholders of education supports the provision. The reason being that

teachers say mild-moderate disabled children benefit most from mainstream education. In support, 84(63.6%) teachers agreed with the statement "only children with mild to moderate disabilities are educated in inclusive settings". Conversely, the 48(36.4%) teachers believe all children (even those with the most severe disabilities) should receive their entire education in general education classrooms as (Fuchs & Fuchs, 1994) stipulate.

A greater percent of teachers acknowledged inclusive education as a right for all children. This is indicated with a 93.8 percent agreement to the statement "inclusive education is a right for all children" as shown in Table 5 as against a 6.2% disagreement. Children's right to inclusive education are social and human in nature, which cannot be alienated from them. Buttressing, Okyere and Adams (2003) declare that segregation or discrimination-institutional, environment or attitudinal is a threat to inclusive education. It is negative and an affront to the human dignity of children.

Similarly, the statement "inclusive education accepts children with different talents, gifts and weaknesses" evoked a very high teacher performance. Table 5 depicts that there was 95.5% agreement against only 4.5%. Teachers viewed inclusive education as composed of individuals with different abilities and believed no instructional environment has a pool of children with the same capacities or abilities. Diversity in talents, gifts and weaknesses is the norm and character of any inclusive setting as revealed in the study. Inclusion does not thrive on selectivity, exclusivity or rejectivity but reflect openness and diversity in children's abilities (Swain & Cook, 2001 and CSIE, 2000).

Inclusive education is not a one-man business but a collective and shared responsibility. Teachers, parents and society share responsibilities in inclusive education to help students become productive and functional members of society. From Table 5,116(86.4%) teachers agreed to the statement "Teachers, parents and society share responsibility in inclusive education" but the others disagreed. Through teamwork, a continuum of support services and appropriate resources are provided for all children especially those with disabilities to chalk success in the regular school (Leyser & Tappendorf, 2001).

Further, regular teachers said the same goals are set for all children in inclusive education. This is shown by the 95(72.0%) teachers who agreed with the statement "teachers set the same goals for all children in inclusive education". However, in real terms, the goals set for children with disabilities vary from their non disabled counterparts because the time span for their attainment differs. Kochhar, West and Taymans (2000) note that students with disabilities learn in the same classroom as their peers without disabilities, even though the educational goals may be different.

Nevertheless, inclusion does not reduce or eliminate special services (Schaffner, Buswell, Summerfield & Kovar, 1998). Special services and supports are availed to children with disabilities in general education classrooms. As such, 89(67.4%) teachers disagreed with the statement "inclusive education eliminates special services from specialist such as speech therapists, counselors and psychologists". The absence of special services and supports for regular teachers and children with disabilities would amount to "dumping".

Shebba and Sachdev (1997) signal that inclusion involves changes in the way schools are organized, the curriculum and the teaching strategies to accommodate the range of needs and abilities among pupils. However, teachers were somehow divided on the statement "school curriculum and teaching strategies change in inclusive education". While 80(60.6%) teachers agreed to the statement, 52(39.4%) disagreed. Thus, many teachers believe that changes in school organization, curriculum and teaching strategies characterizes inclusive education.

Summary of Teacher Conceptualization of Inclusive Education

A run down of teacher responses collapsed under "high level of conceptualization/understanding of inclusive education" and "low level of conceptualization/understanding inclusive education" is shown in Table 6.

Table 6

Teacher level of conceptualization/understanding of inclusive education

Level of Conceptualization/Understanding of Inclusive Education	Frequency	Percent
High level of conceptualization	111	84.1
Low level of conceptualization	21	15.9
Total	132	100.0

Table 6 points out that, 111 (84.1%) teachers have high level of conceptualization/understanding of inclusive education. Only 15.9% of teachers have low conceptualization/understanding of inclusive education. This indicates that, regular school teachers in the Cape Coast Municipality have a high level of conceptualization/understanding of inclusive education. However, 15.9 percent of teachers with low level conceptualization of

inclusive education is quite significant. Hence, the need for the organization of in-service training for regular school teachers to improve their conceptualization/understanding of inclusive education is paramount.

Teacher Knowledge of Special Education and Disabilities

The level of teacher knowledge of special education and disabilities is important and fundamental for the effective practice of inclusive education. It may influence teachers' attitude toward children with disabilities in regular schools. Section B of the teacher questionnaire was used to gather data for the analysis as shown in Table 6. Teacher responded "Very True", "True"," False" or "Very False" to 7 statements on special education and disabilities. For example, a "True" response to a positive statement such as" children with disabilities can learn" connotes a high knowledge of special education and disabilities while a "False" response to a negative statement such as "disability is contagious" also indicates a high knowledge of special education and disabilities and vice-versa.

Table 7

Results of teacher knowledge of special education and disabilities

Knowledge of Special Education and Disabilities	Very True (%)	True (%)	False (%)	Very False(%)	Mean
a. I teach children with different types of disabilities.	28 (21.2)	77 (58.3)	18 (13.7)	9 (6.8)	2.9
b. Children with disabilities can learn.	66 (50.0)	54 (40.9)	9 (6.8)	3 (2.3)	3.4
c. Disability is contagious	12 (9.1)	14 (10.6)	84 (63.6)	22 (16.7)	2.1

Table 7 continued

Knowledge of Special Education and Disabilities	Very True (%)	True (%)	False (%)	Very False(%)	Mean
d. Special education is for all children with and without disabilities.	29 (22.0)	52 (39.4)	37 (28.0)	14 (10.6)	2.7
e. Special education involves regular and special teachers	43 (32.6)	58 (43.9)	20 (15.2)	11 (8.3)	3.0
f. Special education involves individualized instruction.	46 (34.8)	59 (44.7)	13 (9.8)	14 (10.6)	3.0
g. Special education treats individuals differently.	28 (21.2)	66 (50.0)	30 (22.7)	8 (6.1)	2.8

Table 7 demonstrates that teacher knowledge of special education and disabilities are similar. The statement "I teach children with different types of disabilities" is true. Most teachers, 100(79.5%) agreed with the statement but 20.5% responded "False". The mean score of approximately 3.0 confirms teachers' position that the inclusive setting/regular school has varying proportions of children with disabilities. Teachers do not rule out the presence of disabled children in the regular schools and note that children with disabilities are part and parcel of the regular school.

Many teachers, 120(90.9%) answered, "Very True" or "True" to the statement "children with disabilities can learn". But 12(9.1%) teachers thought otherwise. The mean score of approximately 3.4 places teachers' response close to the very true category. The indication is that regular teachers appreciate that children with disabilities can learn. Thus, learning for children with disabilities occurs in any environment provided appropriate

experiences are designed to meet their unique needs. A lot of learning occurs when these children (those with disabilities) experience peer interactions, ideas and activities in the mainstream Shapiro (1990).

With a 70.3 percent agreement, teachers responded "Very False" or "False" to the statement "disability is contagious". Only 26(19.7%) attested "Very True" or "True" to the statement. This may result from low knowledge of disabilities. It is apparent that disability is not transferable and cannot be equated with communicable diseases. Most teachers denounced the old myth that is associated with disability. This belief is a good signal for the teaching of children with disabilities and subsequently the practice of inclusive education in the Cape Coast Municipality.

Teachers also concurred with the statement "special education is for all children with and without disabilities". While most teachers, 29(22.0%) and 52(39.4%) answered "Very True" or "True" to the statement, approximately 51(38.6%) said "False" or "Very False". This implies that most teachers feel all children need remedial instruction to succeed in the regular school. Special education presents additional services and support for all children. It is "Good education" since every educator strives to develop students to their maximum potentials. Hence, special education cannot be the preserve of children with disabilities only.

Most teachers supported the statement "special education involves regular and special teachers" as portrayed in Table 7.That is, 101(76.5%) teachers answered "Very True" or "True" to the statement as against 23.5%. The mean score of 3.0 supports this proposition. For effective special

education services for children with disabilities, regular and special teachers team up and work co-operatively to attain the desired success.

Individualized instruction is regarded as a character of special education because children have varying needs and problems. Individualizing instruction caters for the diverse needs of all children especially the disabled. Ninety-five (79.5%) teachers indicated that the statement "special education involves individualized instruction" is a true. Less than 20.0% of teachers had a different view. Teachers believe that without individualizing instruction, the diverse needs of children with disabilities cannot be met.

A higher number of teachers, 93(70.5%) responded "Very True" or "True" to the statement "special education treats individuals differently". The mean score of 2.8 authenticates teachers' stand. Individual differences are fundamental to the provision of special education services because it determines the focus of instruction for each child particularly the disabled. Without treating individuals differently, their unique needs cannot be met.

Summary of Teacher Knowledge of Special Education and Disabilities

Table 8 gives a brief overview of teacher responses dichotomized into "high" knowledge of special education and disabilities or "low" knowledge of special education and disabilities.

Table 8

Teacher knowledge of special education and disabilities

Knowledge of Special Education and Disabilities	Frequency	Percent
High knowledge	105	76.0
Low knowledge	27	24.0
Total	132	100.0

Table 8 indicates that, 100 (76.0%) teachers have high knowledge of special education and disabilities. Only 24.0% of teachers have low knowledge of special education and disabilities. This indicates that, regular basic school teachers have high knowledge of special education and disabilities.

