

**An Investigation into Teacher Perceptions
of the Conditions Required to Include Key
Stage 2 Pupils with Special Educational
Needs in Mainstream School Provision.**

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for the degree of Doctor of Education (Ed.D)
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ABSTRACT.

The inclusion of pupils with special educational needs into mainstream schools, and especially those who have more recently been educated in special schools, can be seen to be a topical and significant focus for educational debate. This thesis considers the issues surrounding this debate, with particular reference to pupils in the junior years of schooling.

Research within an interpretive paradigm was conducted using semi-structured interviews, marginal participant observations and document scrutiny, in order to ascertain teacher perceptions of the conditions required to include a range of pupils with special educational needs. Teacher samples were established in non-inclusive schools, and the perceptions of these teachers were compared to those of teachers working in a school acknowledged for well established inclusive practices. Further consideration through classroom observation was given to the relationship between the recorded teacher perceptions, and the realities of the classroom situation.

Qualitative data gathered through the research was used to discuss the possible implications of a move towards greater inclusion. Key issues were identified, including the effective use of classroom support, the identification of training needs, and variations in attitudes which may be significant if a more inclusive education system is to be achieved. The findings of the research were related to the literature in this area.

The thesis concludes by identifying areas for further study, and recommending ways forward towards developing more inclusive schools.

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Contents

Abstract

Acknowledgements

Chapter 1.	Introduction.	
	1.1 The nature and purpose of the study	1
	1.2 Defining inclusion	4
	1.3 An overview of the study	9
Chapter 2.	Review of the literature on inclusive education.	
	2.1 Introduction	14
	2.2 Historical and legislative context	15
	2.3 The philosophical basis for inclusion	34
	2.4 Educational efficacy, the arguments for and against inclusion	51
	2.5 Creating the conditions for inclusion	67
Chapter 3.	Research justification and methodology.	
	3.1 Justification of the research	87
	3.2 The sample	96
	3.3 Ethical considerations	102
	3.4 Semi-structured interviews	105
	3.5 Classroom observation	109
	3.6 Use of documentary evidence	114
Chapter 4.	Studfall Junior School and inclusive education.	
	4.1 The school context	117
	4.2 Historical development of an inclusive school	119
	4.3 The choice of Studfall Junior as a focus for study	121
Chapter 5.	Presentation and discussion of the research findings.	
	5.1 Introduction	125
	5.2 Description and analysis of the sample studied	128
	5.3 Analysis of data – teacher perceptions and classroom practice	136
Chapter 6.	Conclusions.	
	6.1 Implications of the research	165
	6.2 Themes emerging from the research	168
	6.3 The importance of attitude	168
	6.4 The use of classroom support	173
	6.5 The relationship between training and context	176
	6.6 Management of the pace of change from segregated to inclusive practice,	179
	6.7 Concluding remarks	182

Appendix 1. **Ethical Code.**

Appendix 2. **Questions used during semi-structured interviews.**

Appendix 3. **Profiles of pupils observed.**

Appendix 4. **Sample from observation schedule.**

Appendix 5. **t-test conducted on two independent samples of teachers addressed in the research.**

Bibliography

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 The nature and purpose of the study.

The inclusion of pupils with special educational needs into mainstream classrooms can be seen to be a significant topic of current discussion within the UK education system. The Green Paper 'Excellence for All Children' (DfEE 1997) in setting targets for the UK education system has stated that:

"By 2002...

- A growing number of mainstream schools will be willing and able to accept children with a range of special educational needs: as a consequence, an increasing proportion of those children with statements of SEN who would currently be placed in special schools will be educated in mainstream schools.
- National and local programmes will be in place to support increased inclusion.
- Special and mainstream schools will be working together alongside and in support of one another."

(DfEE 1997) P.9

The UK government in publishing this document can be seen to be adding momentum to a movement for inclusion which can trace its roots back to before the publication of The Warnock Report (1978). In so doing it has given a commitment to support mainstream schools in adopting practices which will enable more pupils to be educated in mainstream schools, and to realign the current modes of educational delivery to ensure that the needs of a small but significant proportion of the school population are met.

However, the Green Paper, whilst being welcomed for providing a high profile to special needs issues, has not escaped criticism. Simmons (1998) has expressed a concern that whilst the government has announced an intention to educate more children in mainstream schools, this in itself does not ensure that their needs will be met. Farrell (1998) shares these concerns, and a worry that the evidence for the effectiveness of inclusion has not as yet, been established.

"The exemplars of good practice given in the Green Paper are superficial, and give no indication of how inclusion has raised the standards of the pupils concerned. If the main aim of the Paper is to raise standards, a key part of any consideration to include a pupil in an ordinary school would be some indication that a direct result would be the raising of standards beyond those achieved by placing the pupil in a special school"

Farrell (1998a) P. 13.

The concerns expressed by these two writers, both of whom have considerable experience of work within the field of special education, are based upon a genuine concern to ensure that pupils receive an education which both recognises and addresses their special educational needs. The issues which surround the inclusion debate are many, but the lack of empirical evidence examining teacher apprehensions, or indeed what constitutes good practice in inclusion is an area of real concern. The historical context of developments in inclusive practice, and a body of research which has examined the efficacy of inclusion is discussed in chapter 2. Söder (1997) has argued that research in the area of inclusion has been focussed upon two aspects. The first he describes as evaluative, asking the question is inclusion good or bad? The second is a normative approach which addresses the issue of how inclusion can be

made to work. Whilst both of these approaches are important and have supplied the researcher with interesting points of discussion, Söder suggests that we should be moving away from the debate which views inclusion as a pro and anti issue. The time has come he believes, to examine how the conditions to successfully educate pupils with special educational needs can be achieved. This will demand that we increase our understanding of how all pupils learn, what works in the classroom and how we can ensure that a climate for learning is effectively created. It also requires that we increase our current understanding of teacher perceptions of pupils with special educational needs and the ways in which they may be most effectively educated.

The research undertaken for this thesis has endeavoured to examine the perceptions and beliefs of teachers with regards to the conditions necessary to educate children with special educational needs in mainstream primary schools. A study of the perceptions of teachers working in non-inclusive mainstream primary schools, who have expressed their aspirations and apprehensions regarding inclusion, has enabled a direct comparison to be made with the views of teachers working in a school which has been recognised for its inclusive practice. These perceptions have then been examined alongside the reality of classroom practice.

The purpose of this study has been to gain some insight into the conditions which may be necessary for inclusion, with an intention that this might provide some guidance for future practice. Recognising inclusion as an international issue, the writer has examined literature from several countries, and has considered the legislation which has been adopted within these varying states. However, before any investigation of

this nature could be undertaken it was seen as necessary to clarify definitions, and to place inclusion within a broader educational context.

1.2 Defining inclusion.

Of the many matters which are currently being debated within special education, it is the single issue of the inclusion of pupils with special educational needs into mainstream schools which has the highest international profile. The 1994 Report on the Education of Children with Disabilities (Salamanca Statement) has set the tone for discussion of the movement away from education in segregated provision to a recognition of the right of all pupils to be educated alongside their peers. As will be seen in chapter 2 countries across Europe, the United States, and Australasia have put into place legislation and systems to support the gradual movement of children from special to mainstream educational settings. Whilst progress in inclusion has been made on a global front, there is a need to exercise caution when comparing the processes of one country with another. Cultural and organisational differences within educational systems are considerable, as are the varying histories of both general and special education across the world. Yet the Salamanca Statement recognised a common desire to address the needs of children with special educational needs in a manner which is more equitable than may have been the case in the past.

If a common will to promote inclusion does exist, it is appropriate to attempt some clarification of the terminology used in describing how this might be achieved, and what it might eventually look like. Even within the UK there has been confusion resulting from a misunderstanding of the term inclusion, and its relationship to earlier terminology such as integration (Booth, Ainscow and Dyson 1997, Thomas 1997). In order to proceed with any research in this area it is therefore necessary to examine definitions, and to agree upon the ways in which language might be used to describe the conditions which are under investigation.

The Warnock Report (1978) gave rise to both discussion, and the publication of a number of studies into the integration of pupils with special educational needs in mainstream schools (e.g. Pocklington 1980, Hegarty et al 1984, Howarth 1987). The term 'integration' was in common parlance throughout the 1980s but appears in more recent literature to have been subsumed within the term 'inclusion'. The observer of special education could be excused for believing that these two terms are interchangeable, yet researchers in this area would suggest that this is not true.

Thomas (1997) defines inclusion as the acceptance of all pupils within the mainstream education system, taught within a common framework, and identified as the responsibility of all teachers. This he contrasts with integration, which he sees in locational terms as the assimilation of the pupil with special needs into a mainstream environment where they may, or may not be accepted and play a full part in the general process of learning with their peers. He is wary of the concept of integration, believing that the simple movement of pupils with special needs into a mainstream school is likely to do nothing to change teachers' perceptions of those pupils, as being in some way different from their peers. He suggests that inclusion should be seen as a

rights issue, rather than one which places an emphasis upon special education. Indeed, he goes so far as to suggest that society in expressing an intent to provide services for pupils with special educational needs through segregated provision, has created a false model of society within its mainstream schools:

"Inequality has effects arising from wholly unreal situations which mainstream schools encounter when their rolls are shorn of a significant minority of pupils. This 'pampering' of mainstream schools has its effects in a more academic curriculum, in less flexible pastoral systems, and in a pupil population which is less familiar with and less accepting of difference and diversity."

Thomas (1997) P. 106.

In making such a statement Thomas provides a significant insight into the ways in which inclusion may be seen to differ from integration. Florian (1998a) reinforces Thomas' view that the term integration has become too associated with the physical environment in which education takes place without regard for the quality of that placement, or of the education which the pupil receives within it. She suggests that the term inclusion, has become more appropriate for those who wish to see the education of pupils with special educational needs considered in terms of the quality of the learning experience. Inclusion, she stresses, acknowledges a history of exclusion, and emphasises a commitment to ensure that pupils who have previously been denied educational opportunities will in future receive the same treatment as their non-disabled peers. However, as Thomas (op.cit) states, the inclusion of pupils alongside those who are currently educated in a mainstream school may require significant modifications to the ways in which that school operates. His observations regarding an increasingly academic curriculum, and a lack of flexibility within pastoral systems

may well be a significant factor in determining the speed with which inclusion can be achieved. The conditions for inclusion have not, as yet, been adequately defined, and there is a danger that pupils with special educational needs may find themselves integrated into mainstream schools before those conditions have been established. Some schools are already struggling to meet the needs of pupils with moderate special educational needs and may find themselves overwhelmed by an influx of pupils with more complex difficulties. As Rose (1998a) has stated:

"There are many pupils with special educational needs in mainstream schools, who far from being *included* find themselves *isolated* by teaching approaches, which fail to give adequate consideration to their individual learning needs and thereby *exclude* them from a range of opportunities which would enhance their performance potential. Similarly, there are examples of good practice in some segregated special schools which have endeavoured to include pupils fully in many facets of the learning process, which have been seen by some teachers as problematic."

Rose (1998) P.96.

It would be easy with hindsight to be critical of the models of integration which prevailed in the immediate post-Warnock era. Researchers who work in this area should, however, acknowledge the debt which is owed to Warnock and writers of that period, who heightened awareness of an issue which continues to evolve as a critical debate within the present day education system.

The notion of playing a full part within school life is at the crux of the inclusion debate. It has been suggested that inclusion may be determined as the process of increasing participation in and decreasing exclusion from mainstream social settings

(Booth 1996, Potts 1997). Tilstone et al. (1998) suggest that inclusion goes beyond this, and should be regarded as the processes which schools must adopt if they are to fully meet the needs of every individual pupil. Such processes will be built upon the development of positive attitudes, an understanding of the needs of individual pupils, a willingness to involve pupils fully in learning, and the development of a flexible approach to curriculum development and delivery. Such demands may be viewed as a tall order in the current educational climate, with what many see as decreasing flexibility within the curriculum, and an emphasis upon academic outcomes. However the UK government in "Excellence for All Children" (1997) has similarly recognised the need to regard inclusion as more than a locational issue.

"Inclusion is a process, not a fixed state. By inclusion, we mean not only that pupils with SEN should wherever possible receive their education in a mainstream school, but also that they should join fully with their peers in the curriculum and life of the school. For example, we believe that - taking account of any normal arrangements for setting - children with SEN should generally take part in mainstream lessons rather than being isolated in separate units. But separate provision may be necessary on occasion for specific purposes, and inclusion must encompass teaching and curriculum appropriate to the child's needs. Many schools will need to review and adapt their approaches in order to achieve greater inclusion."

Excellence for All Children (DfEE 1997) P. 44

It is clear from this statement, that the suggestion that inclusion can be regarded simply as a movement of pupils away from segregated special schools into mainstream settings is now recognised as naïve. Inclusion is far more about effective teaching and the practices which schools must adopt to educate a diverse population. This would appear to be a far more complex proposition than that of integration, and therefore one which will need careful consideration if it is to be achieved without

detriment to any of the interested parties. For the purposes of this study, a definition of inclusion as a process of increasing opportunities for participation in, and decreasing exclusion from mainstream social and educational activity has been adopted as a guiding principle for all of the work undertaken. Whilst it is likely that any definition will be modified after a period of time and as schools increase in confidence and experience, this interpretation falls in line with the current emphasis given to the processes of inclusion by researchers in this area as will be discussed in chapter 2.

1.3 An overview of the study

The study conducted for this thesis has considered the question of the conditions necessary to promote inclusion. In particular, an attempt has been made to gauge teacher perceptions of those conditions which they would perceive as being needed in order that inclusion can be achieved within the existing primary school system. This examination of teacher perceptions was seen as a necessary stage in the process of understanding the ways in which, schools can become effective in meeting the needs of a range of pupils with complex difficulties. The research undertaken for this thesis has attempted to examine the relationship between teacher perceptions and the reality of what happens in classroom practice.

Berlin (1996) puts forward a view that our understanding of reality is inextricably related to our previous experience, and that there is a temptation to imagine how things may be in circumstances which we have not experienced, based only on our

limited perception of what has gone before. In applying Berlin's ideas to the study of inclusive education, we might suppose that teachers who have little experience of working with pupils who have complex needs may have had limited success in building a picture of the effects that such children might have upon their classroom. However, it is unlikely that such perceptions are totally unfounded; these teachers may well have had some limited experience of a child or children with special educational needs, and they will have built their opinions upon this earlier experience. Their beliefs about the conditions necessary to educate children with special educational needs are likely to have been influenced not only by their own experiences, but may also be based upon the views expressed by other teacher colleagues. Just as individual teachers have developed their own views, it may equally be true that there exists a collective consciousness amongst teachers with regards to the challenges which inclusion might bring. Norwich (1996) has considered the difficulties which have ensued from the creation of the idea of 'expert special needs teachers' who hold the key to working with children who present challenges unexpected in the majority of pupils. Many teachers, he suggests, look to these experts for support and wisdom and in so doing fail to develop their own skills in addressing the needs of a proportion of their pupils. Similarly, these teachers may begin to regard the pupils themselves as presenting a challenge which it is beyond their own capabilities to meet. Norwich believes that the retention of 'expert' special needs teachers has led to a number of problems. Firstly it has led to the development of a wall of mystique which surrounds the teaching of children with special educational needs. Secondly it has provided an excuse for mainstream class teachers to avoid managing those pupils who create the greatest challenges to the education system. This may at times be seen as a collective abdication of responsibility and has

only served to promote a mythology of special education, which now presents as a barrier to inclusion.

If Berlin is correct in his efforts to define reality, and Norwich is also right in his assertion about the ways in which teachers regard 'special education', then it is possible that a mismatch might exist between the perceptions of teachers, regarding what is needed to promote inclusion, and the reality of what teachers actually do in inclusive classrooms. This study set out to explore this area and to investigate whether such a mismatch exists. In order to undertake this work an examination was made of the opinions of teachers who are working in non-inclusive primary schools. Their views on inclusion were sought with an emphasis upon trying to ascertain what difference if any, having pupils with more complex needs in their classrooms would make. Did these teachers feel that they would need to change their teaching practices? How well equipped do they feel themselves to be in addressing the needs of pupils with a complex range of needs? Would teachers need to alter their planning processes? These and other questions formed the core of an enquiry into teacher perceptions of a situation which they are currently not addressing, but which they all believe that at some point in the future they may have to address.

Having gained an insight into the perception of a group of teachers it was felt necessary to see how these might relate to the reality of an inclusive school situation. A school which has been recognised for its good practice in inclusion by both Ofsted and by officers in the Local Education Authority in which it is located was selected, and the teachers working within this school were asked similar questions to those presented to the non-inclusive teacher sample. The context of the studied inclusive

school and the ways in which it has developed since the closure of local special schools is outlined in chapter 4. Had the teachers in this school needed to change their teaching practices? How well equipped had they found themselves to be when special schools closed and the pupils were moved into their school? Does their planning now look different from the way it was prior to inclusion? By asking questions, which did for the most part mirror those asked of teachers in non-inclusive situations, it was possible to compare the perceptions of the non-inclusive teachers with those of their peers in an inclusive school.

In a study of teacher perceptions, and in attempting to gain some understanding of how these relate to reality, there is a danger of accepting opinion at face value.

Teachers who become engrossed in their own classroom teaching activity may at times take for granted effective strategies which they have developed in an assumption that this is the classroom norm for all teachers. Joyce, Calhoun and Hopkins (1997) have emphasised that busy teachers play a variety of roles, including managers of learning, facilitators, counsellors and evaluators, and that this sometimes detracts from opportunities to reflect upon practice in any detail. One resultant factor within this hyperactive working schedule is that sometimes teachers' perceptions of what they do in class are less accurate than the reality which can be seen by a more objective observer. Joyce and his colleagues see the observation of classrooms as being a particularly valuable means of both matching reality to perception, and providing the basis for discussion which can lead to school improvement. In an effort to see how the opinions expressed by the teachers in the inclusive school matched the reality of classroom practice, observations were conducted of the ways in which these teachers managed children in a variety of classroom situations. These observations, it

was anticipated would provide an appropriate means of examining teacher perceptions of the strategies which they adopted to promote inclusion alongside the practice deployed in classrooms. The methods used to gain answers to the questions outlined above, are described in detail in chapter 3 of this study.

In undertaking any research of this nature the researcher should examine his own motivations. As will be discussed later in this thesis, many who have written about inclusive schooling have done so with a personal agenda to prove or disprove its value to pupils with special educational needs. The research described within this thesis has been undertaken from the perspective of a researcher who believes that inclusion within a mainstream education should be regarded as a right of every child. However, it is also conducted because of the difficulties which the writer has in seeing how this can be achieved for the benefit of all interested parties. Whilst much has been written about the philosophical arguments which surround inclusion, the pragmatics of classroom practice to promote successful inclusion are only now being investigated. This thesis is therefore seen as providing an opportunity to begin to answer some of the difficult questions which surround an understanding of the necessary conditions for the further development of successful inclusive practice.

CHAPTER 2

Review of the Literature on Inclusive Education

2.1 Introduction

In recent years the body of literature addressing the subject of the inclusion of pupils with special educational needs in mainstream schools has greatly increased. Inclusion has become an international issue, and has generated literature based upon a range of political, ideological, philosophical and cultural perspectives. In reviewing the literature in this area there are dangers of making generalisations which inadequately address these contextual differences and thereby over simplify the arguments. If the inclusion of pupils with special educational needs in mainstream schools was to be easily achieved, the means by which it may be accomplished would not have caused such heated debate over so long a period as it has.

This review will attempt to examine inclusion from a historical, legislative, philosophical and empirical perspective. In so doing it will draw largely upon the published literature from the UK and the USA, but will also make reference where deemed appropriate to research and texts from other countries. The United States literature is particularly important as it can be seen to have significantly influenced developments elsewhere in the world, including the UK. The writer also contends that a weakness within the inclusion debate is a heavy dependence upon philosophical discourse, often with little substantiation of arguments through empirical enquiry. The UK literature has significant weaknesses in this area, resulting in a need to consider USA generated research in order to discuss the major issues. This can, of course, be problematic. The USA and UK education systems are not interchangeable in format, and indeed within the USA, more so than within the UK there are considerable inter

state differences of interpretation of national legislation. Caution needs to be exercised when looking for parallels, and this review in considering similarities will attempt to balance judgements made, for example regarding elementary schools and their comparison to the primary system.