Despite, the significant percent of teachers who appear to have high knowledge of special education and disabilities, the need for the organization of constant and effective in-service training for regular school teachers remains inevitable. Hence, all teachers in Cape Coast Municipality including the 24.0% of teachers who have low knowledge of special education and disabilities should be re-oriented and equipped with the fundamental knowledge about special education and disabilities so as to boost their professional practice as well as teaching and learning in the regular school.

Research Question 2

What is teacher attitude towards inclusive education?

Documented findings in literature identify teacher attitude as key to the success of inclusive education. Research question 2 was formulated to explore regular school teachers' attitude towards inclusive education in the Cape Coast Municipality of Ghana.

Section D of teacher questionnaire was used to answer the research question. It comprised 20 teacher attitude statements. For easy analysis, responses to "Strongly Agree" and "Agree" statements were collapsed into the "Agree" category while "Disagree" and "Strongly Disagree" were placed in the "Disagree" category. The mean item score was 2.5. Hence, a score below the mean score denotes a disagreement with the attitude statement while a

score above 2.5 points to an agreement.

Table 9 presents teacher attitude towards inclusive education in regular schools in the Cape Coast Municipality.

Table 9

Results of teacher responses to statement on attitude towards inclusive education

Attitude Statement	Agree (%)	Disagree (%)	Mean
1. Every child can learn in the regular classroom.	90 (68.2)	42 (31.8)	2.8
2. Inclusive education is effective for children with mild and moderate disabilities.	99 (75.0)	33 (25.0)	3.1
3. Inclusive education is effective for children with severe-profound disabilities.	20 (12.1)	112 (84.8)	1.6
4. Inclusive education is beneficial for all children with and without disabilities.	102 (77.3)	30 (22.7)	3.0
5. Inclusive education promotes social interaction among all children.	106 (80.3)	26 (19.7)	3.3
6. Inclusive education promotes friendship formation among children with and without disabilities.	127 (96.2)	5 (3.8)	3.5
7. Inclusive education improves social skills of children with disabilities.	121 (91.7)	11 (8.3)	3.2
8. Including children with disabilities lowers general academic performance.	70 (53.0)	62 (47.0)	2.5
9. Regular teachers feel prepared to work in inclusive setting.	46 (34.8)	86 (65.2)	2.8

Table 9 (continued)

Attitude Statement	Agree (%)	Disagree (%)	Mean
10. Regular teachers possess necessary knowledge, skills and experience for inclusion.	45 (34.1)	87 (65.9)	2.9
11. Inclusive education can work better with help and support from special teachers.	125 (93.9)	8 (6.1)	3.4
12. Inclusive education increases the workload of teachers in regular schools.	106 (90.3)	26 (19.7)	3.2
13. Teachers pre-service training in inclusive education is relevant.	119 (90.2)	13 (9.8)	3.3
14. Regular teachers develop professional competence through inclusion.	121 (91.7)	11 (8.3)	3.3
15. Disruptive behaviours of children with disabilities affect inclusive education.	91 (68.9)	41 (31.1)	2.9
16. Regular teachers support the inclusion of children with disabilities.	86 (65.2)	46 (34.8)	2.6
17. Inclusive education is a forced policy for regular teachers.	58 (43.9)	74 (56.1)	2.4
18. Instructional time is lost when children with disabilities are included in regular schools.	70 (53.0)	62 (47.0)	2.4
19. Inclusive education is a waste of time and resources.	27 (20.7)	105 (79.5)	1.9
20. Large class should be reduced when including children with disabilities.	109 (82.6)	23 (17.4)	3.3

Evidence from Table 9 reveals that teacher attitude towards inclusive education were wide-ranging. There is a clear-cut indication that a significant majority of teachers agreed with most of the attitude statements while a few disagreed.

The mean and percent agreement score were 2.8 and 68.2 respectively for the statement ''Every child can learn in the regular classroom''. This is an intimation that teachers agree that every child (with and without disabilities) is capable of learning in the regular classroom. In support, Shapiro (1999) contends that students with disabilities learn a lot from inclusive classroom because they experience peer interaction, ideas and activities. Since teachers hold positive attitude concerning every child's learning capacity, they would invariably design appropriate learning experiences for each child to attain the needed success. The reason is that learning is permissible within the context of appropriate experiences and moderating environment.

Further, two-thirds of the teachers were in agreement with the statement ''Inclusive education is effective for children with mild and moderate disabilities'' while 33(25.0%) disagreed. The mean score was 3.1. This means teachers hold positive attitude towards the education with mild-moderate disabilities in regular schools. It was further observed that the effectiveness of inclusion for children with mild-moderate disabilities is contingent upon the few overt behavioural and educational problems such children exhibit. Hence, most teachers expressed great liking to teaching children with mild-moderate disabilities in regular schools.

On the contrary, teachers disagreed with the statement "inclusive education is effective for children with severe-profound disabilities" as

indicated in Table 9. The percentage disagreement was 84.8 against 12.1% agreement. Teachers posited that inclusive education is ineffective for the severe-profound as they pose serious academic and behavioural difficulties. This remark concurs with Ward, Center and Bochner (1994) assertion that teachers were unanimous in the rejection of inclusion of children with severe disabilities. The reason is that severe-profound disabled children are labeled of having relatively poor chance of being successful. Teachers are usually more willing to include students with mild disabilities rather than those with severe disabilities and with challenging problems (Scruggs & Mastropieri, 1996; Forlin, 1995).

On whether inclusive education is beneficial for all children with and without disabilities, 102(77.3%) teachers affirmed positively. This stand corroborates Bender et al. (1990) findings that inclusion is beneficial for disabled and non disabled children in mainstream class. In inclusive education, the divergent needs of all children are catered for. However, the quantum benefit may be relative for each group of children in regular schools. Comparatively, severe-profound disabled children may obtain the least benefit and inclusive education would be ineffective for them.

One hundred and six (80.3%) teachers maintained that inclusive education promotes social interaction among all children. The promotion of social interaction is the most significant benefit to the inclusive practice. It equips all students with relevant experiences and social gymnastics to live with people from diverse backgrounds. Hanline and Daley (2002) in supporting the finding this assert that children with disabilities have opportunities for observational learning, interaction and higher levels of play.

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Hendrickson, Shokoohi-Yekta, Hamre-Nietupski and Gable (1996) also note that the increased social interaction with other peers increases self-esteem and make disabled children feel part of the school community.

Friendship formation among children with and without disabilities is paramount to the success of inclusive education. One hundred and twenty-seven (96.2%) teachers emphatically agreed with the position that inclusive education promotes friendship formation among children with and without disabilities. The mean score was 3.5, which is the highest teacher performance. This assertion means teachers recognize friendship formation among children in inclusive settings. It further consolidates Hendrickson et al. (1996) assertion that students with severe disabilities developed social networks, positive interpersonal relationships and friendships with students without disabilities. In relation to this claim, Petlier (1997) submits that non-disabled students can form true affectionate friendships with their special needs classmates.

Pertaining to the statement "inclusive improves social skills of children with disabilities", teachers acclaimed as follows. One hundred and twenty-one (91.2%) teachers concurred to this statement whilst only 11(8.3%) disagreed. Generally, improvement in social skills for children with disabilities is always evident in regular schools though the acquisition of academics becomes a failure for some children with disabilities. These social skills make disabled children better members of the school, home and community.

It is also evident from Table 9 that teachers were a bit divided on the statement "Including children with disabilities lowers general academic

performance''. While 70(53.0%) teachers agreed, 62(47.0%) disagreed. The teachers who opine that inclusion does lower general academic performance would exhibit unfavourable attitudes toward children with disabilities. This preposition concurs with McLesky and Waldron (2002) assertion that the worry of some general education was that the overall academic performance of the class would go down. However, D'Alonzo, Giordano and Vanleeuwen (1997) claim that inclusion of students with disabilities is not associated with decline in academic or behavioural performance of students without disabilities on standardized tests or report cards. As such, the teachers who disagreed with the above statement would express positive attitudes about the academic gains of children with special needs in regular schools.

Naturally, feeling positive about something engenders increased motivation within an individual. However, 86(65.2%) regular teachers felt unprepared to work in inclusive setting. The mean score of 2.2 portrays that teachers were in disagreement with the statement "teachers feel prepared to work in inclusive e setting". This supports the evidence adduced by Hardman, Drew and Egan (2002) that attitude barriers exist among general education teachers because they feel unprepared to work in an inclusive setting. This disposition may transform into a half-spirited and hotch-potch approach to the inclusion of children with disabilities in general education classrooms. On the converse, Bender, Vail and Scott (1995) confirm that teachers who feel prepared adopt effective teaching strategies to promote inclusion.

Teachers' feeling of unpreparedness to work in inclusive setting is due to the lack of necessary knowledge, skills and experience for inclusion. From Table 9, 87(65.9%) teachers said they lack the necessary knowledge, skills and

experience for inclusion. However, 34.1% of teachers possess some necessary knowledge, skills and experience for inclusion. This revelation concurs with the submission of McLesky and Waldron (2002); D'Alonzo, Giordano & Vanleeuwen (1997) and Shade and Stewart (2001) that general education teachers fear they don't have the necessary knowledge or abilities to adequately teach students with special needs. Since more than half of the teachers in the study are 3-year Post Sec Cert A holders, they might not be qualified to cope with the inclusion process. The then Teacher Training College curriculum did not cater for enough courses in special education and disabilities and inclusive practices as opposed to the new curriculum which makes some provision for special education.

However, teachers believe inclusive education can work better with help and support from special teachers. A large proportion of teachers, 125(93.9%) in the present study admitted that inclusive education can work better with help and support from special teachers but only 7(6.1%) disagreed. It is worth noting that help and support from special teachers is relevant to the practice of inclusive education. In the absence of support and partnership between special and regular education teachers, there is a strong probability that regular teachers will view the inclusion movement, as cosmetic without adequate time and resources. Most teachers are unqualified to cope with the inclusion process because they did not undertake courses in special education during their training process (Salazar & Flores, 2003). Hence, regular school teachers require this help and support to provide educational modifications and work successfully with included students who have disabilities. Without the

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necessary supports and help, for regular school teachers in educating children with disabilities "dumping" results (Shapiro, 1999).

In addition, most teachers were convinced that inclusive education increases the workload of teachers in regular schools. As shown in Table 9, 106(80.3%) teachers were supportive of the assertion "inclusive education increases the workload of teachers in regular schools" while only 26 (19.7%) refuted it. This complements Heflin and Bullock (1999) finding that inclusion creates more work for teachers. For example, the range of abilities is just too great for one teacher to adequately teach (Tompkins & Deloney, 1995). Thus, too much seems to be demanded from the already overloaded teachers. This inclination can translate into negative attitudes toward inclusion particularly when teachers already feel overwhelmed with their regular classroom workload. The teacher workload can precipitate negative consequences for students with and without disabilities.

However, teachers view pre-service training in inclusive education as very relevant. Pre-service training in inclusive education predisposes teachers to underlying principles, concepts and relevant knowledge about its practice and implementation. In the study, 119 (90.2%) teachers affirmed that pre-service training in inclusive education is relevant. The mean score of 3.3 depicts a general agreement with the relevance and need for teacher training in inclusive education. It is also suggestive that pre-service training in inclusive education would equip teachers with the requisite knowledge, skills and competencies to counter the feeling of unpreparedness for work in inclusive setting.

Also, 121(91.7%) teachers claimed that regular teachers develop professional competence through inclusion. Through inclusion, the regular teacher is presented with the necessary challenge to grow professionally in the regular school. Teaching students with and without disabilities increases the knowledge base and orientation of teachers. Inclusive education presents teachers the opportunity to develop professional competence as they acquire new knowledge and pedagogical gymnastics relevant for regular and special education through inclusion. Thus, teachers become stronger, more prepared and better equipped to function effectively within the instructional environment they identify themselves with.

However, disruptive behaviours of children with disabilities affect inclusive education. Usually, these behaviours are problematic and potential source of teacher stress. As such teachers would have reservations about children with disabilities in regular schools because their presence would make the whole group suffer. In line with this, Winzer (2000) concluded that behavioural problems (especially from children with disabilities) are the most frequently mentioned dilemma of teachers than from the non-disabled. As a result, 91(68.9%) teachers agreed with the statement "disruptive behaviours of children with disabilities affect inclusive education" but 41(31.1%) disagreed.

Though, regular teachers feel unprepared for inclusion due to inadequate necessary knowledge, skills and experience, they generally support the inclusion of children with disabilities especially the mild-moderate. Notably, 86(65.2%) teachers concurred with the affirmation but 46 (34.8%) opposed. The conclusion presupposes that adequate teacher preparation would

boost teachers' confidence about their teaching ability and is more likely to make teachers hold positive attitudes toward inclusive education.

Owing to teachers' perceived support for inclusion, they were quick to refute the statement "inclusive education is a forced policy for regular teachers". Most teachers do not recognize the inclusion of children with disabilities as a 'forced' policy lorded on them. Regular school teachers really practise inclusion since they structure learning experiences and activities for the benefit and success of all children with and without disabilities. Orientations of inclusive practices such as remedial teaching, co-operative learning and a sense of community characterize some regular schools in Cape Coast. Hence, 74(56.1%) teachers debunked the statement "Inclusive education is a forced policy for regular school teachers". This orientation is positive and relevant for a nation-wide movement towards inclusive education.

Teachers underscored that instructional time is lost when children with disabilities are included in regular schools. This claim is supported with a percentage agreement of 53.0. Teachers believe the presence of children with disabilities consumes most of the instructional time at the detriment of non-disabled children. The current crave for academic excellence for all children irrespective of individual differences underpins the conclusion "instructional time is lost when children with disabilities". Most stakeholders downplay even the acquisition of appropriate social skills by such children, which is crucial to their survival in the community after schooling. Usually, behaviour and mentally retarded children tend to attract much of teachers' attention and time in regular schools because they are difficult to control and need enough time

to learn various tasks. These children are tagged as problematic and potential source of teacher stress and disenchantment.

However, the presence of children with disabilities in regular school does not solely account for lost of instructional time in the regular school. Teacher lateness and absenteeism and lactating mothers are some contributory factors. To this end, Staub and Peck (1994) declare that instructional time lost to interruptions was similar for both inclusive and non inclusive classrooms. Further, including students with severe disabilities did not decrease teacher attention for non disabled peers (Avramidis & Norwich, 2003).

Though, the teachers claimed instructional time is lost through inclusion, they unequivocally opposed the statement "Inclusive education is a waste of time and resources". A greater number of teachers, 105(79.5%) said that inclusive education is not a waste of time and resources. The mean score of 1.9 confirms a general disagreement with the statement. Inclusive education presents multiple benefits to all children with and without disabilities, teachers, the whole school and community. For teachers, inclusion affords them the opportunity to expand their horizon of professional competence. In support, Austin (1992) remarks that comprehensive inclusion presents the best alternative to segregated special education. Similarly, the UNESCO Salamanca Statement (1994) maintains that regular schools with inclusive orientation improve the efficiency and ultimately the cost-effectiveness of the entire education system. Though, some children with disabilities do not benefit much academically, acquisition of appropriate social skills is just enough to debunk the assertion that "inclusive education as a waste of time and

resources". Hence, teachers posited that inclusive education cannot be branded as wasteful in terms of time and resources.

Although teachers support inclusion, preference for reasonable proportions of children with disabilities in regular schools seems laudable due to problem of class management and instruction. With a higher percentage agreement of 82.6 and a mean of 3.3, teachers stated that large classes should be reduced when including children with disabilities as evident in Table 9. This finding commensurate with Vaughn, Schumn, Jallard, Slusher and Saumell, (1996) proposition that teachers raise objections to inclusion due to the large number of students in the class. Invariably, large classes superimpose extra responsibilities on teachers who complain about regular school workload. Large classes increase responsibilities, stress levels and job dissatisfaction among regular teachers. Teachers are overstretched providing individualized assistance, attention or special instruction programmes. As such it seem prudent to reduce class size when teaching children with disabilities in regular schools if their needs are to be met. In this realm, Scruggs and Mastropieri (1996) ascertain that general education teachers felt that a class size should be less than twenty when students with disabilities are included in regular schools. This group consists of those with profound visual and hearing impairment and moderate intellectual disability (Ward et al, 1994).

Synopsis of Teacher Attitude Towards Inclusive Education

A summary of teacher responses collapsed under "positive" or "favourable" attitude towards inclusive education and "negative" or unfavourable" attitude towards inclusive education is presented in Table 10.

Table 10

General teacher attitude towards inclusive education

Attitude towards inclusive Education	Frequency	Percent
Positive/Favourable	118	89.4
Negative/Unfavourable	14	10.6
Total	132	100.0

As illustrated in Table 10, out of the 132 teachers, 118 (89.4%) have positive or favourable attitude towards inclusive education. On the contrary, only a small percent of teachers (10.6%) have negative or unfavourable attitude towards inclusive education. This implies that generally, regular school teachers in the Cape Coast Municipality have positive or favourable attitude towards inclusive education. Teachers' positive attitude would be a prelude for effective practice of inclusion. However, regular in-service training on inclusive practices for regular school teachers is inevitable.

Research Question 3

What factors are responsible for teacher differing attitude towards inclusive education in the Cape Coast Municipality of Ghana?

Research question 3 surveyed some of the factors responsible for teacher differing attitude towards inclusive education .This was to determine their aggregate effect on the practice of inclusive education in the selected regular schools.

For effective analysis and comprehension, responses to "Very Great" and "Great" statements as well as "Little" and "Very Little" were dichotomized into "Great" and "Little" respectively. Table 11 portrays some

of the factors responsible for teacher differing attitude towards inclusive education.