The reviewer will follow subheadings related to the areas defined above, but recognises that there will be generic issues, which need to be discussed at more than one point. Difficulties of terminology inevitably arise in dealing with an international body of literature, and where necessary this will be addressed within the text of this review.

2.2 Historical and legislative context

In order to gain an understanding of the current situation regarding proposed changes to the education of pupils with special educational needs, it is necessary to have an oversight of some of the historical events and factors, which have brought us to this position. The twentieth century has been a time of increased understanding of both the causes of disability, and of the means by which children deemed to have special needs may be provided with access to a widening range of educational experiences. As our understanding has increased, so have the perceptions and attitudes of society as a whole towards people with disabilities and special needs changed, though as will be argued in this review we may still have a considerable way to go before a total acceptance is gained. These changes are reflected in the language used to describe people with special educational needs, which can be directly related to our beliefs with regards to their ability to learn. In textbooks from the beginning of the twentieth century it is possible to find many examples of the low expectations of educability

applied to children with special needs for whom today we regard education as being a fundamental right. For example, Shuttleworth, writing in 1909, described children with Down's syndrome (then referred to as mongolism) as 'unfinished children' who would never develop sufficiently to be able to live a valuable life as adults. In 1912 a respected psychiatrist Dr. Fernald wrote that:-

"The feeble-minded are a parasitic, predatory class never capable of self-support or managing their own affairs. The great majority ultimately become public charges in some form. They cause unutterable sorrow at home and are a menace to the community. Feeble minded women are invariably immoral.... Every feeble minded person, especially the high-grade imbecile, is a potential criminal needing only the proper environment and opportunity for development and expression of his criminal tendencies."

Fernald, D. (1912) cited in Segal, S. (1974)

The use of such language appears shocking to those of us working in special education at the end of the twentieth century, but provides an indication of the level of understanding and expectation that was prevalent at the time. The beginning of the century was a time when terms such as 'imbecile', and the description of children as being 'feeble-minded' was an acceptable part of everyday medical and educational vocabulary. With the knowledge and understanding which we have gained in recent years it is easy to be critical of such attitudes. However it is important to remember that it was through the pioneering work of both medical scientists and educators early in this century, that the foundations were laid for today's education system in which we are debating the move to full inclusion.

The leading role in developing an understanding of pupils with the most significant special educational needs remained as a prerogative of the medical profession for longer than the first half of the century. However, perspectives of the education of

children regarded as having learning difficulties were considerably altered with the implementation of the 1944 Education Act. With the passing of this Act, for the first time Local Education Authorities in England and Wales (146 in number at that time) were charged with the responsibility of identifying and making provision for those pupils for whom 'special education treatment' would be appropriate. This resulted in a significant move to provide training for teachers in the management of children described as 'backward', and the consideration that there may be methods which were appropriate for use with these children which were different from those used with their more able peers. The Act also recognised that there were some pupils, who were to be termed 'educationally sub-normal' for whom:

"by reason of limited ability or other conditions resulting in educational retardation, require some specialized form of education, wholly or partly in substitution for the education normally given in ordinary schools."

Education Act 1944

Whilst this statement may be seen as a breakthrough in recognising educational entitlement, the Education Act also used the term 'ineducable' for the small but significant numbers of pupils labelled as 'mentally handicapped' who continued to be the responsibility of the Health Authorities. These children continued to wear the label of 'ineducability' until the implementation of the 1959 Mental Health Act, when the terminology was supplanted by that of 'unsuitable for school', but with a recognition that many may benefit from 'training'. This led to the development of junior training centres in which children were given daytime care and some instruction in basic social and self management skills.

The 1970 Education Act has been heralded as a landmark in the education of children with special educational needs. Following its implementation in April 1971, for the

first time Local Education Authorities in England and Wales were required to accept responsibility for the education of all children of statutory school age regardless of ability or need. This led to the development of special schools, providing segregated provision for children whose needs were regarded as presenting difficulties considered to be beyond the remit of mainstream schools. The significance of this Act, and its subsequent impact upon the education system as a whole should not be underestimated. Furneaux (1976) wrote:

"The first of that month, April 1971, has historical importance, for it was then that the Education (Handicapped Children) Act which had received Royal Assent on 23rd July 1970 took effect. In consequence, a hundred years after the passing of the Education Act of 1970 (which sets out to establish a national system of education), universal compulsory education became a reality and the absolute right to full education for all children without exception was legally established."

Furneaux, B. (1976) p. 13.

The development of special schools was accompanied by new opportunities for teachers to train specifically as teachers of children with special educational needs. Many colleges of education developed such courses, and for the first time teachers who had been especially trained were being recruited to work with children who had the most complex needs. Special schools came to be seen as centres of expertise, and even today teachers in mainstream schools continue to regard them as establishments equipped to educate those children who would present the greatest challenge in an ordinary classroom including those with severe learning difficulties or emotional and behavioural difficulties.

Tilstone (1991) has emphasised the importance of the 1970s as a decade when we vastly increased our understanding of the ways in which children with complex difficulties could be taught. She states that this was the first period in our history

when there was an acceptance that we did not have two distinct populations of children marked by their entitlement, or otherwise to an education. Indeed the early years of the decade paved the way for the beginnings of a debate in the UK with regards to the most appropriate educational placements for pupils with special educational needs. A climate was created in which it became possible to discuss the possibilities of integration, and the subsequent movement towards inclusion. The recognition of the successes of special education provision, and a desire to move forward to secure good practice in assessing and educating pupils with special educational needs led directly to the establishment of a committee of enquiry to present plans for the future of education in this area. This committee, under the chairmanship of the philosopher Mary Warnock (now Baroness Warnock) provided a renewed blueprint for special education, and established the basis for consideration of a movement to educate all pupils in mainstream schools.

The Warnock Report (1978) considered many issues related to the education of pupils with special educational needs, but is often recognised for the statements which it made related to a move towards integration. This was seen in the report as having three distinct stages, each bringing benefits for all children. However, it was also recognised that each stage would have difficulties, and that these would increase in complexity according to the needs of pupils, and the expectations upon schools. The three stages were described as:

Locational integration, seen by Warnock as the easiest form to achieve. It referred simply to the location of provision for pupils with special educational needs on the same site as that provided for their peers. It did not suggest that these pupils would be

in any way educated alongside their peers, or indeed that there would necessarily be any social contact. The term integration may in fact be seen as a misnomer in relation to this situation. However, Warnock recognised that this may be a necessary precursor to any more radical moves towards integration.

Social integration was thought to be more difficult to gain, demanding the development of positive attitudes on the part of teachers, pupils and parents. Within this stage of integration Warnock perceived that pupils would engage in social activity, possibly on the playground, and would consort with their peers in a variety of non-academic settings. This, she stressed, would still fall short of an ideal situation, but would place new demands upon all involved, and would require a higher level of training and support than simple locational integration.

Functional integration can be more readily equated to the definitions of inclusion discussed in the introduction to this thesis. This was viewed by Warnock as the ultimate goal, in which pupils would work together throughout the school day, engaged in all social and academic activities. It was acknowledged by Warnock that functional integration would be achieved only with time, and after provision of a wide programme of re-education of teachers and the public at large. However, this should be regarded as the ultimate goal and seen as attainable should the correct procedures be established over a period of time.

The legislation which followed the Warnock Report, and in particular the Education Act (1981) was seen as providing the basis for a move towards greater integration, but it has not been without its critics. Booth (1981) who writes from the standpoint that all

children should be included in mainstream schools, felt that the report was written in language which failed to make clear its purpose with regards to the environment in which pupils with special educational needs should be educated.

"When I read the Warnock Report myself I was unable to derive any clear implication for a shift in educational policy to a position where fewer handicapped children would be educated in segregated forms of provision."

Booth, T. (1981) p. 288

Similar concerns with regards to weaknesses within the report have been expressed by Hornby et al. (1997) who claim that Warnock, by imposing a series of four conditions, sidestepped the most important issues which could have ensured integration. The four statements within the report which cause them some difficulty are that integration should take place:

1. When this is in accordance with parental wishes.
2. When there is a guarantee that all the pupil's needs can be met in the mainstream school.
3. When it is consistent with efficient use of resources.
4. When it will not detract from the education of other pupils in the class.

These four criteria it is claimed, can be seen as providing an easy escape clause for schools opposed to integration, and may be regarded as being in part responsible for the slow progress which has been made in this area.

Gulliford (1981) in a plea for a cohesive approach to the training of teachers to increase their understanding of special needs issues, emphasised the Warnock concept of a two tier approach to training. Firstly a generic course which would enable all teachers to gain an overview of special needs issues, and would equip them with specific classroom management skills. Secondly, the development of specialist courses to address the needs of children who present the most complex needs, including those with autism and emotional and behavioural difficulties. The provision of such training was seen as critical to enabling a move towards educating greater numbers of children with special educational needs in mainstream schools. Whilst a general increase in the availability of courses has been achieved since the publication of the Warnock Report, this has lacked the cohesion which Gulliford saw as being essential. Miller and Porter (1999) writing twenty one years after the publication of Warnock describe the consultation documents for training of teachers to address the needs of pupils with special educational needs published by the Teacher Training Agency (TTA) in 1998. They too recognise the importance of increased training for all teachers as an element of movement towards greater inclusion. However, they are rightly cautious with regards to the return to an emphasis upon categorisation and deficit models.

Others have taken a more positive view of the influences which have been brought to bear following the publication of Warnock. In particular the recognition by Warnock that up to eighteen per cent of pupils are likely to exhibit some form of special educational need during their school lives, has led to an increased focus upon special needs, and approaches to their management. The Fish Report (1985) took up the gauntlet of integration and provided a framework of suggestions for how this might be

achieved and attempted to maintain the momentum established by Warnock, though its overall influence may now be seen to have been limited. It is suggested (Ainscow 1989, Farrell 1997a) that awareness of special needs issues in mainstream schools has been greatly increased following both Warnock and Fish, and that this may be a critical first step towards improved provision. This, along with a recognition that some children may have their special needs created or exacerbated through inappropriate teaching, has led to a considerable increase in the training of teachers to address a wide range of special educational needs. Armstrong (1998) whilst recognising that schools are a long way from a state of preparedness to meet the needs of all pupils, applauds Warnock for having raised awareness, and beginning a potentially long journey towards inclusion.

The period since the publication of the Warnock report is notable for many developments in the education of pupils with special educational needs. These can be seen to fall in to three distinct categories. Legislation, which has endeavoured to improve the processes of assessment and management of pupils, and to ensure that they receive appropriate funding and resourcing has been particularly influential. The Education Act (1981) introduced the procedures of statementing, whereby Local Education Authorities, after consultation with parents and other professional agencies, were charged with the responsibility of identifying children who need provision over and above that which would normally be expected in a mainstream classroom. This was followed in 1994 by the introduction of a Code of Practice on the Identification and Assessment of Special Educational Needs, which strengthened special needs management in schools through the development of the Special Needs Coordinator role, and the improvement of planning procedures for individual pupils.

A second major development, accelerated by the introduction of the National Curriculum and the Education Reform Act (1988) has been the greater consideration given to curriculum access for pupils with special educational needs. The development of curriculum planning and development materials, (Ashdown et al. 1991, Rose et al 1994, Carpenter et al. 1996, Byers and Rose 1996) which have attempted to provide means of ensuring full access to the National Curriculum for pupils who previously followed a non-mainstream model, has increased teacher awareness of the learning potential of many pupils with special educational needs. Pupils who had previously been denied opportunities to participate in subjects such as science, history and design and technology, are now playing a full part in these lessons. We may reflect at this point on how far the education of pupils with the most complex needs has come since the passing of the Education Act 1970.

The third significant movement, has been in collaboration between special and mainstream schools, and experimentation in the development of inclusive approaches. Some of these will be discussed later in this literature review. Fletcher-Campbell (1994) in a survey of maintained special schools in England and Wales discovered that 83% of schools replying to a questionnaire (898 replies from 1,520 schools) indicated that they had established regular links for their pupils with mainstream schools. This was seen to indicate a recognition on the part of special school teachers that children with special educational needs do need access to mainstream role models and curriculum content. It is similarly suggested that this also provided opportunities for teachers in mainstream schools to understand more about the potential of children with a wider range of special needs. However, caution needs to be exercised in

interpreting Fletcher-Campbell's research. It is not possible from the data provided to ascertain the regularity or intensity of school links, or the nature of the pupils involved. It may for instance be the case that those pupils selected for mainstream participation were amongst the most able from the school population. Jenkinson (1997) has described the advantages of such link systems as providing small class provision in special schools whilst moving towards Warnock's recommendation of increased social integration. However, she has also indicated that her own review of arrangements tends to indicate that they are often ad-hoc, and that it is often only the more able special school students who participate. Of equal concern, she believes, is the fact that when in the mainstream environment the special school children are treated differently from their mainstream peers. None the less, she commends the increase of school link arrangements as a possibly critical step along the route to greater inclusion.

In 1997, a new government in the UK reaffirmed a commitment to greater inclusion through the publication of a Green Paper 'Excellence for All Children'. This emphasises an intention to move more pupils from segregated schooling to take a place in mainstream schools. However, as with previous documents there is much of an ambiguous nature within the paper. It outlines an intention that special and mainstream schools should work more closely together in the future, and also refers to specialist schools which will develop a specific area of expertise to support the wider educational community. The definition of these schools, and the ways in which they may be effectively managed remain to be disclosed. The paper does provide for a requirement that Local Education Authorities publish their intentions for the

promotion of inclusion, but there remains a commitment to the retention of special schools.

"...there are exciting opportunities for special schools. Increasingly they will be providing a varied pattern of support for children with SEN. Some children will be in full time placements, others part time or short term; staff will be supporting some children in mainstream placements; they will be helping mainstream schools to implement inclusion policies; and they will be a source of training and advice for mainstream colleagues. It may be that when their role has developed to this extent, the term "special school" will be seen as an inadequate reflection of what they do."

Excellence for All Children. (DfEE 1997) Section 4 para. 16 p. 51

The only fact which appears clear from statements such as this, is that there remains a considerable amount of work to be undertaken in order to provide a more inclusive education system which can meet the needs of all pupils.

The historical context outlined above has been paralleled in many countries throughout the world, and the influence of legislation and publications such as the Warnock Report have their international equivalents. In the USA Public Law 94 - 142 (Mainstreaming Law) which was passed in 1975, stated that all children should be provided free public education in an appropriate and least restrictive environment. The law provided funds for all American States to prepare for the education of pupils with special educational needs, but with an attached condition. States who accepted funding were obliged to provide education where possible in a fully included mainstream environment. Where this is not possible assessments must be conducted to ascertain the extent to which those conditions which prevail within the mainstream can be replicated, and maximum access to mainstream peers assured.

As with Warnock, PL 94 - 142 has been viewed as well meaning but fundamentally flawed. Taylor (1988) was particularly critical of the legitimisation of the term 'least restrictive environment' seeing this as providing an opportunity for schools to reject pupils with special educational needs on the grounds that segregation would impose least restriction. He also deplores the emphasis upon resourcing, again citing this as an easy means by which schools can turn pupils away. The emphasis upon resources is seen as directing attention towards a physical environment rather than focusing upon the needs of the individual pupil. Again there are parallels between the USA and the UK. Fish and Evans (1995) and Marsh (1998) have questioned whether the current policy of providing additional funding for individual pupils with special educational needs, rather than providing these monies to schools to improve their whole school approach to special needs management, may not in fact be placing an obstacle in the way of inclusion. The concerns regarding funding and resourcing have historically been seen as a barrier to schools who may wish to become more inclusive, and remain as an issue to be resolved.

Public Law 94 - 142 in the USA has subsequently been followed by the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) (1995). This latest legislation, in parallel with UK trends, recognises some of the obstacles which exist to achieving full inclusion. The emphasis upon mainstream education is clearly stated but IDEA also contains a clause which states that pupils may be removed from the mainstream environment.

" When the nature and severity of the disability is such that education in regular classes with the use of supplemental aids and services cannot be achieved satisfactorily"

IDEA (1995) Section 1412 5B

The legislative approach to managing a move towards inclusion has followed a similar pattern in Europe. Similarities to the experiences of the UK and USA can be found within much of the literature on inclusion, and this will be referred to throughout this thesis. Examples could be drawn from most European countries, and in this context it may be helpful to give examples from those countries which have seen to be at the forefront of inclusion developments.

In Italy, Education Act 118 (1971) requires that all schools take appropriate measures to ensure the accommodation of pupils with special educational needs, with an emphasis upon ensuring easy physical access. This legislation was further strengthened in 1975 when the Italian Government emphasised that no child should be denied access to a regular classroom on grounds of severity of disability. In Education Act 517 (1977) procedures for the assessment of special educational needs were strengthened, and in 1982, further legislation affirmed the rights of schools to have a guarantee of one support teacher for every two pupils with special educational needs within the school.

The Danish Government have taken practical steps to ensure that the school curriculum is orientated to meet the needs of a wide range of pupils, including those with special educational needs. The 1990 Act on the Folkeskole in addition to the core curriculum subjects in schools, introduced seven compulsory topics which include such aspects as traffic safety. Each education district has the right to add additional subjects to meet the needs of its pupils. This has allowed for increased inclusion by enabling pupils to be given a different curriculum emphasis according to their needs. A similar curriculum focused approach has been adopted in Sweden since 1983 with

the Grudskola system being required to provide a holistic view of pupils which emphasises the individual needs of all, regardless of need or ability.

In 1990 the Dutch Ministry for Education and Science published a report entitled *Weer Samen Naar School* (Together to School Again) which provided a thorough analysis of both the history and intentions of special education in the Netherlands. This report led directly to legislation in the following year which instigated regional co-operation programmes to allow greater movement of pupils between special and mainstream schools. With the discussion on the development of specialist schools as emphasised in the Green Paper 'Excellence for All Children' being somewhat vague, it may be that the Dutch model has something from which special education in the UK can learn. Similar partnership schemes have been developed in France (Capron 1987, Belmont and Verillon 1999) and there is a growing movement in this direction to be witnessed in Spain (Pator 1998).

Hegarty (1998) in providing an international perspective of the current state of special education has identified integration and inclusion as being at the heart of the agenda for most developed countries. He states that:

"School reform is on the agenda in many countries as the importance of education for the individual and the community is better appreciated and historical inequities in access and educational opportunities are recognised. Increasingly, this general reform is seen to encompass special education."

Hegarty, S. (1998) p. 113

Hegarty recognises that the terms 'integration' and 'inclusion' have different meanings depending upon the political and cultural situation in which they are used, but that it is

clear that as our understanding of special needs issues has increased, our resolve to improve the education of pupils who are labelled within this context has strengthened.

The historical and legislative influences upon inclusion are many and complex, but common threads can be drawn from within them. It is clear that inclusion as an issue has taken its place within the global education agenda, and that whilst there are no easy approaches to achieving its aims of full inclusion, there is a stated intent to move towards this. It is also apparent that shifts in attitude and expectation have been considerable, and that those pupils who may previously have been regarded as ineducable are being considered for schooling alongside their able peers. It should additionally be recognised that medical advances and changes in attitude have had a direct influence upon the nature of the special needs population. Many of the disabling conditions which were common even fifty years ago, such as spina bifida, hydrocephaly, or Down's syndrome are less apparent in much of the world because of the development of screening procedures, preventative medicine and the greater acceptance of pregnancy terminations. By contrast, many infants born prematurely and with debilitating conditions who in previous years would not have survived beyond the first few days of life are now reaching school age. These are often amongst the most challenging pupils in our schools. The timing of a greater commitment to inclusion has coincided with factors which are adding to the complex nature of special educational needs.

As stated above, medical models have had a major influence upon the ways in which the expectations of children with special educational needs have developed. Pupils have often been described in terms of 'deficits' with an emphasis upon what they

cannot do as a result of various 'conditions' or 'syndromes'. This has at times resulted in stereotyping, such as the image of the 'stubborn, though affectionate child with Down's syndrome', and the development of preconceptions in the minds of teachers with regards to pupil educability. Wood and Shears (1986) have suggested that the provision of labels does little more than emphasise those characteristics which single a child out as being different, and possibly in some way inferior to his peers. Sebba et al (1993) have warned of the low expectations of pupils which can result from the application of labels to children. Even the term 'special educational need' which is in common parlance today may have a potentially limiting effect upon our expectation of pupil performance. This theme is taken up by both Christensen (1993) and Slee (1993) who claim that the debate about inclusion has often failed to move beyond a concern for lack of resources, and that this emanates largely from a concentration upon labels which home in upon the difficulties presented by pupils, rather than addressing issues of pedagogy or school organisation. Slee (1993) states that:

"One consequence of labelling is the creation in teachers of a belief that they are unable to address the needs of children with disabilities without the provision of adequate resources. The debate then becomes 'technocratic' rather than educational."