Table 11

Results of teacher responses on factors responsible for their differing attitude towards inclusive education

Item	Great (%)	Little (%)	Mean
1. Teacher understanding of inclusive education.	85 (64.4)	47 (35.6)	2.9
2. Type of disability and associated educational problems.	91 (69.0)	41 (31.0)	2.8
3. Gender of teachers.	62 (47.0)	70 (53.0)	2.4
4. Teachers teaching experience	83 (62.9)	49 (37.1)	2.7
5. Class taught by teachers	87 (65.9)	45 (34.1)	2.7
6. Contact and interaction with children with disabilities.	77 (58.3)	55 (41.7)	2.7
7. Training and education in special education and disabilities.	99 (75.0)	33 (25.0)	3.0
8. Teacher beliefs, for example, disabled children do not benefit from inclusion.	65 (49.3)	67 (50.7)	2.5
9. Ethnic background of children with disabilities.	67 (50.7)	65 (49.3)	2.4
10. Availability of support services such as teaching, learning materials and special teachers.	92 (69.7)	40 (30.2)	2.9

Table 11 captures the factors attributed to teacher differing attitude towards inclusive education. Notably, 85(64.4%) teachers responded "Very Great" that the understanding of inclusive education was a factor responsible for their differing attitude. Yet, 47(35.6%) teachers answered "Little". The mean score was 2.9. An understanding of inclusive education is crucial to its implementation, practice and success in any country. Hence, teachers were right in their affirmation that "an understanding of inclusive education" was responsible for their differing attitude. As practitioners, teachers must possess a clear and better understanding of inclusive education so as to appreciate the underlying philosophy and practice. Inclusive education is about comprehensive education (Thomas & Loxely, 2001). Hence, regular teachers need a clear understanding of inclusion as both social and human rights issues. This would extinguish any negative reservations about the presence of children with disabilities in regular schools. With this clear understanding of inclusive education, teachers would not recognize disabled children as "visitors" but rather integral and active participants of the regular school community.

As to whether the type of disability and associated educational problems was also responsible for teacher differing attitude, 91(69.0%) teachers said "Very Great". This is confirmed with a mean score of 2.8 and corroborates with the conviction of Avramidis and Norwich (2002) that the nature of disabilities and/or educational problems presented have been found to influence teachers' attitudes. Usually, teacher attitude varies greatly according to the type of disability, prevalence and educational needs of students in regular schools. Most regular school teachers are willing to

include students with mild-moderate disabilities, but unanimously reject the inclusion of children with severe profound disabilities (Ward, Center & Bochner, 1994). Thus, teacher express positive attitude towards mild-moderate disabled children but negative attitude towards the severe- profound (Forlin, 1995). Teacher positive attitude could be attributed to the success potentials of children with mild-moderate disabilities and the relatively low problems associated with their education in the mainstream.

While a substantial number of teachers, 70(53.0%) said gender was a least factor responsible for teacher differing attitude towards inclusive education, 62(47.0%) answered "Great". The difference between the teacher percent agreement and disagreement is slight. Gender per se is not specifically related to teacher attitude towards inclusive education. Attitude towards inclusion is not gender-specific. That is, male and female teachers are not noted for particular attitudes. In support, Leyser et al. (1994) report that teacher gender was unrelated to attitude towards inclusion. It is difficult to align teacher gender with specific attitude towards inclusion. However, some researchers found female teachers tolerable for including children with disabilities than their male counterparts. This contradicts Avramidis and Norwich (2002) view that there was a marginal tendency for female teachers to express positive attitudes towards the idea of including children with behavioural problems than their male counterparts. It can be concluded that teachers express similar attitude towards inclusion.

Another factor that contributed to teacher differing attitude towards inclusion is teaching experience. Significantly, 83(62.9%) teachers remarked that teaching experience influenced their attitude towards inclusive education

greatly. The mean score was 2.7. In general, teachers who have taught for many years are expected to express positive attitude towards inclusion because they might have experienced and encountered children with disabilities in regular schools. These teachers should portray a high sense of acceptance for the education of children with disabilities. However, this claim counters Clough and Lindsay (1991) position that younger teachers and those with fewer experiences are more supportive of inclusion. Teachers with 14 years or less teaching experience had a significantly higher positive score in their attitude. In this vein, newly trained teachers in regular schools in the Cape Coast Municipality must possess favourable attitude towards inclusion and must demonstrate a high acceptance level for children with disabilities. Though, the above claim depicts that teachers with fewer teaching experience are supportive of inclusion, other research report that teaching experience was not significantly related to teacher attitude (Avramidis et al., 2000).

Closely related to teaching experience is the class taught by teachers. More than half of the teachers answered "Great" to the statement "the class taught influence their attitude towards inclusive education". Precisely, there was a 65.9% agreement as opposed to 34.1% disagreement. Teachers consider the class taught vital as far as attitude towards inclusive education is concerned. It was observed that, at the lower levels of education, (for example, primary school) teachers encounter problems educating children with disabilities because such children lack the requisite social skills for effective functioning in the mainstream. Teachers claim children with SEN pose problems. Definitely, teachers would develop unfavourable attitude towards children with SEN and inclusion. However, as children with SEN progress

higher on the educational ladder (for example, Junior Secondary School), they develop appropriate social skills and pose little problems. Further, most do not reach this stage in their education. Hence, teachers express favourable attitude towards the education of children with SEN and inclusive education.

Again, teachers perceive contact and interaction with SEN children as an influential variable in shaping attitude towards inclusive education. Seventy-seven (58.3%) teachers pointed out that contact and interaction with children with disabilities affect their attitude "Great" while 41.7 said "Little". The researcher observed that teachers with ample contact and interaction children with SEN because they teach at the lower classes have little reservations for inclusion. Such teachers claim personal credits for their efforts to making some children with SEN succeed in the regular school. Contact and interaction with children with SEN is necessary to off set teacher misconceptions, apprehension and negative perceptions about these groups of individuals.

Training and education in special education and disabilities is relevant to improving teacher attitude towards the inclusion movement. Many, 99(75.0%) teachers said that training and education in special education and disabilities impact greatly on their attitudes. The mean score of 3.0 places teachers' response into the great category. There is an enlargement in teacher knowledge horizon through appropriate training and education in special education and disabilities. This prepares them for the practise and implementation of inclusive education. In this direction, Avramidis and Norwich (2002) acclaim strongly that without a coherent plan for teacher training in educational needs of children with special education needs, the inclusion of these children would be difficult. Importantly, special education

qualification acquired through pre and in-service training improves teacher knowledge which serves as a catalyst for positive attitude development.

Teachers' beliefs influence not only their attitudes but also actual teaching styles and adaptations in heterogeneous classrooms (Avramidis and Norwich, 2002). However, from Table 11, an approximately equal proportion of teachers either agreed or disagreed with the statement "teacher beliefs, for example disabled children do not benefit from inclusion" influence their attitude towards inclusive education. While 67 (50.7%) teachers said "Little", 65 (49.3%) maintained "Great". It is unclear whether teacher beliefs actually determine attitude towards inclusive education. Invariably, teachers who hold positive beliefs about children with SEN are likely to express positive attitude towards their inclusion and vice versa. This would reflect in teacher acceptance of children with SEN and the need to design appropriate experience for their success in the regular school.

Another factor responsible for teacher differing attitude towards inclusive education is the ethnic background of children with disabilities. It came to light however, that no significant difference was observed in the percentage agreement or disagreement of teacher responses. Sixty-seven (50.7%) teachers responded "Great" to the statement, 65 (49.3%) "Little". The mean score of 2.4 is a manifestation that most teachers believe "ethnic background of children with disabilities" is not a definite influence on teacher attitude towards inclusion. Ethnic background of children as an influencing factor was apparent from the observation conducted for some teachers. For example, some teachers would not include children with disabilities especially from 'rural areas' where traditional beliefs are predominant and attribute cause of disabilities.

The availability of support services such as teaching materials and special teachers was identified as responsible for teacher attitudes. Majority of the teachers, 92 (69.1%) affirmed that the availability of support services affected their attitude towards inclusion greatly. Reinforcing this assertion, Clough and Lindsay (1991) state that a major and consistent factor associated with positive attitudes is the availability of support services at the classrooms and school levels. Support received from special educators is relevant in disposing regular teachers' apprehension with respect to workload dilemmas and instructional adaptations. This is complemented in the face of adequate and appropriate equipment and materials for educating children with SEN in the regular school.

Summary of Factors Responsible for Teacher Differing Attitude Towards Inclusive Education

Table 12 presents a summary of the factors responsible for teacher differing attitude towards inclusive education classified into "great extent" and "little extent".

Table 12

Extent factors are responsible for teacher differing attitude towards inclusive education

Extent factors are responsible for Teacher differing attitude towards inclusion.	Frequency	Percent
Great extent	82	62.1
Little extent	50	37.9
Total	132	100.0

As portrayed in Table 12, 82(62.1%) teachers maintained that to a great extent the factors are responsible for their differing attitude towards inclusive education while, 37.9 percent said to a little extent. This implies that in general, regular school teachers perceive the factors as greatly responsible for their differing attitude towards inclusive education. Hence, it is incumbent on the educational authorities to make the necessary provisions to limit the impact of these factors in order to promote inclusive education in the municipality.

Research Question 4

What steps can be employed to improve and promote the practice of inclusive education in the Cape Coast Municipality of Ghana?