Slee, R. (1993) P. 357.

Slee's argument is a legitimate one, though it may be simplistic to believe that teachers who have a lack of experience of working with children with special educational needs should be expected to take on this responsibility, without a view to the resources which they may require. Similarly many would argue that labels do serve as a starting point for teachers who have a genuine concern to discover teaching approaches which have had benefits for pupils who are seen as having particular learning characteristics. It may be that a balanced view, between an understanding of

specific children groups, and an acceptance that these are children first and a recognition of the fact that they may also happen to have needs which are a barrier to learning.

Norwich (1996) has discussed labelling as a potential inhibitor of quality education for pupils with special educational needs and has expressed concerns with regards to the whole concept of special education. In reviewing medical and social models of our perceptions of special educational needs he states that:-

"Much has been said about special educational needs. For instance, that it is:

- relative to the educational context, as opposed to being a stable child characteristic;
- along a continuum in order that no categorical distinction can be made between those *with* and those *without* SEN;
- about what education provision is needed as opposed to focusing on deficiencies;
- about individual needs and not about treating children in terms of general categories and in stereotyped ways."

Norwich, B. (1996) p. 101.

Norwich suggests that whilst these separate ways of viewing special educational needs may have been helpful in the past, and have been used, for example, as a means of gaining additional resources and training, they have established fixed dichotomies which are unhelpful if we are to move towards a more inclusive educational system. Their greatest limitation is in the continuation of a movement, which focuses upon the child as being different from his peers, and therefore requiring separate treatment and approaches. He considers that in the past we have often focused upon the individual needs of pupils labelled as 'special', and that this may provide us with a helpful starting point when attempting to overcome the negative aspects of labelling. Norwich proposes that rather than labelling individual pupils in terms of their special needs, we

could apply a more positive approach if we view all pupils as having three types of learning need. These he describes as:

Individual needs

- arising from characteristics different from all others.

Exceptional needs

- arising from characteristics shared by some, e.g. visual impairment, high musical abilities.

Common needs

- arising from characteristics shared by all.

Norwich, B. (1996) p. 103

In viewing all pupils in this way, Norwich may have provided a useful indicator for identifying a necessary condition for inclusion. If, as he suggests, we could dispense with labels, but retain the positive elements of learning characteristic identification which they were intended to provide, we might possibly find a way of protecting those pupils who may be regarded as vulnerable, without emphasising their deficiencies. Such an approach would appear to provide a significant move away from the negative aspects of labelling challenged by Slee (1993) whilst retaining an identification of characteristics which would be valued by many teachers.

As we have moved further away from the medical deficiency models which dominated disability earlier in the twentieth century, increasing demands are being made with regards to changes in our view of people with special needs. Many would argue (Barton and Tomlinson 1984, Barton 1988, Mittler 1995, Norwich 1996) that a key to progress will be found only when society rejects all notions of valuing children only in terms of their academic abilities and outcomes, and that there remains much to do in changing educational policy and priorities. There are many obstacles which

remain in the way of inclusion, and before we can expect changes from society as a whole, an essential shift must be achieved in the attitudes which permeate the education system. Robertson (1998) has argued that schools bear the responsibility of enabling all children to grow into adults who can, as freely as possible, make informed choices about how to live their lives in adulthood. He accepts that for many pupils with special educational needs this may be problematic, but should not be shirked as a challenge. However, it may also be the case that there is a need to change society beyond school in preparation for those who on leaving school will have new expectations as a result of inclusive education. The arguments used to endorse the move towards inclusion have their foundations in humanistic philosophy which demands our close attention before addressing the pragmatics of inclusive schooling.

2.3 The philosophical basis for inclusion

The most carefully constructed arguments for inclusion have been based upon a human rights paradigm. Wolfensberger (1972, 1989) is often cited as providing a sound philosophical basis for the justification of inclusion, and his theory of normalization has been extensively debated and is seen as laying the foundations for further development in this area. Wolfensberger defined normalization as:

"The use of culturally normative means to offer devalued persons life conditions at least as good as the average citizen's, and to as much as possible enhance or support their behaviour, appearances, experiences, status and reputation."

Wolfensberger, W. cited in Candappa, M, and Burgess, R. (1989) p.71

Wolfensberger develops an ethical perspective upon the rights of people with disabilities, equating disability politics with those of civil rights and feminist issues. His arguments draw extensively upon the historical context of the treatment of

individuals, and like Foucault (1971) who demonstrated how attitudes change with time as we move away from a state of ignorance and fear to one of greater understanding and acceptance, Wolfensberger sees an ultimate goal of recognising and celebrating individuality and differences in people.

Foucault continually asks us to examine our current mores and beliefs in terms of their evolution through changing patterns of history. In challenging contemporary notions of an age of enlightenment, and suggesting that our perceptions of the world in which we live is one in which our understanding of social issues has reached a zenith, he demands that we review present day attitudes in a historical context. He describes how our attitudes towards individuals who have previously been described as insane has changed across the centuries. Beginning with fear and disdain, often relating madness to a visitation from God or the devil, society moved to a period of ridicule where, for example, in 1815 96,000 people paid a penny each to view the insane at Bethlehem (Bedlam) Hospital in London and similar numbers visited the Institut Bicetre in Paris. Many of the inmates of these establishments, far from being mad, were in fact afflicted with conditions such as Down's syndrome, which at that time were beyond the understanding of science. With a greater understanding came a period of charitable benevolence, followed by increased acceptance of mental illness and greater investments in a search for effective treatments. This, accompanied by a validation of the scientific study of a range of human conditions, Foucault describes as a significant step forward in the development of humanitarian principles.

Wolfensberger draws parallels with Foucault's descriptions for people with disabilities. A progression away from abhorrence and denial, and the locking away of

individuals, has enabled society to develop more effective methods of treatment and an understanding of causes and rights. However, both Foucault in relation to mental illness and Wolfensberger with regards to disability believe that as a society we still have some distance to travel when we examine these issues in a human rights perspective. Wolfensberger describes the present state of regard for people with any form of special need as being one of charitable beneficence. As such, he argues, we continue to deny people their rights to an equitable existence within our society.

"In the human service field, we are confronted by a great deal of rhetoric, and by an avalanche of documents, that proclaim that services are beneficent, charitable, benign, curative, habilitative, etc. These then are the manifest functions of human service organisations. But whilst services may be some of these things some of the time, they also perform latent functions very different from those proclaimed ones that are competency impairing, destructive of independence, that are actually dependency making and dependency keeping"

Wolfensberger (1989) P.26

Wolfensberger claims that far from recognising the rights of people with disabilities, they are enabled to access the facilities and services which able bodied people take for granted only with our consent, and not as a matter of right. He further contends that it has been convenient for society to create a body of people who will take charge of the care and management of the disabled, in hospitals, sheltered accommodation and special schools, in order that the majority of the population can be relieved of any responsibility towards them. In so doing, as a society we have endowed these carers with almost saintly characteristics as a means of appeasing the collective conscience which has been developed from our earlier experience of fear and lack of understanding as described by Foucault. However, it is also suggested that whilst we hold these carers in high moral regard, they are often amongst the lower paid

professionals in our society and this may well be a more accurate reflection of perception of their role.

Nirje (1985) has supported Wolfensberger's views and has adopted the term 'normal conditions of life' to equate with his view of 'normalization'. This term is used as a measurement by which Nirje states we can see the ways in which those who are described as having a disability are removed from the 'normal conditions of life'. The greater the disability the further removed the individual usually finds himself. Nirje defines normalization in the following terms:

" The normalization principle means making available to all persons with disabilities or other handicaps, patterns of life and conditions of everyday living which are as close as possible to or indeed the same as the regular circumstances and ways of life of society."

Nirje (1985) P. 67.

Wolfensberger's theories have been built upon by many advocates of full inclusion, though as will shortly be discussed, it is also perceived by others, including groups of disabled people, as having a number of flaws. However, the ethical argument which surrounds the inclusion debate is an important one. Legislators who fail to take account of inclusion as an issue of social justice are likely to find themselves as a focus for criticism by both professionals who advocate inclusion, and by disabled people who have felt themselves to be the victims of an inequitable society. In particular, a failure on the part of key decision makers to take account of the views of disabled people has been regarded as an inhibiting factor in enabling them to play a full role in present day society.

Whilst equating disability rights issues with those of other oppressed groups there is a need to be cautious with regards to generalisations. Parallels between the campaign for the rights of ethnic minorities, women, or gay groups can clearly be drawn, but each has its own specific issues which need to be considered as unique. Jenny Morris, a disabled feminist writer has even suggested that other groups who have campaigned for social justice, including those within the feminist movement have often failed to provide a platform upon which disabled rights can be expressed. This she suggests results from misunderstanding, stereotyping, and ignorance of disability issues.

"Disabled people - men and women - have little opportunity to portray our own experiences within the general culture - or within radical political movements. Our experience is isolated, individualised; the definitions which society places on us centre on judgements of individual capacities and personalities. This lack of a voice, of the representation of our subjective reality, means that it is difficult for non disabled feminists to incorporate our reality into their research or their theories, unless it is in terms of the way the non-disabled world sees us."

(Morris, J. (1995) P. 213.

Morris has previously emphasised (1990) her perception that attitudes towards disabled people have been based upon an assumption that they are 'alien to normal society'. Other disabled writers (Mason 1990, Aspis 1991) have expressed the view that a message is given to all disabled children right from their early years, that there is something fundamentally wrong with them which demands separation from the rest of society. The only way to overcome such attitudes, they believe is to fully integrate all aspects of life, beginning with inclusive education.

The theory of normalization and other ethical foundations, whilst seen as influential in the inclusion debate, has also been subject to much critical scrutiny. Rawls, writing in

1972 suggests that there is an inherent difficulty experienced by any individual who must make a decision on behalf of another. As he states:

" Endowed with ideal powers of sympathy and imagination, the impartial spectator is the perfectly rational individual who identifies with and experiences the desires of others as if these desires were his own. In this way he ascertains the intensity of these desires, and assigns them their appropriate weight in the one system of desire the satisfaction of which the ideal legislator then tries to maximize by adjusting the rules of the social system."

Rawls, J. (1972) P. 27.

He goes on to suggest that the likelihood of all decision makers being impartial, having a full understanding of the needs of another individual and having the capacity or influence to make appropriate changes to the structure of society, is not great.

Whilst we may be working towards ideals, we are less likely to be frustrated if we recognise that changes in society are more likely to have a long term impact when they are gained through a process of evolution rather than revolution. Rawls is critical of the ways in which those placed in care situations, working at the behest of a society unable to come to terms with a minority group of disabled people, can become labelled as controllers and manipulators of this group and treated almost as social pariahs. In a move towards inclusion there is a danger that those who have chosen to work with disabled people are made to feel guilty as upholders of the status quo.

Certainly this is a view expressed by some teachers in special schools who feel themselves devalued within a system which is critical of segregated provision. These teachers, the majority of whom chose to work with children with special educational needs where others have elected not to do so, now find themselves besieged within the inclusion debate by those who condemn special schools as an obstruction of children's rights.

The principle of normalization as outlined by Wolfensberger is certainly important in providing a starting point for the inclusion debate. Indeed, returning to the example provided by Foucault (op.cit) we have an acknowledgement that stable change will only take place when an ethical debate recognises shortcomings and leads to a commitment to improvement. As Foucault suggests, such change is largely dependent upon the change of climate within contemporary society. It would certainly appear that a global perspective of the education of pupils with special educational needs is calling for a change to more inclusive systems, and therefore change is likely to be imminent. Yet as we have often seen within education, a hasty movement from debate to implementation of policy can lead to change which is either superficial, or made without due consideration of all the implications.

Wolfensberger's principle can be summarised in terms of three key suggestions:

1. That people who are disabled are currently devalued through negatively valued differentness. This largely results from perceptions which are created by emphasising 'differentness' through such processes as separate provision.
2. That society is a unified cultural whole which, rather than containing a series of competing groups which are culturally, politically and morally diverse, consists of individuals, all of whom fall within a 'normal' continuum.
3. That whilst much of society claims to believe in equality, it remains content in supporting discriminatory practices by comforting itself with the view that it is being beneficent.

Whilst there is much within this view which could provide some guiding principles for a way forward to achieve inclusion, there is considerable danger in taking these three points at face value. Abberley (1989) has argued that in seeing disability as an equal opportunities issue we need to exercise caution. A perceived weakness with Wolfensberger's theory is the interpretation of equality as defining everyone in the same terms. Abberley sees this as a false notion. To view everyone as being the same, and requiring similar treatment is, in his view, a denial of individuality, and a failure to recognise physiological and psychological differences in each person's make up. Those who advocate a narrow view based upon normalization are in Abberley's terms in danger of creating a false view of disabled people as 'normal'. Recognition of 'differentness' may in fact be an important factor in enabling society to create better facilities and a more conducive environment in which disabled people can function more effectively.

Abberley further discusses a phenomena which he describes as 'internalized oppression'. This he describes as occurring when an individual feels bad about themselves because of comparisons with others who may have personal advantages which they are denied. This point has been particularly strongly expressed by members of the deaf community, some of whom see themselves as having a right to create their own 'sub-section' of society on the basis of providing approaches which make life more comfortable to themselves. Beazley and Moore (1995) provide examples of a time when deaf children were discouraged from using British Sign Language as a means of communication on the grounds that it was not the lingua franca of the nation and would therefore make children stand out as being different.

This in fact denied them access to the form of communication which was best suited to their individual needs. Wolfensberger's suggestion that recognition of differences is a negative factor in our view of children with special educational needs, may be seen to be too much of a generalisation when considering the views of, for example, the deaf community.

For the teacher in school, a failure to recognise that some children will need to be treated in a way which is different from others is equally likely to be a source of frustration. Just as we recognise that not all children learn to read in the same ways, we must equally acknowledge that for some children communication may be through the use of signing, symbols, or technological aids. For others access to aspects of the curriculum may be through use of a head pointer, a laptop computer, or an amanuensis. These differences of requirement need to be acknowledged, along with a recognition that in order to meet them teachers may need skills and understanding beyond that required for working with other pupils. Inclusion may well be about providing all teachers with these skills in order that children can be educated in mainstream schools. The achievement of this may be less easily brought about by a denial that such individual differences exist and have an impact upon the abilities of children to learn.

Recent writers on inclusion such as Stainback and Stainback (1992), Lipsky and Gartner (1996), Vlachou (1997) and Ferguson (1998) in considering the views of Wolfensberger have tended to accept that the moral and ethical arguments for full inclusion have been won. These views have been further endorsed through the Salamanca Statement passed by UNESCO in 1994 which stated that:

"Inclusion and participation are essential to human dignity and to the enjoyment and exercise of human rights. Within the field of education, this is reflected in the development of strategies that seek to bring about a genuine equalization of opportunity".

Salamanca Statement (UNESCO 1994) P.11

It may be concluded that the ideological discussions of inclusion have moved current educational thinking nearer to a shared view, that the exclusion of pupils from mainstream education on grounds of special educational needs is unacceptable. Whilst this view may prevail, there remain a number of opinions with regards to how this may be achieved. Mithaug (1998) in reviewing the ideological developments of inclusion in the USA through the 1990s believes that polarisation within the inclusion movement can be identified in terms of four distinct strands. These he labels welfarism, liberalism, conservatism and libertarianism. He suggests that welfarists and liberals argue that social policy should maximise the inclusion of what he terms left-out people, whereas conservatives and libertarians would prefer that social policies should minimise the exclusion of this same group. Although each group can be seen to acknowledge that inclusion is a moral goal towards which society should move, they disagree fundamentally with regards to the actions which should be taken to achieve this. Mithaug states that the welfarist and liberal pro-inclusion lobby advocate that advances be made by guaranteeing full participation by all parties. Whereas the anti-exclusionist conservatives and libertarians would insist that the same ideal should be gained by demanding that all new members of the inclusive environment should conform to a set of rules which enable inclusion to take place comfortably.

The pro-inclusionist arguments put forward in Mithaug's work relate closely to the views expressed by Wolfensberger. They build upon the philosophy that it is unacceptable to deny any individual the opportunity to participate fully in aspects of mainstream society, including schooling. If this is viewed as a matter of right, it is essential that the institutions at the heart of society change their structures and practices in order to accommodate those who are currently seen as being outside of its remit. The converse, anti-exclusionary argument believes that the individual must take responsibility for his or her own actions, and that where existing structures and institutions have been established there is a need to ensure that each individual is taught to conform in order to take their place. Where the individual can demonstrate an ability to conform, they should not be denied an opportunity to become a fully included part of the society to which they aspire. This argument, Mithaug states is built upon the notion that merit is the best means of measuring the right of the individual to participate in full inclusion.

These contrasting views, whilst having an ideological base, can be seen as important in the context of today's educational climate. The first, pro-inclusionist standpoint requires that schools change in order to accommodate the needs of pupils who are currently educated within segregated provision. This can be achieved only if certain conditions are met. Firstly, schools and those who manage them both at local and national government level need to have a vision of educational purpose which recognises the right of all children to be included. Whilst many LEAs now have inclusion policies, it is not evident that many have taken the steps necessary to increase inclusion, and indeed the special school population throughout the UK has been steadily increasing. In 1997 the number of pupils in special schools in the United

Kingdom was 100,600 (source: DFEE). Secondly, schools need to be given flexibility in terms of the curriculum and their management approaches in order to be able to provide the structures needed to recognise the needs of a population with a broad range of needs and abilities. Many teachers and school managers would suggest that the legislation of the late 1980s and throughout the 1990s has imposed greater control over schools, their curriculum and teaching approaches, and has denied them the opportunity to develop the flexibility which might be judged essential.

The anti-exclusionary approach may be seen to have been more dominant in recent years. The raising of school standards in academic terms has been at the stated heart of legislation throughout both the previous Conservative and current Labour administrations. The focus of actions in this area has been upon measuring performance in terms of academic performance, schools being judged successful by outcomes driven criteria. This in turn has coincided with an increase in school exclusions, and though there is little empirical evidence to suggest that these two factors are directly related, it may be that a climate conducive to inclusion is not being created in many of our schools. It is possible that at a time when the educational arguments in favour of inclusion are at their strongest, the political, social and economic considerations in support of inclusion are at their lowest ebb. Writing about conditions in the USA Murray (1994) has suggested that:

"The most persuasive interpretation [of the economic and social trends of the 1980s] is that the United States has settled into a long term evolution in which the people who have something going for them - especially high cognitive ability - will do better and better, socially and economically, while those who do not will do worse and worse."

Murray, C. (1994) cited in Mithaug (1998) P. 8

Whilst Murray was referring to the position in the United States, a similar argument may be put forward for the UK. Murray may be making a plea against the development of a materialistic and selfish society in which a gap will widen between the 'haves and the have nots'. The alternative is to accept that within society there is a responsibility to protect and support the weaker or less fortunate members of a community and to defend their right to both individuality and inclusion. Parfit (1986) has suggested that such a paradox is likely to be at the heart of many of the decisions which we make about our attitudes towards minority groups or those perceived as weaker members of our society in the future. His views, like those of other moral philosophers (Trivers 1971) demand that any improvement of the lot of minority groups, including the disabled, is dependent upon the development of altruistic attitudes which may involve a shift in values away from current trends towards materialism. Personal attitudes are central to any movement for change, including the development of inclusive education.

Discussions of attitude are well represented within the inclusion literature. Indeed discussions of attitudes towards people with disabilities remains at the crux of any debate about changes in procedures or attempts to challenge the status quo. Le Roy and Simpson (1996) have made the point that teacher beliefs can be seen as a key to underpinning change towards greater inclusion. In their research conducted in Michigan State they examined teacher perceptions of the rights of children with special educational needs, and their beliefs with regards to the ways in which they should be taught. As a result of their research they compiled a list of beliefs which they saw as desirable for underpinning any moves towards inclusion, these being:

- Participation is a right
- Activities and materials must be age appropriate
- Activities should be co-operatively implemented with typical peers.
- Activities should promote self advocacy.
- Activities should be functional and outcome orientated.
- Use of natural supports should be promoted whenever possible.