Table 13 features teachers' position on effective ways for improving and promoting the practice of inclusive education in the Cape Coast Municipality of Ghana as far as educational provisions for children with disabilities are concerned.

Table 13 demonstrates that teacher responses on the steps to improve and promote inclusion are diversified. Training and education in special education and disabilities is regarded as a paramount step towards improving and promoting effective inclusive education.

Table 13

Multiple teacher responses on steps to improve and promote inclusive education

Item	Very Great (%)	Great (%)	Little (%)	Very Little (%)	Mean
1. Training and education in special education and disabilities.	78 (59.1)	46 (34.8)	7 (5.3)	1 (0.8)	3.5
2. Training in instructional adaptations and class management.	48 (36.4)	79 (59.8)	4 (3.0)	1 (0.8)	3.2
3. Collaboration between regular and special education teachers.	49 (37.1)	78 (59.1)	5 (3.8)	-	3.3
4. Effective parental involvement.	61 (46.1)	60 (45.5)	8 (6.1)	3 (2.3)	3.4
5. Support services from professionals such as counsellors and speech therapists.	56 (42.4)	59 (44.7)	13 (9.8)	4 (3.0)	3.3
6. Administrative support such as in-service training.	60 (36.4)	67 (50.8)	13 (9.8)	-	3.4
7. Provision of resource room services.	48 (36.4)	67 (50.8)	13 (9.8)	4 (3.0)	3.2
8. Effective interaction between teachers, children with and without disabilities.	45 (34.1)	64 (48.5)	22 (16.7)	1 (0.8)	3.2
9. Increased friendship formation for children with disabilities.	66 (50.0)	62 (47.0)	4 (3.0)	-	3.5
10. Peer tutoring for children with disabilities.	49 (37.1)	61 (46.2)	20 (15.2)	2 (1.5)	3.2

From Table 13, 78(59.1%) teachers said that "training and education in special education and disabilities" would improve and promote inclusive education "Very Great" while 48(34.8%) responded "Great". Only 7(5.3%) and 1(0.8%) teachers answered "Little" and "Very Little" respectively to the statement. The mean score of 3.5 indicates that regular teachers believe effective training and education in special education and disabilities would improve and promote inclusive education greatly. Training and education in special education and disabilities predisposes teachers to opportunities for developing adequate knowledge, abilities and skills for appropriate inclusive practice. It is critical for successful implementation of inclusion programmes (McLesky, Henry & Axelrod, 1999). Effective training and education for regular teachers counters negative feelings of insecurity and inadequacies and also crucial for the development of positive teacher attitude towards the concept of inclusion.

When teachers were asked the extent specific training in instructional adaptations and class management would improve and promote inclusive education, 79(59.8%) and 48(36.4%) teachers responded "Great" and "Very Great" respectively. The mean score of 3.2 puts teachers' response into the Great category. Appropriate instructional adaptations and class management practices are essential for included children with SEN to succeed. Supporting, Simpson, Myles and Simpson (1997) state that teachers need to be knowledgeable about structuring methods which can better meet the needs of students with disabilities. Teacher knowledge in class management practices is necessary to discharge the problems of disruptive and destructive behaviours of children with disabilities.

Collaboration between regular and special education teachers is also identified as an ingredient for effective inclusive education. A significant number of teachers, 78(59.1%) remarked that there would be a "Great" improvement in the practice of inclusive education through collaboration between regular and special education teachers while 49(37.1%) said there would be a "Very Great" improvement. Only 5(3.8%) teachers said there would be "Little" improvement in the practice of inclusive education. It is evident that a higher percentage of teachers (96.3%) see collaboration between regular and special teachers as basic and worthwhile for the success of inclusion, as there is flow of ideas, skills and experiences. Voltz, Brazil & Ford (2001) validates this observation and say the entire staff should collaborate and work together to meet the needs of students not leaving special educators alone in the move toward more inclusive classes.

Parents of children with and without disabilities are deemed partners to successful and effective inclusive education. Majority of the teachers (91.5%) maintained that effective parental involvement would improve and promote inclusive education "Very Great" or "Great". In consonance with teachers' observation, Lewis and Doorlag (1995) state that inclusive programmes are more effective for students when parents are active members of the inclusion team. Parents can collaborate with teachers and community members to create supportive inclusion programmes by providing insight about their children's capacities and needs. Further, parents can interact, share and communicate regularly with teachers on best practices for their children's education in the mainstream. Thus, parental involvement offers a panoramic view of the educational problems and required support services for inclusion.

Support services are crucial to improving and promoting the practice of inclusion. While 59(44.9%) and 56(42.4%) teachers respectively attested there would be "Great" and "Very Great" improvement in the practice of inclusive education through support services from professionals such as counselors and speech therapists, 17(11.8%) teachers responded "Little" or "Very Little" to the statement. The mean score of 3.3 leaves teachers' response in the "Great" category. This means regular teachers acknowledge that support services from professionals would greatly complement their efforts at improving and promoting effective inclusive practice. Support services from relevant authorities are instrumental in allaying regular teachers' apprehension and inadequacies because they act as a safe haven of help for teachers in time of crisis. The provision of support services can precipitate the development of positive teacher attitudes.

Supportive administration is considered the first level for teachers to feel good and positive about changes towards inclusion. From Table 13, a significant majority of teachers concluded that "administrative support such as in-service training" would improve and promote inclusive education. That is, 127(96.3%) teachers responded either "Great" or "Very Great" to the statement whilst only 5(3.8%) said "Little". The mean score of 3.4 means teachers presume administrative support would improve inclusive practice greatly. Teachers develop positive attitudes when they feel prepared and supported by their peers and school administration. Teachers admit administrative support can ease pressure and overwhelming feelings of pressure.

The provision of resource room services was recognized as an important step to improving and promoting inclusive education. Out of 132 teachers, 67(50.8%) responded that the provision of resource room services would improve inclusive education "Great" while 48(36.4%) answered "Very Great". Only 5(3.8%) said "Little". Teachers recognize resource room services as supplement educational services that afford children with disabilities greater chances of success in the mainstream. These services complement regular teachers' instructional activities and programmes for children with disabilities as they are often tailored to meet specific needs and are usually on a one-to-one basis.

Interaction between teachers, children with and without disabilities is a necessary ingredient for promoting inclusive education. Table 13 shows that 64(48.5%) and 45(34.1%) teachers recognized that effective interaction between teachers and children with and without disabilities would improve and promote inclusive education "Great" and "Very Great" respectively. The mean score (3.2) suggests a "Great" response and validates the contention of Voltz, Brazil and Ford (2001) that for inclusion to be really successful students with disabilities must also get a good amount of quality interaction with teachers and students without disabilities. Teachers believe that effective interaction with children without disabilities would expunge the feelings of isolation, neglect and rejection in the regular schools.

A significant number of teachers, 128(97.0%), responded that increased friendship formation for children with disabilities would improve and promote the practice of inclusion greatly. The mean score of 3.5 vindicates teachers' response. This finding supports the conviction of The

National Association for the Education of Young Children (1997) that for successful inclusive education, children in inclusive classrooms must create warm and caring friendships. Thus, a capacity for the development of genuine interpersonal relationships and friendship between children with disabilities and their non-disabled counterparts must exist. Peer friendship formation with children with disabilities is a foundation to the acquisition of appropriate and relevant social skills for success in the mainstream. It is therefore suggestive for regular school teachers to structure activities such as co-operative learning, working in groups and same recreational opportunities for all children in the regular school.

Peer tutoring for children with disabilities is key to inclusive education. Sixty-one (46.2%) teachers answered "Great" as the extent peer tutoring would improve the practice of inclusive education while 49(37.1%) "Very Great" as indicated in Table 13. Obviously, the mean score (3.2) signifies that peer tutoring for children with disabilities would promote inclusive education greatly. According to Langone (1990) peer tutoring remains an important teaching strategy that can be employed to improve academic skills, foster self-esteem, develop appropriate behaviour and promote positive relationship and co-operation among peers. Most teachers see peer tutoring as a means of complementing their efforts and an ingredient for children with disabilities to succeed in the mainstream as it breeds multiple effects such as increased interaction and friendship formation among others.

Summary of the Extent the Steps Would Improve and Promote Inclusive Education

A synopsis of the extent the implementation of the steps would improve and promote inclusive education is dichotomized into "great extent" and "little extent". Table 14 indicates the results.

Table 14

Extent steps would improve and promote inclusive education

Improvement of Inclusive Education	Frequency	Percent
Great extent	129	97.7
Little extent	3	2.3
Total	132	100.0

Table 14 reveals that 129 (93.9%) out of the total number of 132 teachers maintained that the implementation of the steps would improve and promote inclusive education to a great extent while a far lesser percent (2.3) stated a little extent. The implication is that on the whole, regular school teachers believe the implementation of the steps would improve and promote inclusive education greatly. Since, a higher percent of regular school teachers believe the implementation of the steps would improve and promote inclusive education to a great extent, conscious and systemic efforts should be geared towards this direction.

Testing of Hypotheses

Four(4) hypotheses were designed for testing.