Le Roy, B and Simpson, C. (1996) P. 11.

Forlin (1995) has also considered the importance of teacher attitudes in the move towards inclusion. In a study conducted in Western Australia, Forlin examined teacher beliefs about the stresses involved in working with children who exhibit a range of special educational needs. Of the 273 teachers and principals (head teachers) questioned by Forlin about their attitudes to teaching pupils with special needs, the majority appeared to be more accepting of children with physical disabilities than they were of those with intellectual difficulties. Interestingly, Forlin also discovered that the more experienced teachers, those with eleven or more years teaching experience, were less favourably disposed towards inclusion than were more recently qualified teachers. This equates well to the findings of O'Neill and Linfoot (1989) who also found that teachers were more committed to the ideals of inclusion in their first two years of teaching. A significant suggestion contained within Forlin's work, is that there was a difference in attitudes between those teachers who were working in inclusive situations, and those who were not. Teachers who were in non-inclusive schools attributed similar levels of stress to working with pupils who did and did not have special educational needs. By contrast, those who were teaching pupils in inclusive situations attributed considerably more stress to working with pupils with special educational needs. When questioned further, these teachers suggested that the greatest source of stress came from attempting to maintain a personal level of competence when faced with new and challenging situations presented by children with special educational needs.

Vlachou (1997) attributes difficulties of attitude to the general confusion which surrounds the area of inclusion.

"Teachers' attitudes towards the integration process tended to be conflicting and often confusing because the notion of integration did not have a single definition. Its meaning was rather to be found in the context and purpose of its use, depending on several educational (im)practicalities. In practice teachers' willingness and commitment in promoting integrational practices were highly influenced by the conditions within which they had to work; these conditions tended to make the commitment to inclusive education more difficult to maintain."

Vlachou, A. (1997) P. 115.

Vlachou describes how teachers feel under pressure and overload from a bureaucratic system which has imposed too many changes upon schools. She reports that teachers often find themselves in conflict with the motives behind these changes, and that in the present educational climate many view the move towards greater inclusion as an additional challenge, and possibly one too far. The idea of inclusion is seen by some teachers to be in conflict with the pressure to 'improve results', and in some instances pupils with special educational needs are regarded with suspicion as culprits in lowering the school's overall academic performance. Vlachou suggests that most teachers will speak favourably of the need for greater inclusion, but that this positive attitude is driven by their feelings of moral responsibility and a desire to arrest prejudice. The same teachers express concerns about inclusion when asked to review the pedagogical and other educational implications which it reveals.

The ways in which attitudes are developed is an important consideration here. It may be that whilst many teachers will believe that in the ideal situation all pupils should be included in mainstream schools, their experience of existing school challenges and

their lack of expertise with children with special educational needs will lead them to a view that too many obstacles stand in the way of achieving inclusive classrooms. It would be easy to condemn those teachers who display a lack of enthusiasm for inclusion, but we must be wary of doing so at a time when the debate remains at a philosophical level and there is relatively little advice as to how this may be moved from theory to practice.

Whilst a general acceptance of the philosophy of inclusion may be seen to be more acceptable to teachers as we enter the twenty first century, a number of difficulties remain. It may be that teacher perceptions of the challenges of including pupils with special educational needs do not wholly equate to the reality of practice.

Apprehensions are often based upon a lack of experience and may lead to anticipated problems which in reality fail to materialise. Jenkinson (1993, 1995, 1997) indicates that the development of positive teacher attitudes towards pupils with special educational needs is a key factor in moving towards increased inclusion. She also recognises significance in the worries expressed by some parents with regards to the differing attitudes of teachers in mainstream and special schools.

Research conducted by Padeliaou and Lampropoulou (1997) suggests that many teachers in mainstream schools have developed a positive outlook towards pupils with special educational needs, but that their beliefs about inclusion are strongly influenced by the category of a pupil's needs and its severity. In one of the more extensive surveys of teacher attitudes, which involved 337 teachers, they concluded that intervention strategies which focused upon changing teacher's attitudes towards inclusion may be needed in order to make progress. They suggest that such interventions, which might consist of awareness raising and skills development,

should not only address mainstream teachers but also the specialists who often have a view that inclusion is an unattainable goal. Their conclusions about teacher attitudes echo those of Stukat (1993) and Stainback and Stainback (1992) who concur with a belief that negative attitudes often result from ignorance and that this might prove to be the greatest obstacle to changing teacher perceptions and the single most significant impediment to a more inclusive society

Whilst the philosophical and ethical debate is perceived as having reached if not a conclusion, at least a large consensus of agreement amongst professionals and members of the disabled community, there still remains the major issue of how such theory can translate into practice. Ware (1995) articulates the view that if inclusion is to be achieved, it will require 'fundamental changes of the most basic structural features of schools as organisations' (P. 127). She recognises that the debate thus far has centred almost exclusively upon philosophical views and that the time has come when a more empirical base needs to be established. If this is truly the case, it is essential that we are clear in our view as to those systems which are most likely to have benefits for all pupils and the ways in which they may be achieved and managed. A view of the empirical basis for the efficacy of inclusion needs to be established, and will form the basis of the next section of this literature review.

2.4 Educational efficacy, the arguments for and against inclusion.

Moves towards increased inclusion have been in evidence throughout Europe, the USA and Australasia for the past two decades, and there are many factual accounts of how this has been organised (O'Hanlon 1993, Ainscow 1996, Booth, 1996, Rouse and Florian 1996, Labon 1997, Ballard and MacDonald 1998). However, evaluations of inclusive practice have been less frequently published. This can be seen as a particular weakness in the arguments put forward by both the pro and anti inclusionist lobbies.

An early critic of the movement towards inclusion was Stobart (1986) who objected not so much to the principle, but rather to the lack of a sound educational or psychological basis for its development. He suggested that discussions of the benefits of inclusion centred upon the social, with little consideration given to the intended educational outcomes. He called for greater attention to be given to investigations of efficacy stating that:

"...it is possible to justify integration on theoretical grounds, but that in doing so the theory will have to be far more precisely stated and several of the current integration practices will need modification if a successful outcome is to be predicted. Much of what has previously passed as psychological theorizing has been no more than a loose and wishful synthesis of psychological models which has led to the assumption that merely placing handicapped children in ordinary classrooms will result in: (a) increased social interaction between handicapped and non-handicapped children: (b) increased social acceptance of handicapped children by their non-handicapped peers; and (c) mainstreamed handicapped children modelling the behaviour of their non-handicapped peers because of the exposure to them"

Stobart, G. (1986) P. 1.

Stobart was not opposed to the move towards inclusion, but did express a view that greater clarification of the conditions which would need to be created in schools was

an urgent need. He predicted that a rush to inclusion based only upon flimsy though well meaning theories would lead to a melee of laissez faire policies which would ultimately have minimal benefits to all concerned.

The expression of Stobart's concerns was important at this time when teachers and researchers were striving to clarify what mainstream provision for pupils with special needs might look like. Hegarty, Pocklington and Lucas (1984) made an important contribution to the debate at this time and emphasised that integration must be seen as a means of providing pupils with special educational needs with an effective education, rather than an end in itself. They recognised a danger that integration could be seen as a goal in its own right, and that there might be an automatic assumption that pupils with special educational needs are always better off in a mainstream school. They voiced a concern that a rush to inclusion before effective practices were established could result in a backlash where teachers would see that pupils' needs were not being met and would thereafter adopt an anti-inclusionary stance.

"Educating pupils with special needs in the ordinary school is not simply a question of importing special education to the ordinary school.....What is required is that the school adapt its educational provision so as to be able to cater for a wider variety of pupils. This means a highly flexible range of provision, planned as a whole - since the school is a single entity - but incorporating a multitude of possibilities and not just a simple choice between ordinary and special tracks."

Hegarty, S., Pocklington, K, and Lucas, D. (1984) P. 17.

Paul and Ward (1996) have argued that inclusion can be seen as a 'paradigmatic' issue into which opinion has divided in two distinct camps. The first of these they describe as the 'comparison paradigm' in which comparisons are made between pupils labelled as having special educational needs and those seen as their 'normal' peers. Within this

context judgements are made about the suitability of the individual for placement in mainstream education based upon a vague criteria of 'normality' by which children may be measured. The second model, which the authors trace back to Kant's categorical imperative, they describe as the 'ethical paradigm', which assumes that the acceptance of all individuals into a society which sees equality as its highest goal is morally immutable and cannot be subject to compromise. Paul and Ward believe that the inclusion debate will be maintained at a philosophical level and that inclusion will never be justified purely through scientific analysis of its application. However, they do acknowledge that in order to progress our understanding of the pragmatics of inclusion, it will be necessary to develop a clearer research base upon which to make judgements regarding efficacy or the deployment of effective methodologies. In their plea for a greater analysis of pedagogy and its impact upon inclusion, Paul and Ward are acknowledging that we are some distance from being able to define what works best in the classroom.

There are major difficulties in making any statements regarding the efficacy of inclusion. The term special educational needs covers a wide range of needs and abilities and a complexity of issues which do not sit comfortably under one heading. Children labelled as having a special educational need may have learning difficulties, sensory or intellectual impairments, a physical disability, or an emotional and behavioural difficulty, and in many instances will actually exhibit qualities associated with two or more of these descriptors. There are inherent dangers in making generalised statements about the education of pupils with special needs when so many variables need to be considered. A mainstream learning environment which works well for one child may be less than successful for another, and it has been suggested

(Lowenbraun and Affleck 1978, Madden and Slavin 1983, Manset and Semmel 1997) that more than one model of inclusion might be necessary if we are to consider mainstream education for all pupils.

A similar difficulty exists in making fair comparisons. Some studies such as those undertaken by Baker et al. (1994) and Waldron and Mcleskey (1998) have been criticised for failing to take account of either the nature of pupil difficulties, or the environmental factors which make comparison between mainstream and special school placements difficult to justify. Baker and his colleagues state that:

"Considerable evidence from the last 15 years suggests that segregation of special students in separate classrooms is actually deleterious to their academic performance and social adjustment, and that special students generally perform better on average in regular classrooms."

Baker, E. T., Wang, M. C, and Walberg, H. J. (1994) P. 34.

This statement is based upon a review of USA studies of inclusion from the mid 1970s until the early 1990s, but fails to elaborate upon how the conclusions in favour of inclusion were reached.

Waldron and Mcleskey (1998) restricted their study to pupils who in the UK education system would be described as having mild or severe learning difficulties. They undertook research into the inclusion of elementary age pupils to address three key questions:-

1. How does the academic progress in reading and mathematics of students with learning difficulties who are educated in inclusive settings compare to the progress made by students who are educated in special settings?
2. How does the academic progress of students with learning difficulties who are educated in inclusive and special placements compare to typical peers?

3. Does placement setting differentially influence the academic progress made by students with more and less severe learning difficulties?

Students for comparison were baselined using the Kaufman Test of Educational Achievement Brief Form (K-TEA) (1985) and the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children (1991), and educational progress was measured using a curriculum based measure called The Basic Academic Skills Samples (BASS) (Espin et al. 1989).

Performance figures for reading and mathematics, and for overall academic performance were measured for pupils working in both special and mainstream class settings.

The results obtained by Waldron and Leskey make interesting reading. They discovered that students with learning difficulties in inclusive settings made significantly more progress in reading than did students who were educated in non-inclusive situations. In mathematics pupils in both settings made comparable progress. The authors suggest that their findings are similar to those of other researchers (Affleck et al. 1988, Proctor 1990) but that there are some discrepancies and that these are such that it is impossible to reach a definite conclusion. They did conclude that whilst there were differences in performance of pupils with moderate learning difficulties according to the educational placement, there was no significant change of performance in those with more severe learning difficulties. Waldron and Leskey suggest that the results of their research demonstrate that when students with learning difficulties are educated in what they describe as 'well developed inclusive settings', approximately fifty percent of these students make progress that is comparable to, or greater than the progress made by their mainstream peers. These figures equate well to those presented by Zigmond and Baker (1995) who also suggested that in inclusive schools about fifty percent of pupils do not make significant progress when compared

to peers in segregated provision. Waldron and Leskey use their findings to recommend that under the USA legislation (IDEA as described above) if pupils are making progress which is comparable to their peers they should be educated in a Least Restrictive Environment (LRE) situation.

Cole and Meyer (1991) conducted a study into the efficacy of inclusion for pupils with severe disabilities over a two year period. Their data collected through observation and the use of standardised assessment procedures addressed two areas of development categorised as social and intellectual functioning. The pupils in their study had a wide range of special educational needs, including cerebral palsy, autism, visual impairment and hearing impairment. A comparison was made between pupils in segregated and inclusive provision using structured observational methods in a range of in-school contexts which included in-class, moving between classes, and off site school activities. Cole and Meyer reported that in self help, gross and fine motor co-ordination, communication and adaptive behaviour they recorded no significant difference in performance between included and segregated pupils over the two year period. However, over the same period the pupils in inclusive settings improved in their ability to manage their own behaviour, accept assistance, and cope with negative circumstances. Children in the segregated provision tended to regress in all of these domains. Cole and Meyer conclude that:

"Placernent in integrated schools neither compromised the intensity of services, nor had a negative impact upon educational performance. On the contrary, integrated placements predicted significantly greater gains on a measure of social competence after two years than did segregated placements."

Cole and Meyer (1991) P. 349.

A major difficulty with the research reported by Cole and Meyer (1991), as with that of Waldron and Leskey (1998) and Zigmond and Baker (1995) is that they fail to deal with a large number of variables which may potentially influence their findings. Indeed, if we only consider the wide range of special needs reported upon within the small scale study conducted by Cole and Meyer (1991) we can see that the making of comparisons is fraught with dangers. Furthermore, the discussion of the research conducted in each of these three studies, whilst acknowledging limitations does not discuss the implications for different learning environments, group sizes or teaching styles. The limitations of matched sample comparisons in social sciences research have been highlighted by Mason (1996) who writes of the dangers of attempting to generalise findings from research where comparative performances are recorded in different institutions. This point is further addressed by Bassey (1995) who urges researchers to consider what he describes as the study of singularities. These he suggests are studies in which it is possible to state that pupils performed in a particular way under specific circumstances. However, attempts to generalise these findings without due consideration of the many factors which may be different in other schools, even within the same neighbourhood, are fraught with difficulties. In Bassey's terms, the two research studies here described have great value as studies of singularities in terms of giving us information about the performance of specific individuals. They also provide the reader with some pointers as to areas which may be in need of further research.

One American study conducted at the beginning of the 1980s attempted to examine the efficacy of inclusion in a more scientific manner. Unlike many research projects

on inclusion, Carlberg and Kavale (1980) developed a technique to analyse fifty previous studies into inclusion. In reviewing the literature on inclusion, these two researchers identified numerous contradictions, and suggested that the body of research reported was in general unhelpful in enabling educators to gain a picture of the advantages and disadvantages which inclusive systems may bring. Carlberg and Kavale began by providing precise definitions and criteria for identifying terms such as learning difficulty or behaviour difficulty. In so doing they were able to overcome some of the difficulties of unfair comparisons which had been previously made. Within their study, these two writers suggested that on the basis of existing studies it was impossible to reach conclusions regarding the efficacy of inclusion, and that this may be because of three factors. These they described as

No treatment effect. It is possible that mainstream or special placements have only minimal effect upon the child with special educational needs. If this is the case, then the researcher might expect a variety of findings. In particular it may be that findings from quantitative studies would not be statistically significant, or as Carlberg and Kavale suggest, if statistically significant, not substantively so.

Power. This refers to the adequacy of the statistical instruments used to differentiate significant differences within groups. This may be a particular problem in research associated with children with special educational needs. The authors point out that if variability amongst class means is small relative to variability amongst individual students - a likely scenario in the case of pupils with special educational needs, the statistical test has low power. If this is true of a significant number of the studies

conducted into the efficacy of inclusion, it may be that the interpretation of results has led to false interpretation and conclusions.

Robson (1979) draws attention to this very problem, emphasising the need for caution where one or two pupils in a group may have characteristics which are significantly different from those of their peers. When comparing the performance of these pupils to others in the class, statistical procedures may well be less sensitive at detecting the effect of specific differences. Researchers need to proceed with particular care in the choice of statistical instruments and may possibly conclude that quantitative approaches are inappropriate. Robson's words of caution are reinforced by Griffiths (1998) who describes the epistemological problems of dealing with populations seen as having some divergence from the 'norm'. Epistemology, with a concern for a theory of knowledge, requires that we recognise the limitations of standard theories when examining populations which in any way differ from the expectations which we have gained through our study of standard groups.

Internal validity. Carlberg and Kavale point out that validity is often established through the use of a comparison group methodology. In particular, random assignment of students is seen as the preferred method for initially ensuring the equivalence of groups. This is not easily established in practice and has led to the use of less reliable methodologies such as matched pairs in some of the research conducted into inclusion. This situation they suggest, is far from satisfactory and the credibility of the findings of most efficacy studies is weakened by the possibility that one class or school studied may have advantages over another, and that this will have unduly influenced the outcomes.

Carlberg and Kavale attempted to overcome these difficulties by deploying a technique which they describe as meta-analysis. Using this technique large numbers of primary data, in the case of their study evidence from fifty previous research reports on inclusion, are collated and subjected to a rigorous analysis. An inspection of the fifty research studies was made and the properties of these investigations were categorised according to four variables, these being described as:

Subject variable

Major category of exceptionality (special educational need)
Categorical combination if more than one category of SEN was identified.
Mean I.Q, special and regular classes.
Mean age, special and regular classes.
Percentage of males in total sample.
Socioeconomic status of pupils in the sample.

Treatment

Duration of treatment.
Training level of teachers.

Design

Solicitation of subjects.
Group assignment.
Sample size, special and regular classes.
Type of comparison group.
Number of threats to internal validity.

Outcome

Type of outcome measure.
Post treatment delay of measurement.
Reactivity of outcome measure.
Blindness of outcome measure.

These variables were considered in relation to the fifty inclusion studies and the interpretation of reported results was reviewed alongside of these. This was achieved

by using meta-analysis, first described by Glass (1978) as a statistical tool which measures effect size within the studies compared. Meta-analysis is designed specifically to address the problems associated with no treatment effect, power, and internal validity described above. By using this approach, Carlberg and Kavale could examine the comparison groups within the studies under consideration. They defined these as experimental groups (the inclusive class groups) and comparison groups (the segregated class groups). In order to consider the effects of the variables described above they used the meta-analysis formula to measure effect size.

$$ES = (\overline{X_e} - \overline{X_c}) / SD_c$$

Effect size **Experimental Group** **Comparison Group** **Standard deviation of comparison Group.**

The approach adopted by Carlberg and Kavale is particularly interesting as it makes efficient use of data collected through a number of studies and attempts to overcome many of the difficulties associated with making fair comparisons. Their findings certainly indicated a need for caution when interpreting the reported results of many of the small scale surveys. Overall the findings reported by Carlberg and Kavale indicated that the average pupil in a segregated classroom stood at approximately the 45th percentile of subjects in a regular class. The comparison regular class students were seen by definition to be at the 50th percentile, indicating superior overall performance. On this basis, though still exercising caution, the researchers concluded that pupils in inclusive classrooms were likely to make more progress in academic terms than their segregated peers. The statistics gathered by Carlberg and Kavale, when collated showed that special class pupils were performing less well than pupils with learning difficulties in mainstream schools on the achievement, social, and personality scales used for assessment. Furthermore, the authors concluded that

special class placement improved neither a child's academic status, or their personal or social performance.

Carlberg and Kavale conducted their study almost twenty years ago, and we need to consider the ways in which education has changed over this period. Similarly, we must be aware that the results obtained from a survey in American schools may not be directly applicable to the UK education system. An appreciation of Carlberg and Kavale's work is important however, when considering that they have highlighted important indicators with regards to the limitations of much of the research conducted into inclusion. They have provided a useful reminder of the difficulties faced by researchers in this area, and of equal significance is the influence which they have exerted over the interpretation of several of the studies which followed their work.

A similar review of the inclusion literature was conducted by Hunt and Goetz (1997). It is to be anticipated that the seventeen years which had passed since the publication of Carlberg and Kavale's work would have seen many developments in the movement towards greater inclusion. It may therefore be seen as somewhat surprising that many of the difficulties highlighted in the earlier review were still apparent in the findings of Hunt and Goetz. These later writers concentrated their efforts in an analysis of inclusion literature reported in the three premier USA special education journals between 1992 and 1996, this comprised nineteen studies in all. Some caution needs to be exercised in interpretation of the findings of Hunt and Goetz when we recognise that of the nineteen studies reviewed five had involved either one or both of these authors.