Hypothesis One

1. Ho: There is no significant difference between male and female teachers attitude towards inclusive education.

Hypothesis 1 was designed to ascertain whether teacher attitude towards inclusive education could be attributed to gender differences. The independent sample t-test was used in testing this hypothesis at alpha (α)-value of 0.05. Table 15 illustrates the results.

Table 15

Results of t-Test on gender and attitude towards inclusive education

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Inter of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Attitude towards inclusive education	Equal variances assumed.	2.421	.122	0.57	130	.548	-.0276	0.4580	.06325	-.11819
	Equal variances not assumed.			0.57	123.262	.551	-.0276	.4610	.06325	-.11883

N=132; t-test value = .551; df= 130; $\alpha < 0.05$

From Table 15, the sig. value of .551 is greater than the α-value. The hypothesis could not be rejected. The conclusion that can be drawn is that the difference between the attitude of male and female regular school teachers towards inclusive education is not statistically significant. Teacher attitude towards inclusive education is not significantly affected by gender differences because male and female teachers possess similar conceptual knowledge of inclusion, special education and disabilities. Again, teacher beliefs about children with disabilities approximate. Hence, regular school teachers in the Cape Coast Municipality do not differ in gender with respect to attitude towards inclusive education.

Hypothesis Two

2. Ho: There is no significant difference between teachers' school location and attitude towards inclusive education.

Hypothesis 2 was formulated to determine whether teacher attitude towards inclusive education could be related to school location. That is, either urban or rural. The hypothesis was tested at an α-value of 0.05. Table 16 portrays the outcome of the findings.

Table 16

Results of t-Test on school location and attitude towards inclusive education

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Attitude towards inclusive education	Equal variances assumed.	1.096	.297	0.57	130	.955	.0026	.04582	-08805	.09326
	Equal variances not assumed.			0.57	123.847	.955	.0026	.04596	.08836	.09357

N= 132: t-test value = .955; df= 130; $\alpha < 0.05$

Table 16 indicates that the sig. value is 0.955, which is greater than 0.05. Hence, the researcher failed to reject the hypothesis. The results demonstrate that there is no significant difference between urban and rural regular school teachers attitude towards inclusive education. Teacher school location may not be greatly related to attitudes rather teacher understanding of children with disabilities and inclusive practice. Again, teachers' residences are not far apart and their general instructional orientations are similar. As a result, urban and rural regular school teachers in the Cape Coast Municipality do not vary their attitude towards inclusive education.

Hypothesis Three

3. Ho: There is no significant difference between teachers' teaching experience and attitude towards inclusive education.

Hypothesis 3 examined whether teacher attitude towards inclusive education could be linked to teaching experience. It was tested at alpha = 0.05. Table 17 reveals the results of the ANOVA.

Table 17

Results of ANOVA on teaching experience and attitude towards inclusive education

Source of variation	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	.146	5	.029	.415	.838
Within Groups	8.861	126	.070		
Total	9.007	131			

N= 132; sig- value = .838; df= 131; $\alpha < 0.05$

As shown in Table 17, the sig. value is 0.838. The null hypothesis of the equality of the means cannot be rejected. Hence, no group of regular

school teachers varies in their teaching experience and attitude toward inclusive education. Most teachers in the municipality have been exposed to some basic knowledge of special education and disabilities and inclusive practices through in-service training courses at school and especially at the University of Cape Coast. As a result, teachers who have taught for many years (6 years and above) or with less teaching experience (less than 6 years) express non differing attitudes. Hence, it can be confirmed that regular school teachers in the Cape Coast Municipality do not differ in their attitude towards inclusive education with regard to teaching experience.

Hypothesis Four

4. Ho: There is no significant difference between teachers' professional qualification and attitude towards inclusive education.

Hypothesis 4 was posed to find out whether teacher attitude towards inclusive education could be linked to professional qualification. The hypothesis was tested at alpha-value of 0.05. The ANOVA results are captured in Table 18.

Table 18

Results of ANOVA on teachers' professional qualification and attitude towards inclusive education

Source of variation	Sum Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	.361	5	.072	1.052	.390
Within Groups	8.646	126	.069		
Total	9.007	131			

N= 132; sig- value = .390; df= 131; $\alpha < 0.05$

Table 18 reveals a sig. value of .390. Hence, the null hypothesis of the equality of the means cannot be rejected. Thus, attitude towards inclusive education is not linked with teachers' professional qualification. Teachers' conceptual knowledge of inclusive practices coupled with effective interaction and contact with children with disabilities account for the non differing attitudes. However, teachers with specialized qualification in special education and inclusion may differ from their counterparts with low qualification. It can be concluded that regular school teachers in the Cape Coast Municipality do not differ in their attitude towards inclusive education with respect to their professional qualification.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter captures the summary, conclusions and recommendations for the study.

Summary of Research Procedures

The main purpose of the study was to unveil regular school teachers' attitude towards inclusive education and identify effective ways for improving and promoting its practice as far as educational provisions for children with disabilities are concerned in the Cape Coast Municipality and Ghana at large.

The descriptive survey design was adopted. Both the purposive and simple random sampling procedures were used to select 132 regular school teachers from six circuits of the Cape Coast Municipality. Gender and school location were taken into cognizance for the selection of teachers.

A Likert-scale structured questionnaire as well as unstructured personal observation was employed for the data collection. The internal consistency reliability coefficient of the teacher attitude instrument was 0.80.

Four research questions guided the study. These were analyzed using frequencies, percentages and means where necessary. Four hypotheses were also tested.

Hypotheses 1 and 2 were tested with the independent sample t-test at $\alpha < 0.05$ whilst the One-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was employed to test hypotheses 3 and 4 at $\alpha < 0.05$.

Main Findings

The major findings of the research questions are as follows:

1. The study demonstrated that 84.1% of regular school teachers in the Cape Coast Municipality possess high conceptualization/ understanding of inclusive education.
2. The findings revealed that 89.4% of teachers hold positive/ favourable attitude whilst (10.6%) teachers possess negative/ unfavourable attitude towards inclusive education. Regardless of this, certain factors tend to negate teachers' efforts to promoting effective inclusive practice for the benefits of all children especially the disabled.
3. Teacher knowledge of special education and disabilities was quite high
4. Training and education in special education and disabilities was found as the major factor responsible for teacher differing attitude towards inclusive education in regular schools in the Cape Coast Municipality.
5. A significant percent (97.7) of teachers believe that training and education in special education and disabilities, collaboration between regular and special education teachers, effective parental involvement, support services from professionals such as counsellors and speech therapists, administrative support such as in-service training, increased friendship formation for children with disabilities would improve and promote inclusive education greatly in the Cape Coast Municipality

The findings from the four hypotheses are as follows:

1. The result of the first hypothesis established that there was no statistically significant difference between the attitude of male and female teachers regarding inclusive education. This means regular

school teachers are not different in gender in terms of inclusive education.

2. This hypothesis also uncovered that there was no significant difference between urban and rural regular school teachers attitude towards inclusive education. In other words, regular school teachers in the Cape Coast Municipality are not different in their attitude toward inclusive education.

3. It was revealed that no group of regular school teachers varies in attitude towards inclusive education. Hence, regular school teachers in the Cape Coast Municipality do not differ in their attitude towards inclusive education in terms of teaching experience.

4. The hypothesis revealed that attitude towards inclusive education is not linked with teachers' professional qualification. Thus, regular school teachers in the Cape Coast Municipality do not vary in their attitude towards inclusive education with respect to their professional qualification.

Conclusions

Based on the findings from the study, the following conclusions are drawn:

1. Regular school teachers in the Cape Coast Municipality of Ghana have a high level of conceptualization/understanding of inclusive education.

2. Regular school teachers in the Cape Coast Municipality of Ghana are knowledgeable about special education and disabilities.

3. Regular school teachers in the Cape Coast Municipality of Ghana have positive/favourable attitude towards inclusive education especially for children with mild-moderate disabilities.

4. Training and education in special education and disabilities was identified as the significant factor that influenced teacher attitude towards inclusive education.

5. The diverse suggestions made by teachers such as training and education in special education and disabilities ,collaboration between regular and special education teachers, and administrative support would improve and promote inclusive education in the Cape Coast Municipality greatly when timeously implemented.

6. There was no statistical significant difference between the attitude of male and female teachers towards inclusive education.

7. Urban and rural regular school teachers are not different in their attitude towards inclusive education in the Cape Coast Municipality.

8. No statistically significant difference was observed among teachers' teaching experience and attitude towards inclusive education.

9. There was no difference between teacher professional qualification and attitude towards inclusive education.

10. Regular school teachers possess a high knowledge of special education and disabilities and attitude towards inclusive education.

Recommendations

Based on the research findings and conclusion, the following recommendations have been made.

1. The Ministry of Education, Science and Sports, Ghana Education Service and the National Council for Teacher Education should modify the curriculum for Teacher Training Colleges by incorporating essential aspects of inclusive education, special education and disabilities to adequately prepare and equip teacher trainees with relevant knowledge, skills and competencies for the education of children with SEN in the regular school. Students offering education at various universities must take courses in inclusive and special education.
2. The Ghana Education Service should collaborate with experts of inclusive and special education at the University of Cape Coast and University of Education, Winneba for the organization of in-service training courses at least once a year to expand teachers' knowledge horizon on effective inclusive practices and management strategies for children with SEN in regular schools.
3. Systemic and intensive training courses in inclusive education and disabilities must be a pre-requisite for teacher certification and professional practice. Practising teachers at all levels of education must compulsorily take courses in inclusive education and special education.
4. Teachers should employ more collaborative pupil arrangements such as peer tutoring, co-operative group work, reinforcement and small group learning with emphasis on working together toward common goals for the success of children with SEN and inclusive education.
5. The school administration and municipal/district education directorate must collaborate with support personnel and specialists such as special

education consultants, speech and language therapists, psychologists, medical officers for the provision of the necessary push in services and supports for regular teachers and children with disabilities.

6. The government should formulate a definite, comprehensive and committed policy on inclusive education. This policy should indicate legal specifications as well as financial provisions for the effective practice of inclusive education.

7. There should be a consideration of the severity level of disability in regular schools if inclusion would be successful and effective. Teachers are more willing to include children with mild-moderate disabilities than children with severe-profound disabilities due to teachers' perceived ability to carry out their teaching mission. Hence, the severity level of disability must be fundamental to considerations of inclusion.

8. There is the need for regular school head teachers, teachers, parents and society in general to hold positive or favourable attitude towards the education of children with SEN in regular schools. A change in attitudes requires re-orientation and information on the fundamental principles of inclusive education and disabilities through workshops, fora, seminars, TV and radio programmes such as adult education, "Maa Nkomo" in the various Ghanaian languages. Disability and inclusive issues should be every one's business and concern.

9. Ultimately, the success of inclusive education depends well on the extensive supports present to teachers and children with disabilities. In this direction, central government, NGO'S, stakeholders in education

should help with the provision of the requisite human and material supports for the practice of inclusive education in the Cape Coast Municipality and Ghana at large. A holistic approach towards the provision of the necessary and relevant supports for inclusive education should be adopted in Ghana.

10. Lastly, it is recommended that all the means of improving and promoting inclusive education as suggested by teachers should be implemented. The Cape Coast Municipal Education Directorate in particular and all stakeholders in education should expedite the necessary action for the implementation of the outlined means of improving and promoting inclusive practice.

Areas for Further Research

The current research centred on regular school teacher attitude towards inclusive education in the Cape Coast Municipality of Ghana.

1. A replication of the study on teacher attitude towards inclusive education should be conducted nation-wide. Structured interview should accompany the research.
2. A comparative study of regular and special teachers' attitude towards inclusive education should be undertaken.
3. A study must be conducted to determine the relationship between teacher knowledge of special education and disabilities and attitude towards inclusive education.

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APPENDIX A

LETTER OF INTRODUCTION

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST
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DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL FOUNDATIONS

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THESIS
LETTER OF INTRODUCTION

Mr. / ~~Mrs./ Ms./ Rev~~ FRANCIS RAYMOND ACKAH JNR ..... is a student pursuing Post Graduate Diploma in Education / M.Ed / M.A / M.Phil programme in this Department. As part of his /her Degree requirement, he /she is working on a thesis entitled

"TEACHER ATTITUDE TOWARDS INCLUSIVE EDUCATION: SURVEY OF SELECTED REGULAR SCHOOLS IN THE CAPE COAST MUNICIPALITY"

He /She has opted to make a study at your Institution/ Establishment for the thesis. We would be most grateful if you could afford him /her the opportunity to make the study.

Any information provided will be treated as strictly confidential.

Thank you.

(PHANUEL P. NANI)
For: HEAD

APPENDIX B

Questionnaire for Teachers in Regular Schools

Purpose: This questionnaire seeks to determine teacher attitude towards inclusive education and find ways to improve and promote its practice as far as educational provisions for children with disabilities are concerned.

Section A: Demographic Data

Directions: Provide appropriate responses to each statement by ticking [√] where applicable.

1.	Gender	Male	[ ]
		Female	[ ]
2.	School Location	Urban	[ ]
		Rural	[ ]
3.	Teaching Experience	1-5 years	[ ]
		6-10years	[ ]
		11-15years	[ ]
		16-20 years	[ ]
		21-25 years	[ ]
		26 and above years	[ ]

4. Professional Qualification

[ ] Masters' degree in Education

[ ] Degree in Education

[ ] Diploma in Education

[ ] 3-Year Post Secondary Cert 'A

Others (specify) .....

Section B: Teacher Knowledge of Special Education and Disabilities:

State whether each of these statement is Very True (VT), True (T), False (F) or Very False (VF)

a. I teach children with different types of disabilities VT T F VF

b. Children with disabilities can learn VT T F VF

c. Disability is contagious VT T F VF

d. Special Education is for all children with and without disabilities VT T F VF

e. Special Education involves regular and special teachers VT T F VF

f. Special Education involves individualized instruction VT T F VF

g. Special Education treats individuals differently. VT T F VF

Section C: Conceptualization /Understanding of Inclusive Education

Direction: The following statements explain Inclusive Education. Tick the choice which fits your understanding of Inclusive Education. The response options are: **4= Strongly Agree (SA), 3= Agree(A), 2= Disagree(D)and 1= Strongly Disagree(SD).**

6. Inclusive education places children with disabilities in general education schools.

   SA [ ] A [ ] D [ ] SD [ ]

7. Students with disabilities learn in the same classrooms as their peers.

   SA [ ] A [ ] D [ ] SD [ ]

8. All children participate in classroom activities in general education environment.

   SA [ ] A [ ] D [ ] SD [ ]

9. Only children with mild to moderate disabilities are educated in inclusive settings.

   SA [ ] A [ ] D [ ] SD [ ]

10. Inclusive education is a right for all children.

SA [ ] A [ ] D [ ] SD [ ]

11. Inclusive education accepts children with different talents, gifts and weaknesses.

SA [ ] A [ ] D [ ] SD [ ]

12. Teachers, parents and society share responsibilities in inclusive education.

SA [ ] A [ ] D [ ] SD [ ]

13. Teachers set the same goals for all children in inclusive education.

SA [ ] A [ ] D [ ] SD [ ]

14. Inclusive education eliminates special services from specialists (speech therapists, counselors, psychologists).

SA [ ] A [ ] D [ ] SD [ ]

15. School curriculum and teaching strategies change in inclusion.

SA [ ] A [ ] D [ ] SD [ ]

Section D: Attitude Towards Inclusive Education

Direction: The following statements are some attitudes regular teachers express concerning Inclusive Education. Indicate the level of agreement or disagreement with each statement by circling an appropriate option. The response options are: **4= Strongly Agree, 3= Agree, 2= Disagree and 1= Strongly Disagree.**

16. Every child can learn in the regular classroom.

SA [ ] A [ ] D [ ] SD [ ]

17. Inclusive education is effective for children with mild and moderate disabilities.

SA [ ] A [ ] D [ ] SD [ ]

18. Inclusive education is effective for children with severe-profound disabilities.

SA [ ] A [ ] D [ ] SD [ ]

19. Inclusive education is beneficial for all children with and without disabilities.

SA [ ] A [ ] D [ ] SD [ ]

20. Inclusive education promotes social interaction among all children.

SA [ ] A [ ] D [ ] SD [ ]

21. Inclusive education promotes friendship formation among children with and without disabilities.

SA [ ] A [ ] D [ ] SD [ ]

22. Inclusive education improves social skills of children with disabilities.

SA [ ] A [ ] D [ ] SD [ ]

23. Including children with disabilities lowers general academic performance.

SA [ ] A [ ] D [ ] SD [ ]

24. Regular teachers feel prepared to work in inclusive setting.

SA [ ] A [ ] D [ ] SD [ ]

25. Regular teachers possess necessary knowledge, skills and experience for inclusion.

SA [ ] A [ ] D [ ] SD [ ]

26. Inclusive education can work better with help and support from special teachers.

SA [ ] A [ ] D [ ] SD [ ]

27. Inclusive education increases the workload of teachers in regular schools.

SA [ ] A [ ] D [ ] SD [ ]

28. Teacher pre-service training in inclusive education is relevant.

SA [ ] A [ ] D [ ] SD [ ]

29. Regular teachers develop professional competence through inclusion.

SA [ ] A [ ] D [ ] SD [ ]

30. Disruptive behaviours of children with disabilities affect inclusive education.

SA [ ] A [ ] D [ ] SD [ ]

31. Regular teachers support the inclusion of children with disabilities.

SA [ ] A [ ] D [ ] SD [ ]

32. Inclusive education is forced policy for regular teachers.

SA [ ] A [ ] D [ ] SD [ ]

33 Instructional time is lost when children with disabilities are included in regular schools.

SA [ ] A [ ] D [ ] SD [ ]

34. Inclusive education is a waste of time and resources.

SA [ ] A [ ] D [ ] SD [ ]

35. Large classes should be reduced when including children with disabilities.

SA [ ] A [ ] D [ ] SD [

Section E: Factors Responsible For Teacher Differing Attitude Towards Inclusive Education

Direction: The following statements are some factors responsible for teacher differing attitudes toward Inclusive Education. Indicate the level each statement influences your attitude.

The response options are: 4= Very Great, 3= Great, 2= Little and 1= Very Little.