Hunt and Goetz conducted semi-structured interviews with the parents of 13 children who had severe or moderate learning difficulties in order to assess whether their perceptions of the efficacy of inclusion equated to the overall findings of the studies considered in their review. Each of the parents interviewed had experience of both segregated and inclusive education, and parents were asked to address questions related to three specific areas.

1. Skill acquisition before and after inclusion.
2. The most significant benefits perceived by parents for their children within inclusive schooling.
3. Their vision for their child's future as affected by inclusive educational placements.

All parents interviewed reported a positive view of the efficacy of inclusion for their children. In particular they cited improved communication skills, greater social interaction and the establishment of friendships, and improved social behaviours as benefits which they perceived their children to have gained through inclusion in mainstream schools. Hunt and Goetz suggest that their findings equated to those of other researchers reported within their review. Unlike Carlberg and Kavale, Hunt and Goetz did not take measures to address several of the variables which may have influenced their findings. For example, they cite the work of Giangreco, Edelman, Cloninger and Dennis (1993), where parents of pupils who did not have special educational needs were asked for their comments on having pupils with special educational needs in their child's class. The results reported by Giangreco et al. indicated that:

1. The children felt comfortable interacting with SEN pupils.
2. Opportunities to interact with SEN pupils had a positive impact upon their child's social and emotional development.
3. Their child felt positively towards SEN children.
4. Inclusion did not interfere with educational performance.
5. Having a disabled classmate was a positive experience.

Whilst the reader may draw positive conclusions about the experience of inclusion from both the findings of Hunt and Goetz, and those reported from Giangreco et al, there must be a recognition that the motivations and perceptions of these two parent groups come from differing perspectives. Each parent, quite understandably is likely to view the outcomes of the learning experience in terms of their own child's interests and will report their views accordingly.

The work of Hunt and Goetz, like that of Carlberg and Kavale before them is important in revealing both the significance and the limitations of research conducted in this area. They concur with Carlberg and Kavale in suggesting that studies which actually measure the acquisition of skills and academic achievement by included pupils are very limited. The absence of empirical research which addresses efficacy from the field of inclusion is seen as a serious weakness, and indicates a need for more systematic investigation in this area. Much of the work reported depends upon perception and interpretation rather than providing concrete evidence of what is effective within inclusive practice.

Sebba and Sachdev (1997) suggests that the interpretation of successful inclusion is dependent upon the criteria against which it is measured. They emphasise the importance of providing a broad view of the purpose of the inclusion process. Effectiveness, they state, should be measured in terms of both social and academic progress. This is readily justified when considering the emphasis which has traditionally been placed upon self help and independence skills in segregated special schools. There is a recognition that for some pupils with special educational needs, educational priorities may differ from those of their peers and will require successful

inclusive schools to be flexible and responsive to individual needs. In the terms of Sebba and Sachdev's argument, schools may be assisted in supporting a wider range of pupil needs if social adjustment and progress is valued as much as the academic measures by which schools are currently judged. This is an interesting argument, but does not rest easily alongside a system which measures the performance of schools in terms of academic outcomes and examination only of core curriculum subjects. Jupp (1992) takes up this point in his study of children with severe learning difficulties and additional physical disabilities in mainstream provision. His research clearly indicates that these pupils made improvements in self help, cognition, concentration and language skills. He suggests that access to good role models may have been a significant factor in bringing about these improvements, but that an expectation that the outcomes for these pupils could be interpreted in solely academic terms would lead to an interpretation that inclusion was less than successful.

Kaskinen-Chapman (1992) also conducted research into the education of children with severe learning difficulties in mainstream schools, and reported that improvements in social behaviours, linguistic skills and awareness were evident to teachers working with these pupils. Hunt, Staub, Alwell and Goetz (1994) examined the social benefits which were gained by children in inclusive situations, and again emphasised the social nature of these. In particular increased social contact with non special needs peers was seen to result in higher levels of peer support and improved friendship networks. Like much of the research in this area, very little evidence is presented in terms of what might be called improved academic performance.

The social advantages of inclusion are well documented, however, the view that a recognition and equal weighting of social improvement with academic achievement is significant does not find favour in all quarters. Shanker (1995) challenges the notion that inclusion is appropriate for all pupils, and proposes that a clear criteria is established to define which children should be included:

"We need to discard the ideology that inclusion in a regular classroom is the only appropriate placement for a disabled child, and get back to the idea of a 'continuum of placements' based on the nature and severity of the handicap. Make the ability to function in a regular classroom, given the necessary support services, a condition for placement there."

Shanker (1995) P. 20 - 21.

The views expressed by Shanker are based upon an analysis of the current academic emphasis placed within schools, and are built upon a genuine concern that the pressures experienced by teachers in the mainstream are such, that they cannot adequately address the special educational needs of a small but significant proportion of pupils. Similar concerns are expressed by Fuchs and Fuchs (1994a, 1994b) who suggest that those whom they label as 'full inclusionists' have failed to take account of those pupils who require an "intensity and systematicity of instruction uncommon to general education classrooms' (1994b. P. 304). They claim that inclusion has become a politicised and emotionally charged issue in which the voice of the pragmatist has been lost in the clamour to achieve an ideal. The existing mainstream education system, they suggest, is not yet ready or prepared to adjust its practices sufficiently to meet the needs of those who exhibit the more challenging special needs. This being the case, Fuchs and Fuchs believe that until such changes are made to recognise the needs of this small proportion of the population, segregated provision will remain a necessity and will continue to provide what they describe as a 'milieu therapy' within a totally supportive environment.

Those who advocate full inclusion will dismiss the views of Shanker and Fuchs and Fuchs in part by invoking the humanistic arguments developed by Wolfensberger. The entitlement of children with special educational needs to have full access to all aspects of society, including schooling alongside their peers, is paramount within the pro-inclusion argument. Yet there are few advocates of inclusion who have not recognised the difficulties which confront the achievement of a non-segregated education system. The pragmatics of inclusion remains as the greatest challenge confronting special education in today's schools, and demands that we examine those conditions which researchers have indicated may be necessary for the creation of inclusive schools.

2.5 Creating the conditions for inclusion.

Florian (1998a, 1998b) has suggested that the achievement of inclusive schooling is largely dependent upon a reconceptualisation of teaching roles and responsibilities, but that this will not be easily achieved unless there is a willingness to move away from the current restrictions of the existing system. The teaching methods and practices required for the provision of effective inclusion are, Florian states, easier to identify than they are to implement. Common features of schools where inclusion seems to be working successfully have been identified by a number of researchers. Ainscow and Hart (1992), and Ainscow (1997) argue that consideration of the classroom and curriculum provision is an important factor in moving away from existing deficit models. They suggest that an obstacle to inclusion is the emphasis which the current education system places upon the difficulties presented by the child with special

educational needs rather than on the development of strategies and classroom practices which would enable inclusion to be achieved. They further claim that changes in classroom practices would not only benefit the child with a special educational need, but would enhance the learning of all pupils. In calling for a move away from the focus upon pupil deficits towards a whole school approach of reviewing teaching practices and learning styles, Ainscow and Hart are echoing the views of other researchers.

Porter (1995) has outlined what he describes as a comparison between traditional and inclusionary approaches to school systems. He emphasises that one of the limiting factors which exists within our traditional approach to special education, has been the over dependence upon 'experts' who are seen as necessary problem solvers within schools. The message which such an approach transmits is that mainstream teachers are neither competent or qualified to address the needs of pupils with special educational needs. Porter calls for a move away from the traditional to the inclusionary which would demand a radical overhaul of the current ways in which schools are managed. Furthermore, he suggests that changes have to occur in all areas in order for the successful management of inclusion to be assured. This requires a change on the parts of both the individual teacher, and schools as a whole. The following table taken from Thomas et al (1998) illustrates Porter's comparison of traditional and inclusionary approaches.

Figure 2: Porter's Comparison of Traditional and Inclusionary Approaches (1995)

Traditional approach	Inclusionary approach
Focus on student	Focus on classroom
Assessment of student by specialist	Examine teaching/learning factors
Diagnostic/prescriptive outcomes	Collaborative problem solving
Student programme	Strategies for teachers
Placement in appropriate programme	Adaptive and supportive regular classroom environment.

Porter, G. (1995) cited in Thomas et al. P. 13.

The contrast between the two approaches described by Porter is clear, and it is interesting to consider how far mainstream schools may already have moved in the direction of putting inclusionary practices into place. Here we can refer back to the Warnock Report (1978) and subsequent legislation, particularly the Code of Practice (1994) which has renewed an emphasis upon the importance of all teachers taking responsibility for pupils with special educational needs. Teachers in recent years have recognised that they have increased responsibility to plan and address the needs of all pupils in their classrooms, including those with special educational needs. Writers such as Gross (1993) Lewis (1995) and O'Brien (1998) have attempted to demonstrate how the teaching strategies deployed by teachers can influence the inclusion or exclusion of pupils from lessons. Differentiation has become a significant word seen by teachers as providing the key to including pupils with a range of needs and abilities in lessons. However, whilst attempts to define teacher responsibilities and to provide examples of the means by which pupils may access the curriculum have been welcomed, these approaches may have themselves presented further obstacles to the achievement of full inclusion.

The Code of Practice (1994) whilst reaffirming that pupils with special educational needs are the responsibility of all teachers, also re-established the notion of expertise through the strengthening of the role of the special educational needs co-ordinator (SENCO). In many schools this is seen as a key position in the management of children with special educational needs and has reinforced the idea of the expert who holds the key to understanding these pupils. This particular standpoint has been challenged (Dyson, Millward and Skidmore 1994, Dyson and Gains 1995) who see the emphasis of expertise invested in an individual teacher in a school as potentially damaging to inclusion. Dyson and Gains (1995) write:

" ...the implication for special needs co-ordinators is that their role - which may appear, superficially, to be so straightforward - is actually characterised by the necessity of managing *contradictions*. In particular, they have to manage a situation in which the tendency towards regarding all children as sharing the same fundamental entitlements' characteristics and 'needs' is contradicted by an equal and opposite tendency which clings to the distinctions between 'special' and 'ordinary' children, teaching and provision. As the *special* teachers in *ordinary* schools they have to be, at one and the same time, the advocates of the new movement towards inclusion and part of the traditional apparatus of separate education."

Dyson and Gains (1995) P. 51.

Here we see two contradictory elements which impact upon Porter's model of inclusionary approaches. The recognition of whole school responsibility, which in this context must be viewed as wholly positive, is counter balanced by the reaffirmation of the expert teacher in the form of the special educational needs co-ordinator. Dyson and Gains express some discomfort with this role, particularly associating it with a tendency to maintain the mystique of the special needs expert, yet others might be justified in arguing that the special educational needs co-ordinator has a critical role in enabling inclusion to work effectively. Fox (1996) sees the special educational needs co-ordinator as having a critical role in the provision of in-service training to staff.

She perceives the co-ordinator as having a detailed overview of whole school and individual staff needs, and therefore ideally suited to the development of training packages tailored to meet these. Without a level of specialist expertise this would not be possible. Clarke et al. (1995) also see the role as a vital one in providing effective leadership and team building in the school which is developing inclusive practices. In such circumstances staff need an immediate and accessible source of advice. This needs to be provided by someone on the staff who has a high level of credibility and who can inspire confidence at times when teachers are facing difficulties. The apparently contradictory views regarding the value of special educational needs co-ordinators expressed within the literature may be interpreted as a lack of clarification of the purpose of this role. The co-ordinator who retains expertise and uses this only as a means of safeguarding status, and creating the impression of being the only person with answers to special needs procedures and problem solving is likely to inhibit inclusion. By contrast, the special needs co-ordinator who has a genuine wealth of knowledge and uses this to provide encouragement and support to other staff will have a major role to play in supporting inclusive practice. In many schools the expertise of the special educational needs co-ordinator may be regarded in similar ways to that of the maths or English co-ordinator; one who has invested time in developing an understanding of the greater complexities of the subject. The consideration of the co-ordinator or specialist teacher role is an important one to which we must return shortly when considering the work of Giangreco (1997)

Similar criticisms to those levelled at special educational needs co-ordinators have been aimed at the simplistic views expressed about differentiation. Hart (1992) interprets differentiation according to the National Curriculum Council definition

(NCC 1990) as 'a set of judgements and procedures whose purpose is to accommodate differences in children's abilities, aptitudes and needs'. However, she expresses concerns that the ways in which teachers have been encouraged to use this term has led to the walking of a fine line between differentiation and discrimination. The emphasis upon differentiation worries Hart because of the focus which it applies to the child as being different and needing treatment which others do not require. Hart states that:

"The new focus on differentiation seems to me to be a retrograde step because it takes us back at least one stage in our understanding of what needs to be done to prevent or alleviate learning difficulties."

Hart (1992) P. 10.

Hart calls upon schools to make a radical shift from a focus upon the individual to a reappraisal of the curriculum, making adjustments that ensure that the needs of all pupils are encompassed within a whole curriculum framework. In such a way Hart believes that schools can create learning contexts in which they can make judgements about the effectiveness of their teaching procedures as a whole, and systems which are responsive to entire school populations. Hart acknowledges that in the current educational climate with greater curriculum prescription than has previously been experienced this is a major challenge. She believes that until schools begin from the context of curriculum development, which addresses the entire school population rather than attempting to fit individuals to an existing curriculum model, we will not create the conditions for inclusion.

Hart's views integrate well with the ideas expressed in Porter's model for inclusionary approaches, shifting the emphasis away from a focus upon the individual to a whole

school development programme. Porter elaborated his ideas (Porter 1997) and identified three critical factors in the achievement of inclusive schools and classrooms, these being:

1. Effective leadership in policy, administration and programme implementation.
2. A new role for the school based special educator.
3. Strategies for providing effective support for teachers, including training, team work, an inclusive curriculum and 'multi-level instruction.'

Porter (1997) P. 68.

Porter emphasises that in order for inclusion to be achieved classroom teachers must believe that children with special educational needs belong in the school, and must equally have the confidence that they will learn within the system provided. This can only be achieved through effective school management, which strives to create the conditions necessary for successful inclusion. In line with the views expressed by Fox (1996) Porter sees the role of the special educational needs co-ordinator needing a realignment but remaining as a critical one.

This theme of changing school structures is taken up by other writers (Heron and Jorgenson 1994, Montgomery 1996, Udvari-Solner and Thousand 1996, Wood 1998, Snell 1998) all of whom examine the conditions which schools must achieve in order to successfully educate their entire population.

Significant work in the examination of conditions to encourage and develop inclusive practice has been undertaken by Giangreco (1997) who has identified what he sees as common features of schools where inclusion has succeeded. These he describes as:

- Collaborative teamwork.
- A shared framework.
- Family involvement.
- General educator ownership.
- Clear role relationships amongst professionals.
- Effective use of support staff.
- Meaningful Individual Education Plans (IEPs)
- Procedures for evaluating effectiveness.

These features are seen by Giangreco as interrelated factors in allowing inclusive practice to be developed. His ideas mesh well with those discussed by Porter (1997). They begin with a shared philosophy and vision, proceed through the development of an effective team and are enacted through well structured teaching procedures. At a philosophical level, schools cannot begin the journey to inclusion unless there is both a consensus with regards to purpose, and a commitment to achieve. Time spent by schools, and at Local Education Authority level in defining inclusion may be important. As discussed in the introduction to this work, definitions of inclusion are many, and at times contradictory. It is therefore necessary for schools to go through a process of self analysis and appraisal in order to achieve a shared vision. Barton (1998) has been critical of the lack of direction for inclusion provided at both National and Local Government levels, Too many documents provide what he sees as being questionable notions of inclusion through the introduction of conditional language such as 'sometimes' or 'where possible', without defining what these mean. It is difficult for schools to develop a vision when LEAs prevaricate over the ways in which they intend to support schools in developing practice. Barton, in common with Giangreco (1997) urges schools to ensure that before moving towards a more inclusive system that they not only do so with well defined objectives, but that in so doing they have shared their ideals with all concerned parties.

Giangreco (1997) describes the process of developing a shared framework for inclusion (P. 195) with well defined common goals. He sees ownership by the whole school community, including parents, as being critical. Building upon this, he describes the importance of defining professional roles within schools to ensure that all take responsibility for the management of children. A particular concern which he voices relates to the danger of misuse of learning support assistants. Unless the role of the learning support assistant is well defined, there is a danger that teachers may abdicate their responsibilities towards children with special educational needs. A scenario in which the teacher concentrates his or her efforts on the majority of the class, leaving the pupil with a special educational need solely to the learning support assistant is not acceptable, and raises issues of equal opportunities.

This point is taken up by Logan and Malone (1998) who conducted a study into the education of 15 children with severe disabilities in mainstream elementary schools. They identified two key factors, individualised instruction and classroom support as enabling pupils to be included in the classrooms which they observed. In their study, pupils who did not have special educational needs received individual support from a learning support assistant on average for 1% of teaching time. This compared with pupils with special educational needs who received similar support for 25% of the time. Logan and Malone suggest that this may be a critical factor in enabling pupils to be included and that this has clear resource implications for any movement towards greater inclusion. However these writers, who do acknowledge the limitations of their research, fail to discuss either the quality of the support provided, or the degree to which this support could be regarded as essential in enabling pupil participation. An important point which they do make is that the presence of learning support assistants

is not the norm in elementary schools, and that the introduction of this role into the classroom is one which needs preparation and careful consideration. There is always a danger that the learning support assistant may intervene at times when it is not necessary, and may in fact inhibit both independence and learning. The figure of 25% cited by Logan and Malone may not be a true reflection of the needs of the individual child for support.

The use of learning support assistants is a theme taken up by Thomas et al. (1998) in the most detailed study of movement of children from a special school to the mainstream published in the UK as yet. They suggest that the use of learning support assistants solely to support an individual pupil is not consistent with the principles of inclusion. A model in which the learning support assistant works consistently under the direction of the teacher, who judges when the pupil with special educational needs requires additional support, is seen as a preferred model. In this way, the whole class benefits from the presence of a learning support assistant, and the pupil with special educational needs, whilst knowing that support is at hand, is encouraged to become independent. At an extreme, Thomas et al. express concerns that having a learning support assistant in class may inhibit the teacher from becoming more involved in working with the child with special educational needs, thus depriving that child of the teacher's expertise. They suggest that training is necessary in order that learning support assistants become increasingly effective in their roles, but they also concur with Giangreco in the belief that there is an equally important role for training in co-operative work to ensure that the pupil benefits from an effective team approach. Lewis (1995) endorses some of the reservations expressed by Thomas et al. about the use of learning support assistants, expressing particular concerns that there is a great

risk of impeding interaction between pupils with special educational needs and their peers if support assistants are over used.

Similarly, Giangreco discusses the role of the specialist teacher, which equates well to the special educational needs co-ordinator in a UK school as described above. Many of the issues which he raises are similar to those discussed earlier. However, he is much clearer in itemising the kinds of responsibilities which these important individuals should develop. In order that these specialists can play an effective role, it is necessary to ensure that they share their expertise rather than creating a dependency on the part of other teachers. Giangreco provides a list of eight points which might be assumed as part of the in-school specialist teacher role, these being:

- Adapting curriculum
- Providing individual instruction
- Providing group instruction to include SEN pupils
- Adapting instruction .
- Selecting and adapting materials .
- Training and supervising Learning Support Assistants
- Sharing responsibilities for liaison with families
- Sharing responsibility for co-ordination of support services

(Giangreco (1997) P. 197.

As has already been discussed, within UK schools the role of the specialist teacher has provoked considerable debate (Dyson and Gains 1995, Derrington 1997, Hackney 1997, Farrell 1998). Giangreco implies that this debate has run its course within the USA and that there is a general recognition that the role is in fact an essential one. It may well be the case that the provision of a clearer definition of roles as provided by Giangreco, would find favour in many UK schools. Farrell (1998) has expressed concerns that the move towards inclusion is likely to increase the workload of special educational needs co-ordinators, and certainly the breadth of responsibilities outlined

by Giangreco suggests an onerous task. However, a current concern that the 'hands on' management of children with special educational needs falls largely upon the shoulders of the co-ordinator may well be addressed so long as schools build successful teams and share ownership through defining roles in the ways which Giangreco perceives as being necessary. This could also address some of the anxieties expressed by Dyson and Gains (1995) outlined above. In order that this can be achieved it may well be a requirement that schools shift their perception of the special educational needs co-ordinator away from that of the 'specialist expert' and more towards one of facilitation. The suggestion made by Clarke et al. (1995) that the role of the special educational needs co-ordinator is in need of a significant reappraisal would certainly find favour with both Giangreco and Porter. In order to achieve the model of special needs management and support teaching it is essential that effective systems of communication are established in schools. Studies by Allan (1995) Sebba, Ainscow and Lakin (1996) and Thomas and Webb (1997) have indicated that communication between class teachers and specialist teachers is an area of particular weakness in the support of children with special educational needs in mainstream schools.

In an earlier work Giangreco (1996) has stressed the importance of keeping in mind the purpose for which children are in schools. Whilst it may be possible to accommodate a child with special educational needs in the classroom unless they are learning, the educational validity of inclusion is in question. He suggests that we need to review teaching styles, and to assure ourselves that the classroom practices which we adopt are sufficiently flexible to encompass a full range of pupil needs and abilities. Knight (1999) whose work on inclusion has been largely located in

Australia, believes that effective teaching can be measured in terms of its appropriateness to all pupils. Some teachers, he recommends, will need to change their teaching styles in order to address the needs of a wider range of pupils, but he acknowledges that this will not be easily achieved. Knight makes a point, which has also been expressed by Florian (1998b) that the development of effective teaching for pupils with special educational needs in mainstream school is not simply a case of transferring special school methodologies. Referring to his earlier research based upon Vygotsky's (1978) work on the individual student's 'zone of proximal development' (Knight et al. 1998), Knight describes what he calls 'a guided internality teaching perspective' as a guide to teaching children with special educational needs in mainstream settings. Within this model students are encouraged to take increasing levels of responsibility for their own learning, but require specific actions on the part of the teacher. These he describes as:

- The teacher modelling and making thought processes overt.
- The teacher (in collaboration with individual students) setting realistic goals.
- Promoting students' active role in the learning process, i.e. making decisions, taking risks.
- Giving students sufficient practice to ensure mastery of skills.
- Teaching strategies which match students' cognitive abilities so that, for example, a task should firstly be analysed to ensure that students have the skills to be able to complete the task.

Knight, B, A., Paterson, D, and Mulcahy, R. (1998) cited in
Knight, B.A. (1999) P. 6.

This recommendation of approaches follows a similar pattern to that established by other writers examining effective teaching for inclusion. Marvin (1998) has also considered a Vygotskian analysis of effective teaching and its value in matching teaching style to pupil needs. She expresses the view that teachers must establish an effective balance between individual, small group and whole class teaching, and that

the teacher must develop appropriate skills and understanding to assess when each of these approaches will have maximum impact upon individual pupils. Such an approach inevitably demands that teachers develop an understanding of pupil preferred learning styles, and those influences of personality, mood, need and ability which impinge upon those preferences. Marvin's work is useful in taking the differentiation debate away from a focus upon individual learning deficits and towards an approach which calls upon teachers to adopt a more analytical approach to the needs and dynamics of whole classes of pupils. This she suggests, will require teachers to gain a greater understanding of the match between teaching and learning styles, an argument which is further developed by Read (1998). Citing the research of Kogan (1976) and Riding and Cheema (1991), Read considers how the learning styles of children with special educational needs may be limited through specific impairments, and how this should be seen to emphasise the need for accurate assessment of the most favoured approaches to learning for each individual. Both Marvin and Read express the concern that inclusion must be more than simply welcoming the hard to teach into the classroom. For inclusive practice to be effective teachers must have a commitment to understanding how pupils can learn and to prioritising the needs of individuals alongside the development of a range of teaching approaches. In this way the teacher is more likely to ensure that the needs of all pupils in the class are met. Such an approach would enable Knight's concerns for the setting of realistic goals, and the matching of teaching strategies to pupils' cognitive abilities to be met.

The suggestion that teachers may need to become more effective in analysing the preferred learning styles of their pupils and the development of a more flexible range

of teaching strategies is also discussed by Booth, Ainscow and Dyson (1997). In their discourse on the effects of recent educational legislation upon the movement towards inclusion, they are critical of the emphasis upon subject content and the lack of pedagogical consideration which has become a feature of the UK education system. Booth and his colleagues describe what they term as a 'house style' of teaching which is perceived as existing in some schools. This can often be seen as a 'low risk' style calculated to appease those who have been seen as critics of 'child centred' or 'progressive' educational methods. In their study these researchers noted an absence of the deliberate use of group work in many lessons, yet where it was experienced it was perceived as making a valuable contribution to inclusion. Because of the pressure to achieve high standards, in some schools there is a concentration upon the gaining of a set level of attainment, which some teachers are concerned that pupils with special educational needs cannot attain and this in turn results in low expectations of pupils with special educational needs.

Booth et al. express concerns that the current educational climate is not helpful in encouraging teachers to become more aware of personal learning preferences. This is an important point as it could be argued that at the very time when inclusion is given a position high on the education agenda, legislation has been put into place which removes opportunities to develop the flexibility required to make it work. Central to the concerns expressed regarding educational developments and their impact upon inclusion has been the introduction of the National Curriculum and its associated assessment procedures. Williams (1993) in reviewing the factors which determine the successful inclusion of pupils with moderate learning difficulties in mainstream schools expressed the view that, if a child with special educational needs was able to

access the same curriculum as his peers a major obstacle to inclusion would be overcome. It is true to say that for the majority of pupils who attended special schools, until the introduction of the National Curriculum the educational diet which they received was far removed from that of their mainstream peers. Rose (1998b) has argued that the National Curriculum can be interpreted either as a provider of opportunities, or as a major obstacle along the route to inclusion. Opportunities, he argues are provided by the Government's avowed intention that all pupils should have an entitlement to a curriculum which is broad, balanced and relevant, and which includes the National Curriculum. However, the opportunity remains only for as long as there is a recognition that the National Curriculum consists of more than a collection of subjects to be taught. Curriculum Guidance 3 (1990) defined the need for the school to provide a 'whole' curriculum which comprised:

- The ten subjects of the National Curriculum
- Religious education
- Additional subjects beyond the National Curriculum
- An accepted range of cross curricular elements
- Extra curricular activities
- The spirit and ethos of the school
- Effective teaching methodology
- Efficient and effective management of the curriculum and the school

National Curriculum Council (1990) P. 1.

It can be argued that pressure to apply the National Curriculum has resulted in many schools concentrating their efforts on the delivery of the core and other foundation subjects and religious education, and that the importance of other aspects of the curriculum has been secondary in the consideration of schools. Vlachou (1997) reports that many teachers express concerns that the National Curriculum is difficult to implement for children with special educational needs. In her study of a 350 place primary school the majority of teachers interviewed claimed that the National

Curriculum bore no relevance to the needs and demands of learning for children with special educational needs. Teachers in particular felt that the emphasis upon subject focused teaching distracted from the needs of the individual child and created a tension in desire to provide what they thought was most appropriate to the pupils. A concentration upon these limited subject driven aspects of the whole curriculum to the exclusion of others may be seen as an inhibiting factor in the encouragement of more inclusive practice. Fletcher-Campbell (1994) has been particularly critical of the rush by schools to embrace the National Curriculum for all pupils. Whilst acknowledging that schools have done so with the positive intentions of recognising pupil entitlement, she suggests that for some pupils significant parts of the National Curriculum are at best a diversion from more appropriate content, and at worst a restrictive inappropriate and possibly limiting model. Her views do not find favour with Lewis (1996), or Carpenter et al. (1996) both of whom see the National Curriculum as providing sufficient flexibility to encompass a full range of pupil needs and abilities. These writers believe that the introduction of the National Curriculum has brought new opportunities to children with special educational needs who were previously barred from much of the content and therefore restricted in their chance to become included. Pupils who were previously denied an opportunity to participate in science, technology, history and other mainstream subjects have been seen to benefit from participation in these (Fagg 1993, Sebba 1994, 1995, Brown 1996) and the participation of pupils in special schools in these areas may be seen as a further indication of their ability to cope with a mainstream curriculum.

For many pupils, including those with special educational needs, establishing a balance may require that greater attention is paid to those parts of the curriculum which lie outside of the core and foundation subjects. Fletcher-Campbell's discussion of relevance may be a significant factor here. Recent deliberations concerning issues for consideration in a revised National Curriculum have focused upon how subjects such as citizenship and health education, listed as cross curricular elements in the original National Curriculum documentation, may be given greater emphasis and brought nearer to the core. Such a move may be welcomed by teachers of children with special educational needs who see these subjects as being central to their needs. The skilled mainstream teacher of pupils with special educational needs is likely to be the one who is able to make judgements with regards to a fine balance between subject content, including those subjects which may be on the periphery of the National Curriculum, and the deployment of practices which address individual needs. Only by achieving this balance will the concerns of Knight that teachers should set realistic goals, and of Marvin and Read that teaching styles are considered, be addressed.

The importance of achieving this wider overview of the education of all pupils would appear essential for any school wishing to develop inclusive practices. That the promotion of such a wholistic view will require a radical shift in the working practices of some schools, particularly those whose concern has been more for measurable academic outcomes than with quality learning experiences, is self evident. Yet it seems unlikely that the curriculum will be viewed as anything less than a barrier to inclusion unless it is defined in the broad terms expressed within Curriculum Guidance 3 as described above. Just as inclusion must be regarded as a process, not a

fixed state (DfEE 1998) so must the curriculum be viewed as much more than simply a list of subjects to be taught. Since its introduction the National Curriculum has been subject to many changes, some as a direct result of pressures from teachers concerned to be more effective in meeting the needs of pupils with a wide range of special educational needs (SCAA 1996). Whatever the views of teachers may be, it seems certain that the National Curriculum and its associated procedures are here to stay. It is therefore essential that teachers find ways of ensuring that changes continue to be made until the claim made that it would be a "curriculum for all" becomes a reality, as Sebba and Fergusson (1991) stated:

"If the National Curriculum is not appropriate for these pupils as it stands, then it may be necessary to suggest ways in which it could be revised to meet the needs of all pupils rather than taking pupils out of the system. This is surely implied by an entitlement curriculum and will be a necessary step in ensuring marginalisation is reduced."

Sebba, J, and Fergusson, A. (1991) P. 212.

Writers such as Giangreco (1996) and Porter (1997) cited above have taken an important step towards examining the conditions necessary for inclusion. Their work needs to be built upon through a more systematic examination of classroom procedures in order to ascertain what works in practice. It seems unlikely that inclusion will be achieved until such time as teachers have a shared understanding of the expectations placed upon them with regards to the education of pupils with special educational needs, and are equipped with the skills which are necessary to be effective in managing a full range of pupils in the classroom. It is equally important that as new initiatives such as the National Curriculum, and national literacy and numeracy strategies come on board consideration is given to the needs of all pupils and advice given to teachers on the most appropriate ways to meet a full range of needs.

The literature on inclusion is only now beginning to address the means by which teachers can adopt practices to ensure effective teaching for all. It is clear that there is an urgent need for more research of an empirical nature which considers how to establish classroom conditions to support inclusion. The work addressed in this review provides some useful pointers both for researchers concerned to find a focus which is helpful to schools, and for teachers who are seeking to critically review their own classroom practice. There are similarities in the views expressed by writers from both sides of the Atlantic with regards to the work which schools and local authorities will need to undertake in order to support moves towards inclusive practice. There are also discrepancies of opinion, and a lack of clarity with regards to how this may best be achieved. There are many challenges ahead before the climate is right for all pupils to be accepted and to achieve in a mainstream school environment.

CHAPTER 3

Research justification and methodology

3.1 Justification of the research

In a review of research into special education provision Jenkinson (1997) is critical of many of the studies conducted into the efficacy of inclusive education. In particular she warns against the sweeping statements which have resulted from the interpretation of comparative studies conducted in the USA. Her criticisms are launched on two fronts. Firstly the lack of attention given to the many variables which exist within special educational contexts. The comparison of individuals or groups of pupils who bear the label of special educational need, which can be seen to encompass a wide range of needs and abilities is fraught with difficulties. Similarly the comparison of segregated and inclusive provision in which teachers probably have differing experiences, work with different resources and within greatly varying conditions makes for major difficulties in compiling data of a reliable nature. Some studies, notably those of Carlberg and Kavale (1980) and Hunt and Goetz (1997) reviewed within this thesis, have attempted to address these problems through the use of processes such as meta-analysis. Yet there remains a tendency towards the generalisation of statements about inclusion based upon small scale research using limited methodologies.

Jenkinson's second and in many ways more serious concern centres upon the motivations of some of the researchers who have investigated this emotionally charged area. She states that:

" The earliest advocates of integration sought justification for their beliefs in research which showed that special schools and classes produced no more positive outcomes for pupils with mild learning difficulties than regular classes."

Jenkinson (1997) P. 67.

Her concern is based upon a view that objectivity is far from assured, and that many researchers have begun their work with a conviction which may at times result in a blinkered interpretation of the evidence presented.

Within the literature review of this study this writer has provided evidence to justify Jenkinson's concerns. It is clear that much of the literature on inclusion is written from a humanistic perspective which deals with the subject through the language associated with equal opportunities issues. As an approach to debating inclusion, philosophical discourse is fully justified. However for teachers, often working under pressure in busy classrooms, much of their concern in this area is for the pragmatics of the daily management of pupils with a range of special educational needs. Research is needed which provides support in determining those conditions and approaches which might enable them to become more effective in teaching a diverse school population. Sebba and Sachdev (1997) share some of Jenkinson's concerns. They comment that whilst there are many commentaries on inclusion, most have no evidence base and are founded mainly upon the ideology and opinions of particular groups or individuals. Farrell (1997b) urges readers to exercise great caution in interpreting inclusion

research stating that vested interests may influence many of the reported findings, and agrees with Sebba and Sachdev (1997) that studies often fail to report adequately on the methodologies used.

It is easy to be critical of research into inclusion, yet the problems described here are not exclusive to this area of investigation. Much of the research conducted into schools and the education process in general is generated through a genuine desire for enquiry, but is conducted by researchers who inevitably bring their own opinions and experiences with them into the research situation. This may be seen as problematic, but before dismissing research on grounds of the difficulties which exist in achieving objectivity we must be clearer about the nature of educational research.

Barton and Clough (1995) have suggested that the educational researcher may play one or more of a number of roles. The researcher may they state, be seen as a '*critical friend*' who is not striving for an alleged disinterestedness, but is more concerned to conduct a study which is in some way enabling to all interested parties. Such research may well be used to confirm beliefs or to provide evidence for further developments within the education system. A further model sees the '*researcher as a learner*' who wishes to gain further insights into a process or system, and who will attempt to develop a methodology which provides an honest appraisal of the subject under review. Such research may raise difficult questions about the area studied, and is likely to provide indications of matters for further investigation. In describing the '*accountable researcher*' Barton and Clough describe the need for inquirers to take account of their responsibilities towards those being scrutinised, to the wider research community and to all who come into contact with the study. They emphasise that

once research reaches the publication stage it enters the public arena and the researcher loses control for the ways in which it is interpreted and used. There is therefore a need to ensure that research guards the truth and that researchers are sensitive to the impact which their work may have. Researchers must also be responsible for acknowledging the limitations of research, particularly with regards to work which is small in scale.

Teachers as researchers is a term which has been used frequently throughout the 1990s. Barton and Clough reverse this phrase and describe the '*researcher as teacher*' with a responsibility to disseminate information in a coherent and manageable form. Here they argue is a role for the researcher, not only in telling and reporting research, but in persuading, exploring and raising consciousness in relation to the area researched. Finally we are given the concept of '*the researcher as subject*', the individual with an open mind who is prepared to consider his or her own findings and to take note of the evidence as it appears. Barton and Clough recognise that research is not conducted in a vacuum, and that within education or other areas of the social sciences which concern themselves with people it is unlikely that we can close our minds to the influences of our past experiences or our present beliefs.

Barton and Clough in identifying that researchers may begin their work from a variety of standpoints and motives help us to recognise that there is a distinct difference between the kinds of research which can be conducted in education and that of the pure scientist. The issue of researcher values and their influence upon the outcomes of investigation which concern Jenkinson, were considered by Carspeken (1996) who has argued that it is rare for any researcher within the social sciences to come to an

enquiry with a blank sheet. Most will begin with an understanding of the workings and procedures of the institutions which they study and of the motivations and behaviours of the individuals within them. Rather than try to deny these influences, Carspeken reasons that it is important to acknowledge them, and to discuss their impact during the course of the research. This point is discussed with great eloquence by Stenhouse (1981) who made an important distinction between 'values' and 'interest'. Stenhouse considers that aspect of interest which is defined as a 'feeling of concern for or curiosity about a person or thing.' This he claims to be the impulse behind all research, and its inevitable concern for conditions of advantage or detriment. He dismisses the view that professionals from within the education system who have a clear interest in the area of study are inevitably biased in expressing their findings. He does however urge researchers to recognise the dangers which do exist.

"...it is claimed that involvement in the action of school and classroom gives teachers an interest in the tendency of research findings and condemns them to bias. This is not in my view a sustainable objection. In my experience the dedication of the professional researcher to their theories is a more serious source of bias than the dedication of teachers to their practice."

Stenhouse, L. (1981) cited in Booth et al. (1992) P.299

Such discussions of the difficulties associated with the justification of educational research are important and have a direct bearing upon the motivations for the research described within this study. The researcher must from the outset declare an interest in the education of children with special educational needs as a professional who has been involved in this area for more than twenty years. This inevitably means that he is accompanied by a wealth of baggage and opinion accumulated over that time.

However, the research is justified in Stenhouse's terms by an intention to pursue an

interest founded upon a desire to know more about teacher perceptions and the realities of managing pupils with special educational needs in an inclusive setting. In this sense the research conducted places the researcher in Barton and Clough's mode of the *researcher as learner*. Furthermore, the research was conducted not with any intention of proving a theory, but more in the nature of hypothesis generation. Bennett and Cass (1988) have described the process of conducting small scale research as a means of clarifying situations which may warrant a further investigation. Such research works from a series of questions which, when brought together, might be used to form a hypothesis. Robson (1993) discusses this as a legitimate purpose for small scale enquiry and goes further in suggesting that it may be a critical approach which enables the researcher to be sure that there are phenomena worthy of further investigation. Hypothesis generation he believes, may be seen as an important factor which distinguishes the interpretive approach from a positivist method. In much interpretive work he states, (P.19) the hypothesis does not become fully apparent until after the initial data collection.

The research described within this thesis was initiated as a result of the genuine confusion which the writer perceives with regards to the nature and purpose of inclusion. Teachers appear uncertain as to the future provision to be made for pupils with complex learning needs. Anxieties are expressed with regards to existing pressures in schools, which may be exacerbated by the introduction of more pupils with special educational needs. At the same time, the literature on inclusion is far from unequivocal in providing advice to teachers with regards to the management and education of pupils with a range of special needs in mainstream classrooms. Much of what has been written is anecdotal in nature, and many of the reported teacher

opinions have been based on little more than hearsay. The need to provide a more empirical base, and indeed to reinvestigate the epistemological roots of inclusion provide a strong justification for the development of further research in this area.

Several writers, Vulliamy and Webb (1993) Torgensen (1995) Bines (1995) have called for a move away from rhetoric to a more empirical base for discussion of the future of special education. Others, Hegarty (1993) Thomas et al. (1998) Tilstone (1998) have emphasised the need for a more thorough investigation into all aspects of inclusive education. This study begins from the standpoint that inclusion has been well debated by teachers, including those who participated in this research, and attempts to gain information which may enable further work, of both a research and in-school development nature, to be undertaken in the immediate future. This places the researcher within Barton and Clough's description of *the researcher as teacher*. It is concerned with teacher perceptions of the conditions which need to be created to include pupils with special educational needs, and the reality of what one school has achieved.