36. Teacher understanding of inclusive education

4 3 2 1

37. Type of disability and associated educational problems.

4 3 2 1

38. Gender of teachers.

4 3 2 1

39. Teaching experience of teachers

4 3 2 1

40. Class taught by teachers

4 3 2 1

41. Contact and interaction with children with disabilities.

4 3 2 1

42. Training and education in special education and disabilities.

4 3 2 1

43. Teacher beliefs, for example, disabled children do not benefit from inclusion.

4 3 2 1

44. Ethnic background of children with disabilities.

4 3 2 1

45. Availability of support services such as teaching materials and special teachers.

4 3 2 1

Section F: Steps to Improve and Promote Inclusive Education

Direction: The following statements indicate some steps to improve and promote the practice of Inclusive Education. Indicate the extent each statement would help improve and promote the practice of Inclusive Education. The response options are: **4= Very Great, 3= Great, 2= Little and 1= Very Little.**

46. Training and education in special education and disabilities.

4 3 2 1

47. Training in instructional adaptations and class management

4 3 2 1

48. Collaboration between regular and special education teachers.

4 3 2 1

49. Effective parental involvement.

4 3 2 1

50. Support services from professionals such as counselors.

4 3 2 1

51. Administrative support such as in-service training

4 3 2 1

52. Provision of resource room services.

4 3 2 1

53. Effective interaction between teachers, children with and without disabilities.

4 3 2 1

54. Increased friendship formation for children with disabilities.

4 3 2 1

55. Peer tutoring for children with disabilities.

4 3 2 1

APPENDIX C

Reliability of Instrument

Method 1 (space saver) was used for this analysis.

Reliability Analysis – Scale (Alpha)

		Mean	Std. dev	Cases
1.	DDISABIL	3.0833	.8297	24.0
2.	DCANNOT	3.4583	.7211	24.0
3.	CONTIGIO	2.6250	1.0555	24.0
4.	SPEDONLY	2.4167	.9286	24.0
5.	RESPETRS	1.2500	.4423	24.0
6.	INSTRUCT	1.3750	.4945	24.0
7.	DIFFEREN	1.1667	.3807	24.0
8.	PLACESD	3.0417	.9546	24.0
9.	SAMECLAS	3.2083	.9315	24.0
10.	CLASSACT	3.2083	.9315	24.0
11.	MILDMOD	2.5833	1.0598	24.0
12.	RIGHTALL	3.5833	.6539	24.0
13.	ACCEPTS	3.6667	.5647	24.0
14.	TRSPASOC	3.4167	.7173	24.0
15.	SAMGOALS	3.0000	1.1034	24.0
16.	ELIMSPES	2.6250	.9696	24.0
17.	SCHORGAN	2.5833	1.0598	24.0
18.	ECHILDLE	2.7083	.8587	24.0
19.	EMILDMOD	3.0000	.8341	24.0
20.	ESPROFOU	2.0417	1.1602	24.0
21.	BENEFIC	3.3333	.6370	24.0
22.	SOCINTER	3.7083	.5500	24.0
23.	FRIENDSH	3.5417	.5882	24.0
24.	SOCSKILL	3.2500	.6757	24.0
25.	LOWACADE	2.4167	1.0180	24.0
26.	UNPREPAR	2.6250	.9237	24.0
27.	LACKKSEX	3.2083	.7211	24.0
28.	WORKBETT	3.6250	.4945	24.0
29.	WORKLOAD	3.6250	.4945	24.0
30.	PRESERVI	3.3333	.7614	24.0
31.	PROFCOMP	3.3333	.5647	24.0
32.	DISBEHAV	3.2083	.7790	24.0
33.	TSUPPORT	2.5417	.9315	24.0
34.	FORCEDP	2.8750	.8502	24.0
35.	TIMELOST	2.6250	.7697	24.0
36.	WASTETIM	1.9167	.7173	24.0
37.	LARGECLA	3.2917	1.0417	24.0
38.	UNDERSTA	2.9583	.8065	24.0

Reliability Analysis – Scale (Alpha)

		Mean	Std Dev	Cases
39.	TYPE	2.5417	.8330	24.0
40.	TGENDER	2.3333	1.1672	24.0
41.	EXPERIEN	3.1667	.7614	24.0
42.	CLASSTAU	2.7083	.8587	24.0
43.	CONTACT	2.6250	1.0555	24.0
44.	TRAINEDU	2.9167	1.1765	24.0
45.	TBELIEFS	2.4583	.8330	24.0
46.	ETHNICB	2.3750	1.2091	24.0
47.	SUPPORTS	3.3333	.8165	24.0
48.	EDUCATIO	3.5000	.5898	24.0
49.	TADAPTAT	3.6250	.4945	24.0
50.	COLLABOR	3.5000	.6594	24.0
51.	PARENTAL	3.5000	.7223	24.0
52.	SSPROFF	3.5417	.7790	24.0
53.	ADMSUPP	3.5000	.5898	24.0
54.	RESOURCE	3.1667	.9631	24.0
55.	INTERAC	3.4167	.7173	24.0
56.	FRIENDFO	3.5000	.7223	24.0
57.	PEERTUTO	3.2500	.8470	24.0

Statistics for	Mean	Variance	Std Dev	N of Variables
SCALE	168.4167	163.1232	12.7720	57

Reliability Analysis – Scale (Alpha)

Item-total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
DDISABIL	165.3333	165.8841	-.1614	.7825
DCANNOT	164.9583	168.3025	-.3046	.7849
CONTIGIO	165.7917	158.6069	.1280	.7744
SPEDONLY	166.0000	158.4348	.1637	.7725
RESPETRS	167.1667	166.9275	-.3500	.7810
INSTRUCT	167.0417	162.0417	.0665	.7741
DIFFEREN	167.2500	164.3696	-.1425	.7770
PLACESD	165.3750	145.8967	.7075	.7518
SAMECLAS	165.2083	152.0851	.4427	.7623
CLASSACT	165.2083	149.5634	.5570	.7580

Reliability Analysis – Scale (Alpha)

Item-total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
MILDMOD	165.8333	163.9710	-.0726	.7824
RIGHTALL	164.8333	152.7536	.6151	.7605
ACCEPTS	164.7500	154.4565	.5948	.7626
TRSPASOC	165.0000	157.2174	.2997	.7684
SAMGOALS	165.4167	154.0797	.2857	.7679
ELIMSPES	165.7917	162.6938	-.0207	.7794
SCHORGAN	165.8333	163.7971	-.0662	.7822
ECHILDLE	165.7083	156.1286	.2916	.7681
EMILDMOD	165.4167	158.7754	.1738	.7720
ESPROFOU	166.3750	160.8533	.0314	.7793
BENEFIC	165.0833	162.6884	.0018	.7761
SOCINTER	164.7083	152.9112	.7285	.7599
FRIENDSH	164.8750	156.6359	.4171	.7664
SOCSKILL	165.1667	160.4928	.1270	.7731
LOWACADE	166.0000	166.9565	-.1851	.7861
UNPREPAR	165.7917	159.9982	.0972	.7749
LACKKSEX	165.2083	159.8243	.1524	.7725
WORKBETT	164.7917	157.9982	.3926	.7679
WORKLOAD	164.7917	160.0851	.2232	.7711
PRESERVI	165.0833	155.2971	.3819	.7657
PROFCOMP	165.0833	159.4710	.2337	.7707
DISBEHAV	165.2083	160.3460	.1100	.7738
TSUPPORT	165.8750	163.5924	-.0561	.7803
FORCEDP	165.5417	155.8243	.3098	.7675
TIMELOST	165.7917	154.2591	.4327	.7641
WASTETIM	166.5000	165.0435	-.1321	.7802
LARGECLA	165.1250	156.5489	.2106	.7710
UNDERSTA	165.4583	154.9547	.3745	.7656
TYPE	165.8750	157.3315	.2440	.7697
TGENDER	166.0833	167.5580	-.1918	.7889
EXPERIEN	165.2500	156.8913	.2963	.7683

Reliability Analysis – Scale (Alpha)

Item-total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
CLASSTAU	165.7083	158.3025	.1890	.7715
CONTACT	165.7917	150.7808	.4332	.7618
TRAINEDU	165.5000	156.3478	.1832	.7726
TBELIEFS	165.9583	157.7808	.2221	.7704
ETHNICB	166.0417	158.3895	.1075	.7763
SUPPORTS	165.0833	153.1232	.4619	.7627
EDUCATIO	164.9167	158.0797	.3166	.7687
TADAPTAT	164.7917	157.8243	.4068	.7676
COLLABOR	164.9167	155.5580	.4335	.7652
PARENTAL	164.9167	157.8188	.2635	.7694
SSPROFF	164.8750	155.3315	.3700	.7659
ADMSUPP	164.9167	157.6449	.3464	.7680
RESOURCE	165.2500	154.5435	.3196	.7668
INTERAC	165.0000	152.9565	.5440	.7614
FRIENDFO	164.9167	153.6449	.5002	.7626
PEERTUTO	165.1667	151.1884	.5385	.7598

Reliability Coefficients

N of Cases = 24.0 N of Items = 57

Alpha = .80