The research conducted has its methodology embedded within an interpretive paradigm. Cohen and Manion (1994) describe interpretive researchers as beginning with individuals and attempting to understand their interpretation of the world around them (P. 37). They concur with Robson (1993) in expressing a belief that through interpretive research theories will be generated by the very act of the research itself. This contrasts with a normative standpoint whereby the theoretical perspective is established prior to the research commencing. Bassey (1995) has emphasised the importance of the role which, may be played by the interpretive researcher in

attempting to obtain a shared meaning of situations and phenomena with others. This can only be achieved if we recognise that each individual will have opinions based upon personal beliefs and experiences, and that there is a need to extract similarities of perception whilst continuing to value differences. This in itself may be seen as problematic, and is indeed a central focus of the criticism made by researchers working within a positivist paradigm. However, as Bassey has stated:

"Interpretive researchers reject the positivists' view that the social world can be understood in terms of general statements about human actions. To them the descriptions of human actions are based on social meanings, and people living together interpret the meanings of each other, and these meanings change through social intercourse."

Bassey (1995) P. 13.

This study has been largely concerned with extracting similarities of perception from the opinions expressed by teachers. Attempts have then been made to contrast the opinions of two groups of teachers, those working within an inclusive school setting, and those teaching in non-inclusive schools, and to discuss these in relation to the reality of classroom situations. Whilst efforts have been made to recognise variables, and to eliminate some which may have unduly affected the research, the researcher recognises that in any investigation of this nature there is a danger in generalising findings beyond the specific field studied. Bassey is again helpful in enabling us to see how the interpretation of research of this nature may have intrinsic value. He describes the study of '*singularities*' as being research into particular events. Research of this nature he suggests, is valid in providing detailed information and pursuing significant findings in relation to a particular institution and the occurrences which are recorded in relation to a specific event or series of events within that institution.

Bassey emphasises that this research should not be devalued simply because of the relatively narrow focus of its remit. Research of this nature can enable development and improvement of existing practices, or clarification of ideas to take place, thus making a contribution to understanding. However he also urges caution with regards to generalising findings to other institutions, which may have different values, populations and conditions. Similar research conducted in a different institution could possibly achieve greatly differing results. Reliability, which can only be achieved through the development of a methodology which would enable other researchers to ask similar questions in other institutions and be assured of similar findings, would require the use of a more tightly defined approach than can be provided within small scale research of this nature. In Bassey's terms the investigation described within this thesis can be associated with a label of research of singularities, and as such there is a need to exercise restraint in the interpretation of results.

The research conducted for this thesis is limited to a small population. As a study of singularities it extracts evidence from a single inclusive school, comparing the actions of teachers within this school to the views which they express in relation to strategies which they perceive as necessary for addressing the special educational needs of pupils. These views are further contrasted to those of teachers working in other similar, but non-inclusive schools. The opinions of head teachers of both the inclusive school, and the non-inclusive schools were also sought and compared. Head teachers can be expected to have a more global view with regards to the management of their schools than might be expected of class teachers, who are more greatly concerned for the management of a group of pupils. Coleman (1994) has emphasised that head teachers are expected to have an overall vision for their schools, and have

responsibility for communicating this to their staff. It was therefore seen as important to obtain head teacher perceptions, and to see how these compared to those of class teachers.

3.2 The sample.

Smith (1975) has described sampling as a 'search for typicality' (P.105), and as such it can be seen as the effort which researchers make to eliminate too many variables from the subjects to be studied. Robson (1993) in referring to a sample as being a selection from the population, recognises that educational research is fraught with difficulties in obtaining samples which do not exhibit some limiting characteristics. When seeking a sample of teachers there are so many variables which need to be considered, that within the confines of small scale research it would seem unlikely that they could all be eliminated. Most schools have a team of teachers who have a wide range of experience in terms of years, and experiences in relation to the number of schools in which they have taught, the age range covered and the managerial responsibilities which they have held. Schools which have a homogenous staff and in which all teachers share opinions, have identical service records and have the same aspirations for their teaching and their pupils are unlikely to exist. Neither would such conditions be desirable in a system which intends to provide pupils with a variety of learning experiences.

The samples selected for this study can be seen to fall within two categories. In order to gauge teacher perceptions of the conditions necessary to promote inclusion, two samples were sought. The first of these was a sample of teachers who are currently

working in mainstream schools which do not include significant numbers of pupils whose special educational needs are so great as to warrant consideration for special school placement. The majority of teachers within the education system can be seen to fall into this category. In order to eliminate some variables which might be seen as particularly influential, a number of decisions were taken. Firstly the sample was restricted to teachers who are currently teaching children at key stage 2 (between the ages of 7 - 11 years). This relatively narrow age group was selected for a number of reasons. Pupils in the UK generally enter school at around the age of 5 years old (beginning of key stage 1). At this time many pupils begin infant schools without an adequate assessment of their educational abilities and needs. This results in a number of pupils not being identified as having special educational needs until they have been at school for some time. In most instances pupils will have had special educational needs diagnosed by the time they reach key stage 2, the population therefore being more readily defined. A further factor is the consideration that it has been suggested, that as pupils get older the academic and social ability gap between pupils with special educational needs and their peers may widen as a result of increasing curricular demands (Herbert 1998). It would therefore seem likely that issues of the management of pupils with special educational needs may intensify as they reach key stage 2. If this is the case, a study of teachers working in an inclusive situation at key stage 2 may provide some useful indicators with regards to effective teaching practices deployed to counteract these problems. A final consideration in restricting the sample to teachers and pupils working at key stage 2 was the considerable change of school organisation which takes place as pupils enter secondary provision. Key stage 2 schools tend to place an emphasis upon class teaching whereby pupils stay together for most of the day. These pupils may have specialist teachers for some

subjects, such as music or physical education, but in general they are taught by a limited number of teachers. This changes radically as pupils enter key stage three where they are usually taught by subject specialists and are required to move around the school for lessons in a variety of locations. This does of course mean that the principles adopted for the inclusion of pupils in the primary years of schooling may not hold good within secondary provision.

Having decided to restrict the study to key stage 2, consideration was given to ways in which other variables could be eliminated or at least acknowledged. A factor discussed above, that of teacher experience, is always problematic in school based research. Whilst it was not possible within research of this limited scale to obtain a sample of teachers all of whom had the same length of service, and the same pattern of teaching experiences, it was decided to eliminate teachers from the sample who had less than three years teaching experience. This decision was made for two reasons, the first being that within three years of teaching in a primary school it is unlikely that teachers would not have gained some experience of working with children with special educational needs and would therefore have some personal insight to draw upon. In a three year period teachers are almost certain to have experienced a number of such children, and their individual needs are likely to have varied greatly. The second reason related to initial teacher training. In 1997 changes in initial teacher training required that all teaching students should be provided with a wide knowledge and understanding of special needs issues, including the skills required to teach a range of needs (DfEE 1997). As a result of this many initial teacher training courses have addressed issues of inclusion and newly qualified teachers are often seen as entering school with views gained during their training, but as yet with no

opportunities to test these in practice. It was considered that teachers in their early experience of teaching may hold opinions and perceptions which had been insufficiently challenged through classroom practice and that this may have some influence upon their views expressed during interview.

The non-inclusive schools teacher sample for this study can be described in the following ways:

- Teachers who are teaching pupils in key stage 2.
- Teachers who have a minimum of three years teaching experience.
- Teachers who are working in schools which do not include large numbers of pupils with a wide range of special educational needs.

In order to obtain teachers for this sample consideration was given to the methodology to be deployed. In view of the decision to use semi-structured interviews (discussed below) it was necessary to have a sample which was manageable in terms of the time available, and the willingness of teachers to make themselves available in their own time to the researcher. Geographical factors inevitably influenced the selection of a sample. This may have been less of a difficulty had an alternative methodology, such as questionnaires or telephone interviewing been selected. The relative merits of methodologies and the reasons for selection are discussed below.

The teachers selected may be defined as a convenience sample. Robson (1993) has discussed the limitations of this form of sampling, and in particular recognises that such samples cannot be seen to be representative of a much larger population.

However he recognises that in the context of small scale research such an approach is often the only one available to the part time researcher. He also acknowledges that in terms of research of a piloting nature, or which is intended to generate questions as much as to answer them, the use of convenience samples is often acceptable. Mason (1996) recognises that samples are often dictated by factors of practicality and feasibility. She suggests that the researcher who is managing a small scale project must often accept that their sample is not ideal, but must above all guard against the grandiose statement of generalisation which can be tempting on the basis of seemingly conclusive findings.

The second sample studied, that of teachers in an inclusive primary school, was more easily established. Examples of inclusive primary schools are limited, and whilst the literature in this area provides details of single pupil case studies of inclusion (Statham 1982, Downs, Fletcher and Fletcher 1987), there is a lack of discussion of schools which take a variety of pupils with special educational needs. The school selected for this research, and which is described in the contextual information provided in chapter 4, was identified in part through the inspection report of the school published by Ofsted (Office for Standards in Education) which singled it out for its excellent inclusive practice. Further information related to the school was obtained from the maintaining Local Education Authority which regarded the school as providing a model of good practice in its management of pupils with special educational needs. The school has been managing a diverse population for a number of years following the closure of two local special schools. Those children with statements of special educational needs within the school have a range of difficulties and abilities, and had the special schools been retained they would have found

placements within them. It was therefore possible in studying this one school to obtain a sample of pupils who had a range of complex needs. It was similarly possible to gain a sample of teachers who had a number of years experience in managing inclusive classrooms.

This single school sample may be considered within two definitions supplied by Robson (1993). Being easily accessible and available for conducting the research it may again be viewed as a convenience sample. However, Robson also describes purposive sampling as a means of identifying a sample in terms of its typicality of interest required to satisfy the specific needs identified within a project. The school selected for this project may be seen to fall into this category for the following reasons:

- It has an established record of including pupils with special educational needs.
- It has been recognised for good practice in managing pupils with special educational needs by both Ofsted and the LEA.
- It has a well established staff who have been managing children with a wide range of special educational needs over a number of years.

Having identified samples for the research the following practical steps were taken to enable the project to proceed.

Letters were written to the head teachers of twelve local authority schools with children at key stage 2 seeking co-operation with the research. The letter described the purpose of the research and requested opportunities to conduct semi-structured

interviews with staff including the head teachers. The letter included details of the condition that teachers should have a minimum of three years teaching experience. Positive replies were received from ten schools and appointments were made to conduct the interviews in these schools.

Telephone contact was made with the head teacher of the inclusive school, and an appointment made to discuss the research proposal with him. A one hour meeting with the head teacher resulted in an agreement that the researcher should address a governors' meeting to outline the proposal and seek permission from them to proceed with the research at the school. The researcher attended this governors' meeting at which an outline proposal was presented and governors' questions were answered. At the same time an ethical statement (see appendix 1) was submitted to the governors who were interested in the project and granted permission to proceed so long as the staff were willing. Following this meeting with governors the researcher attended a staff meeting to go through similar procedures. The staff as a whole were in agreement that the research should be conducted within the school in exchange for feed back related to the findings. All but two teachers agreed to make themselves available for interview and to permit observations to be conducted in their classrooms. The right of these two teachers not to be involved was honoured throughout the research.

3.3 Ethical considerations

An early consideration in establishing the research was to ensure that it was conducted along sound ethical lines. Any research conducted which involves people

has potential difficulties unless ethical procedures are followed from the outset. In order to conduct this study a number of important steps were taken. The first of these involved the obtaining of what Diener and Crandall (1978) have termed 'informed consent' whereby individuals, and in this case whole school staff, can determine whether they wish to be involved in research on the basis of accurate information. In Diener and Crandall's model informed consent involves four elements described as *competence*, *voluntarism*, *full information* and *comprehension*. The first of these four was easily managed in terms of this research. Competence implies that the subjects being studied are capable of making decisions on their own behalf given the correct information. The researcher was beholden to provide accurate information, but felt able to assume the competence of teachers to reach judgements on their own behalf. Voluntarism, which recognises the rights of subjects to be involved in research free from the pressure of a third party may initially seem equally free from difficulties. However it was deemed important by the researcher to speak with each teacher and to ensure that they had chosen to participate without feeling undue peer pressure or the necessity to please the school management. This was given full consideration by reiterating the voluntary nature of participation, and by giving assurances of anonymity at the beginning of each interview and observation.

Full information was achieved by presenting participant schools with an outline of the research, and through the researcher making himself available to discuss the project with individuals and groups of teachers whenever necessary. This did involve a number of both formal and informal discussions, ranging from attendance at full staff meetings to staff room discussions over a cup of coffee. Assuring comprehension of the issues being researched was also addressed through these meetings, and by

answering teacher questions related to the nature of the project and the use which might be made of any findings.

Robson (1993) points out that issues of informed consent may be particularly difficult when dealing with children. This may well be heightened when those children have special educational needs as in the case of this study. As minors children have the right to be protected from exploitation, and to be made aware of their part in the research process. The researcher attempted to address this issue in four ways. Firstly consent for all observations of children was sought with the support of the school who had a positive relationship with parents and guardians. Secondly the pupils themselves were informed of visits for observation with both the class teacher and the researcher being open about the purpose of the visits with all children. The third safeguard was achieved by the researcher making visits to the school prior to conducting the research in order to become familiar to children in class, on the playground and around the school in general. This included the researcher being introduced in a whole school assembly, and during visits to classrooms. Finally it was agreed throughout the research that notes taken in observation would be made available to teachers and pupils on request, and that at any time during the process teachers or staff could ask the researcher to leave the room and cease observation. This situation never arose.

Issues of confidentiality and anonymity were discussed with all participants, and it was agreed that this would be maintained throughout the project and beyond.

However, the researcher did retain the right to report his work with the necessary safeguards to defend the anonymity of schools and individuals. In the case of the inclusive school this did raise the issue of the value which the head teacher and

governors perceive may be forthcoming from publicity regarding participation in this research. After negotiation it was agreed that the name of this particular school, but not of others, should be used in reporting the research at all levels, but that the names of individual teachers and pupils would not be reported.

Having established principles by which the research was to be conducted, an ethical statement which was based upon guidelines produced by the British Educational Research Association (BERA) was issued to participating schools, and became the framework by which all work was conducted (Appendix 1).

3.4 Semi-structured interviews

Much of the data gathered for this research, took the form of collections of teacher perceptions of the conditions necessary to include pupils with special educational needs in mainstream primary schools. This data enabled a comparison to be made between the perceptions of teachers working in non-inclusive schools, with those who were managing inclusive classrooms. Two approaches to collecting this data were considered, these being the use of postal questionnaires, and interviews.

Questionnaires may have been a viable option for collecting teacher perceptions, and would have had the advantage of ease of administration, and allowed for collection from a relatively large sample. They may well also have provided data which was easily managed at the analysis stage. However, questionnaires also have limitations which can lead to frustration for the researcher who is dealing with teacher opinions. Data collected by questionnaire is often superficial, providing little opportunity for the

researcher to check honesty of response, or to elaborate upon the replies given.

Similarly the questionnaire does not afford the researcher an opportunity to check understanding or interpretation of the questions. Even the best constructed questionnaires which manage to tackle issues of ambiguity and poor interpretation have difficulties in collecting exemplars or elaborations which may provide insights into the reasons why opinions are expressed or answers given. A final difficulty with the use of questionnaires is in their collection, and the time required to conduct an effective follow up if additional information is required.

The decision to use interviews was made upon the basis of an analysis of the time available to the researcher, and the information which was sought. Cohen and Manion (1994) have discussed the difference between a structured and a semi-structured interview, and have described those influences which might determine which format the researcher decides to use. The structured interview is in many ways similar to the questionnaire in so much as the interviewer has a series of pre-determined questions, and asks these in exactly the same way to all respondents within the research. By contrast the semi-structured interview is based upon a series of topics which the interviewer wishes to discuss, and provides greater opportunities for flexibility in the way in which these are handled. The semi-structured interview allows for different respondents to spend differing amounts of time on each topic depending on the amount of information which they wish to impart. Similarly it may be the case that in answering one question the interviewee covers issues which might have been asked in further questions planned for later in the interview. The interviewer thus has the option to move more readily from one question to another in order to maintain a stream of thought on the part of the interviewee. The semi-

structured interview is discussed by Powney and Watts (1987) who see this as a useful format which retains structure but permits the flexibility to allow for elaboration by both the interviewer and the interviewee. Powney and Watts place the semi-structured interview under the general heading of a respondent interview in which the locus of control remains with the interviewer throughout the process. The two most important factors within this process are that the interviewer's issues remain at the focus of the process throughout, and that there are set questions which need to be answered, even if these are not asked in a set order.

A clear advantage of the interview is the latitude which it provides to the interviewer in the use of prompts. Closed yes and no answers can be built upon by asking for examples, or requesting that the interviewee says more. There is a need however, as discussed by Griffiths (1998) to be cautious in neither leading the interviewee or demonstrating bias or personal opinion which may influence a response. A further difficulty with interviews discussed by Hull (1985) is the problem of recording tone, demeanour or gesture which may add emphasis or meaning to the spoken word, and which even the most sophisticated recording equipment may not gather. It is apparent from the research literature that whilst effective interviewing may be perceived as a fine art it is not altogether an exact science.

For the purpose of this research all interviews were conducted personally by the researcher. This enabled control to be exercised over the ways in which prompts were used, and also provided some consistency of approach. A set of principles for interviewing based upon Brenner's (1981) basic task rules was established for use throughout the data collection, these being:

- All questions were asked using the language established on the schedule.
- Every question which applied to the respondent was asked.
- Prompts were used judiciously, and only to seek further information rather than to lead.
- Where deemed necessary respondent understanding of questions was checked.
- No direct information elaborating upon the example pupils in the schedules was given.
- Where the respondent chose not to give an answer no suggestions were made by the interviewer.
- Questions were repeated when requested by the interviewee.
- Confidential information such as pupil, teacher or school names given during interview were not included in transcriptions or in any reporting of the data.

Four interview schedules were designed, these being:

- Interview for teachers in non-inclusive schools.
- Interview for teachers in inclusive school.
- Interview for head teachers in non-inclusive school.
- Interview for head teacher in inclusive school.

The questions asked in each of these schedules mirrored each other as closely as possible. Copies of the questions which were used in these interviews are to be found in Appendix 2.

Following the design of the interview schedules, two pilot interviews were conducted, and on the basis of these, minor modifications to phraseology were made. When interviews were conducted they were tape recorded, with the permission of the interviewees, and transcribed. Interview times were arranged to suit the convenience of teacher interviewees, generally immediately at the end of the school day. In many ways this time may not have been ideal as teachers tend to be tired when finishing a day in the classroom. Times during a teaching day were understandably seen as impossible, and the researcher respected all interviewee requests for set times. Length of interview varied from approximately 20 minutes to 40 minutes. Tape recording provided the advantage of the interviewer being able to give full attention to the interviewee, and also enabled the data collected to be played back several times to ensure accuracy in transcription. Permission to tape record was sought from each interviewee and an alternative paper recording system was developed. This was never required as all subjects did agree to use of the tape recorder. A coding system for analysis of data was established, and is discussed in more detail in chapter 5. After conducting and coding three interviews the accuracy of the researcher's interpretation was checked by a colleague who read the transcripts and coded these independently. The coding of the researcher and this colleague were found to correlate exactly.

3.5 Classroom observation.

Whilst the interviews were seen as providing an appropriate method for gaining teacher perceptions of the conditions needed to promote inclusion, the research also

sought to analyse how these perceptions matched to the reality of classroom practice. This required that the researcher collect data directly from the classrooms in which the teachers in the inclusive school were working. The school, as can be seen from the contextual statement in chapter 4, has a high proportion of pupils with special educational needs. After discussion with the head teacher and teachers at the school, it was agreed that a sample of seven children should be observed. These seven children (see appendix 3) were selected as each having a distinct special need which in many instances would have warranted their placement in a special school. Each had a statement of special educational needs (Education Act 1981), and each was distinctly different in need from the others. The reasons for selecting children with a diversity of special educational needs was to enable general principles to be considered. Would the methods deployed to include one pupil with special needs hold good for others of greatly differing need?

Hopkins (1992) Tilstone (1998b) and Wragg (1999) have emphasised the importance of observation having a focus and a well defined purpose. In many ways the use of classroom observation alongside other methods helps with this. The observations conducted at the inclusive school were undertaken after a significant number of interviews with teachers had been conducted. This enabled the researcher to establish a focus for the observations on the basis of responses from interviewees. It also enabled the researcher to ensure that the codes used for analysis of observation were based upon the same criteria as those used for the interviews. It was clear from early in the interviewing process that some issues, such as the level of classroom support, and the use of differentiation within lessons, was an issue for a significant number of

teachers. These issues formed the main focus for the observation schedules which were produced (See Appendix 4).

Croll (1986) has discussed some of the difficulties of conducting effective classroom observations. He particularly notes the problems of interpretation which the observer may experience, and the amount of data with which the observer is inevitably confronted in a busy classroom. To some extent the problems which Croll describes were lessened by the concentration upon an individual pupil rather than trying to watch groups or the class as a whole. However difficulties of interpretation did occur, particularly with regards to the understanding of some of the differentiation issues, and the grouping of pupils within class. Where these difficulties arose they were discussed with the class teacher in order that an accurate interpretation could be made. The form of observations undertaken was to some extent dictated by the nature of the pupils being observed. Full participant observation was initially considered as an approach which might be seen as least intrusive within the classroom. By the time the observations were conducted the researcher had established a positive relationship with the class teacher and with pupils and was not regarded as a threat. However, it did seem likely that in the case of some of the children observed, for example a boy with autism, full participant observation may have proved to be a distraction. Full days of observation were conducted with each child, and this was also seen as presenting possible difficulties to participant observation, with the observer having to be conscious of when he might be 'in the way'. It was finally agreed that the researcher would play the role described by Robson (1993) of a marginal participant. This enabled the researcher to be largely passive within the classroom, but still in a position to participate at times, for example allowing a child who was not under

observation to ask for help with a sum, or to comment on a piece of art work produced by a child. As both Croll (1986) and Robson (1993) have noted, this does require a certain amount of skill on the part of the observer in being able to maintain a consistent observation of the subject child.

Observations of the seven sample pupils were conducted over a period of three weeks. The researcher shadowed each pupil for a full day from entry to school until the pupil departed in the evening. It was agreed that pupils would not be observed over morning break time or lunch time in order to give the pupil a break from constant scrutiny. In the case of one pupil an additional visit was made for observation. This followed the visit of a poet to the school which involved the pupil being rather passive in the school hall for a significant part of the intended observation morning. The researcher revisited the school on the following day to observe this child in a maths lesson which had been timetabled for the previous day.

Within any research which involves the researcher in direct personal contact with the subjects under investigation there is a need to be aware of the impact which this may have upon individuals. Griffiths (1998) in outlining principles to promote good practice in research related to issues of social justice suggests that, whilst 'perfection in research is not to be found,' (page 97) there are management issues which may be easier to address in small scale studies of this nature. In particular she believes, that whilst recognising that the individual researcher does bring beliefs, opinions and experiences to the work as recognised earlier in this chapter, where the research is wholly conducted by an individual it is easier to maintain a consistency of approach. This she stresses may be important in situations such as interviews and observations

where individual interpretations, and differing approaches and relationships with the observed or with interviewees may have a negative impact upon validity of data.

A common criticism of research within the social sciences is the inability to consistently address inter-personal variables. Carspecken (1996) has suggested that it is impossible to produce a pure research model which involves those methodologies commonly employed by ethnographers or through methodologies which involve personal contact. It is clear that uncontrollable elements such as the gender, age or ethnicity of, for example an interviewer, may be interpreted by the interviewee in a number of positive or negative ways. In larger scale research it may be possible to account for some of the variables by matching researchers to respondents. Bhopal (1995) has described how the construction of research into sensitive areas may be made more secure by an examination of the characteristics of researchers involved in direct data collection. Her description of researching the lives of black women provides critical commentary on the need to match interviewers to interviewees. Credibility and understanding of the possible perceptions of those being interviewed were seen as key elements within her research and thus required the use of black female research assistants who were seen to be knowledgeable, non-threatening and able to establish a rapport with their subjects.

With regards to the research reported in this thesis all of the data collection was conducted directly by the researcher. This inevitably meant that a perfect match between the researcher and the subjects could not be established. However, it may be argued that the credibility factor which is seen as critical by both Carspecken and Bhopal was to a large extent addressed. Information supplied about the researcher to

all teachers who were interviewed established his position as an experienced teacher who had worked in situations similar to those of the respondents. This information outlined a career in teaching pupils similar to those in the classes of interviewees, and provided additional evidence of understanding of current primary practice which indicated that the researcher was likely to empathise with participants. Similarly, the relationship developed between the researcher and staff and pupils at the inclusive school did much to raise confidence of those who were to be observed.

An important additional factor in attempting to secure confidence in the validity of the methodologies chosen, was the voluntary nature of participation. Robson (1993) regards the voluntary nature of participation in social sciences research as an important factor in addressing potential inter-personal influences. With no obligation on the part of teachers or pupils to participate in this study, and through the presentation prior to observations and interviews of an ethical code of practice (appendix 1), decisions with regards to involvement were left to the individuals who were invited to participate. Those who chose not to take part were not pressed to do so, and all interviewees were offered copies of tapes and transcripts with an option of removal from the data collection process. In the event none of the research subjects opted to withdraw any materials.

3.6 Use of documentary evidence.

The final process of data collection involved an examination of teacher plans and curriculum documentation in order to ascertain whether teachers were making specific

reference to pupils with special educational needs. This process began before the research commenced with scrutiny of both the Ofsted inspection report on the school, and that produced by local education authority inspectors. These documents in particular enabled the researcher to gain some assurance that the school placed at the centre of the study was suitable for the work to be undertaken.

Because of the focus upon a match between teacher perceptions and classroom practice, teacher plans were examined for evidence of differentiation the management of specifically formed groupings or teaching approaches which differed from those adopted in classrooms which did not include pupils with significant special educational needs. The information gathered through this process was then related to those questions asked in interviews which referred specifically to teacher planning. An additional examination was made of the individual pupil records and statements of special educational need in order to gain background information of each child, and to provide the researcher with some understanding of the teachers' starting point for planning.

Johnson (1993) has described documentary analysis as being particularly useful when deployed alongside other research approaches. He particularly emphasises the unobtrusive nature of document scrutiny, and also the useful starting point which it can provide for the researcher who wishes to formulate interview schedules or questionnaires. The documents used for this study served a useful purpose in providing some of the foundations upon which the interview schedules were based. It also assisted the researcher in ensuring that use of the methodologies described above

was planned as a means of achieving an effective triangulation, and to avoid over dependence upon one method.

Cohen and Manion (1994) describe triangulation as a process of using a multi-method approach to gaining information in answering a question or solving a problem.

Whereas use of a single methodology may bias or distort a researcher's perspective, multi-method approaches provide an internal mechanism of checking the data generated by an investigation. Elliot and Adelman (1976) have suggested that researchers who are concerned with gaining an understanding of the relationship between perception and reality, need to use a combination of approaches to ask the same question, thus checking at each stage that an answer is forthcoming. The methods selected for this project proved to be manageable both in terms of data collection and relative ease of analysis, and contributed to the researcher's own understanding of the phenomena under scrutiny. The use of semi-structured interviews alongside observations provided useful insights into the relationship between teacher perceptions and the reality of classroom practice.

CHAPTER 4

Studfall Junior School and Inclusive Education

Studfall Junior School holds a significant position at the heart of this study. This chapter provides contextual information about the school in order to assist the reader with interpretation of the data presented as part of the research. Permission to name the school was sought via the head teacher, though the anonymity of teachers, other staff and pupils is safeguarded throughout this work.

4.1 The School context

Studfall is a local authority maintained junior school for pupils between the ages of 7 and 11 years located to the north of the centre of Corby in Northamptonshire. The school serves a mixed catchment area of private and local authority maintained council housing and at the time when this research was being conducted there were 475 pupils on roll. The school has a head teacher, deputy head teacher and seventeen further full time teachers, plus three part time teaching staff. One teacher is designated as having overall management of children with special needs in the school and is a member of the senior management team, a further teacher holds the position of special educational needs co-ordinator (SENCO). One other teacher is named as having specific management responsibilities for special needs. Between them these three teachers manage all of the administration of special needs pupils and also co-ordinate special needs related training for staff. The school has eleven school support assistants (SSAs) who spend most of their time allocated to named classes supporting the teacher, and for a significant proportion of their time working with pupils who have special educational needs. Two trained communication support workers (CSWs) who

are skilled and qualified in the use of British Sign Language work alongside teachers in supporting deaf children. These CSWs also provide a critical communication link for pupils in assembly and during school events. The school receives limited but regular support from a speech therapist, and an occupational therapist. Regular visits are also made by a teacher from the local authority hearing impaired service. The school has access to other local authority personnel, including an educational psychologist, and school medical officer. The support of such professionals is often seen as a critical factor in enabling successful inclusion to take place (Jenkinson 1997)

Pupils are allocated to seventeen classes, the average size of which is 30 pupils. All classes contain one year group, and pupils with special educational needs are grouped with their peers. Classes are located in rooms which were built in the 1950s, though four classes are based in mobile classrooms. A purpose built room for small group work with deaf children has recently been opened within the school, this has excellent acoustic conditions for working with these pupils. Deaf children receive the majority of their lessons alongside their hearing peers, but do receive some additional small group support within this purpose built facility. The school has no other purpose built accommodation for its pupils with special educational needs.

Of the 475 pupils on roll at Studfall Junior School 171 are on the special needs register, and of these, 36 have a statement of special educational needs. The overall proportion of children with special educational needs in the school is 36%. The Warnock Committee (1978) suggested that up to 20% of pupils would have a special educational need at some point within their school life. The high proportion of pupils

within Studfall Junior School is unusual though not unique, and reflects the commitment of both the school, and the local education authority to develop this facility as an inclusive school. The pupils on the special needs register have a wide range of special educational needs including autism, emotional and behavioural difficulties, hearing impairments, visual impairments, epilepsy, dyslexia, moderate learning difficulties, and severe learning difficulties.

The majority of pupils at Studfall Junior School have previously attended Studfall Infant School which is located geographically in the same locality. The infant school also provides an inclusive school provision, though some pupils with special educational needs who attend the junior school transfer to the school from other schools.

4.2 Historical development of an inclusive school.

At the beginning of the 1990s Northamptonshire LEA maintained two special schools within the town of Corby. One of these schools was designated for the education of pupils with severe and profound and multiple learning difficulties, and the other for pupils with moderate learning difficulties. Both were all age schools catering for pupils from nursery to post 16. Following a county wide review of special education in the late 1980s Northants LEA made a commitment to move towards the greater integration of pupils with special educational needs into mainstream schools. Corby was identified as the first area of the county to be targeted for the implementation of this policy, and negotiations were undertaken with all interested parties within the town which would ultimately lead to the closure of the two special schools. The two

Studfall Schools were identified at this time as being suitable candidates for taking an increased population of pupils with special needs. Both schools had a good record of managing pupils with learning difficulties, and the head teachers of the two schools were both seen to have a positive attitude towards greater integration. With the support of the local education authority special needs inspector, negotiations were held with governors, staff and parents, and it was agreed that on the closure of the special schools both of the Studfall schools would have an influx of pupils from the segregated provision. Three further school within Corby were also identified to take pupils from the special schools. These three, an infant, junior and secondary comprehensive school had major building developments to allow for the transfer of pupils. The majority of pupils with significant special educational needs who attend Studfall Junior School transfer to the named secondary school at the age of 11+.

The initial intake of pupils to Studfall on the closure of the special schools comprised a population of pupils with severe and moderate learning difficulties, and others with emotional and behavioural problems. A teacher from one of the special schools transferred to Studfall with the pupils, and the school also recruited further expertise by employing a teacher who had both special and mainstream experience. This latter teacher was made a member of the senior management team, a factor which has been seen as important in the management of successful inclusion by the head teacher and governors. The placement of deaf children into Studfall School was not part of the initial setting up of integrated provision. This came later when there was a demand within the town.

Since the designation of Studfall School as a centre for inclusion, there has been a policy of recruitment of staff to the school which makes the commitment to this inclusive ethos very clear. All job descriptions state that staff have responsibility for pupils with a wide range of special needs, and interviewees are quizzed with regards to their attitudes and feelings about working in such an environment. The school has given a commitment to its staff in the form of in house in-service training, on such topics as the management of children with Asperger's syndrome, and managing challenging behaviours. Staff have acquired many of the basics of British Sign Language, and have developed strategies for the effective management of classroom support. The school works closely with other professional agencies, including para-medical staff, and has a strong commitment to working with parents and the local community. The school governors have an active special educational needs committee, with a named governor, and have regular meetings to discuss the effectiveness of the school in meeting pupil needs.

4.3 The choice of Studfall Junior as a focus for study.

Booth, Ainscow and Dyson (1998) have expressed the difficulties which exist in attempting to apply the term 'inclusive' to any school:

"An inclusive school might be said to be one that includes, and values equally all students from its surrounding communities or neighbourhood or catchment area, and develops approaches to teaching and learning that minimise groupings on the basis of attainment and disability. However, by this definition there are no inclusive schools in England. For such an inclusive school is an elusive ideal, existing where no difference is devalued in society. The ideal of an inclusive school is undermined specifically by government policies, which encourage competition and selection between and within schools, as well as the continued exclusion of students on grounds that include disability and low attainment. The development of an inclusive school might be seen, then, as a goal of education, never fully attained."

Booth, T., Ainscow, M, and Dyson, A. (1998) P. 194.

Booth and his colleagues can be seen to be reaching for the ideal situation, and are probably right in asserting that this cannot, as yet be found. However, the school selected for this study has striven to accept children who have previously been rejected by others, and who have special educational needs which are regarded as challenging by all teachers. Studfall Junior School was selected as the inclusive school for this study because of the recognition which it has received for successful practice in this area. In order to gain a sample of teachers who had experience of working in an inclusive setting, and to obtain opportunities for the observation of the same teachers working in classrooms, it was necessary to identify a school which was both willing to participate in the research, and had an established reputation for good practice. Studfall School had been identified as a centre of good practice in inclusion through two sources, these being:

1. A Local Education Authority Review Report, which had been conducted by two LEA inspectors with a brief of assessing the effectiveness of the management of children with special needs within the school.
2. An Ofsted inspection report produced by an independent team of inspectors appointed by Her Majesty's Chief Inspector of Schools (HMCI).

Further confirmation of the high regard given to this school in respect of inclusive practice was provided through discussions with the Northants LEA Inspector for Special Educational Needs, and with the designated Senior Assistant Education Officer (SEN) from Northants Department of Education. Both of these sources

confirmed that the school is esteemed for the commitment which it has shown to managing a complex population, and for achieving high standards in the teaching of pupils with a broad range of special educational needs.

The inspection report for Studfall Junior School included the following comments:

"Studfall school has worked hard to provide a successful inclusive environment which supports pupils with special educational needs. All staff at the school have a commitment to the education of pupils with special needs and work well together as a team to ensure that these pupils are included in all aspects of the school's work.

The progress made by pupils with special educational needs is good when measured against prior attainments. They work well in classes alongside their more able peers, and demonstrate confidence and an enthusiasm for their work in lessons. Relationships between pupils and with staff are good, and behaviour is well managed. Pupils persevere well with tasks which they find challenging, and have developed good levels of concentration.

Deaf pupils are well supported by communication support workers who demonstrate a high level of expertise in British Sign Language. They know the pupils well, and address their individual needs through careful management and planning. Support staff work efficiently alongside teachers and enable pupils with special educational needs to access all subjects."

Ofsted Inspection Report (1997) Paragraph Headed Special Educational Needs.

"The school is successful in promoting the personal guidance and welfare of all its pupils with the care of pupils with special educational needs being particularly well addressed. The integration into classes of these pupils not only benefits their learning, but also contributes to the personal development of all pupils. Pupils with impaired hearing are assisted comprehensively and very ably by communication support workers who use British Sign Language. Sign Language is also used in whole school assemblies and some hearing pupils are becoming adept at understanding and using it."

Ofsted Report (1997) Paragraph Headed Pupils' Spiritual, Moral, Social and Cultural Development.

"Teaching of pupils with special educational needs is good and a strength of the school. Specialist teaching and non-teaching staff target their teaching well in order to meet the requirements of individual education plans. Consequently progress and achievement is good for these pupils"

Ofsted Report (1997) Paragraph Headed Quality of Education Provided: Teaching.

The evidence for successful inclusion at this school was scrutinised prior to any approach being made for participation in the research described within this thesis. Whilst there may be some justification for questioning the criteria and expertise of Ofsted, and even that of the Local Education Officers who have lauded the work of the school in managing an inclusive approach. It has been apparent throughout this project that the commitment and professionalism of all staff of the school is of a very high order.

CHAPTER 5

PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF THE RESEARCH FINDINGS

5.1 Introduction.

The focus of this study has been upon teacher perceptions of the conditions necessary to promote inclusive education, and the ways in which these are manifest in the realities of classroom practice. As such the work has been founded within an interpretive paradigm using methodologies which lend themselves most effectively to qualitative analysis. At the heart of the research has been a single school case study based in a mainstream junior school described in chapter 4. As with any study of this nature, the interpretation of findings must be tempered by a recognition of the unique qualities of this school, and an appreciation that the working practices observed, and the opinions expressed by staff may not be replicated in all other similar schools. Ball (1984) emphasises the difficulties which exist in interpretation of studies based largely within a single institution. He suggests that the researcher needs to be clear about two particular issues. Firstly the researcher needs to ask, is the situation which I am about to study typical of what happens in this institution? The researcher must be assured of this if conclusions of a more generalisable nature are to be made. In the context of this particular study we must ask, if the teachers interviewed, and the classroom situations observed were typical of the situations which the researcher is attempting to present. These issues will be discussed in this chapter.

Secondly, Ball suggests that in studies of dynamic institutions such as schools, it is particularly difficult to be able to find 'typical timings' to legitimate case study.

Schools, he states, should be recognised as having their own temporal phenomenology, which is unique to the school. Issues such as the nearness of

Christmas, the approaching end of key stage assessments, or the proximity to a school residential trip may all play their part in influencing behaviours and circumstances, which then become atypical and can present the researcher with a distorted picture. This issue will also be discussed later in this chapter.

Earlier in this work the notion of research as hypothesis generation was discussed. In this chapter and chapter 6 the researcher will suggest that the findings of this research have provided sufficient data to justify further enquiry. In Bassey's (1995) terms the research has been largely concerned with a study of singularities comprising an investigation into specific events and their interpretation alongside teacher opinions. However, it is important in a study of this nature to consider whether the interpretation of the data obtained may provide some indicators of conditions and factors, which have a bearing upon the wider field in terms of the phenomena explored. In his most recent work Bassey (1999) discusses the nature of what he describes as 'fuzzy generalisation' as an aid to the interpretation and dissemination of small scale research. Fuzzy generalisation is described by Bassey as the recognition of a situation in which concrete generalisations beyond the boundaries within the research conducted cannot be made. However, it may be possible to provide statements with "built in uncertainty" (page 52) which recognises that findings are 'likely' to be similar in research conducted outside of the boundaries of the investigation but within similar institutions. Bassey recognises that such a notion is unlikely to find favour with researchers rooted in a positivist tradition, and indeed there are inherent dangers in making statements without substantiation through examination of a wider sample. In defending his stance with regards to fuzzy generalisation, Bassey suggests that small scale researchers should be forthright about

the nature of statements made regarding their findings. He proposes that all case study researchers should conclude their work with parallel statements. The first of these would state the findings of research within stated boundaries, or in other words would be concerned with the facts of the study. A second, and he suggests in many ways more interesting statement, could be provided on the basis of fuzzy generalisation. Such a statement would acknowledge the element of uncertainty by suggesting that events which occurred in one situation may well be observed under similar circumstances elsewhere. In the final chapter of this work Bassey's principal will be adopted, and statements made within this suggested framework.

It has been proposed (Wolcott 1994) that the analysis of qualitative data should be addressed through three stages. These he describes as:

- **Description** - which outlines what has been observed, and what happened during the process of data collection.
- **Analysis** - which identifies essential features and recurring themes.
- **Interpretation** - which is concerned with a search for meaning and understanding.

(Wolcott, H. F. 1994. pp 9 - 54)

This chapter will address the findings of the research in relation to these three headings. It will be followed in chapter 6 with a discussion of the interpretation of the findings in relation to the broader literature of inclusion as presented in chapter 2. The research findings will be presented in two sections, the first of which will be a largely factual presentation of details of the sample studied, with comments upon the typicality of this sample in relation to a wider perception of the nature of key stage 2 schools. The second section will address the opinions expressed by teachers with regards to the conditions which they perceive as necessary for inclusion. This section will compare the opinions of teachers in non-inclusive schools with those of teachers

in an inclusive setting. The perceptions obtained from teachers will be discussed alongside the evidence obtained from classroom observations in order to ascertain the relationship between teacher perceptions and classroom practice.

5.2 Description and analysis of the sample studied.

The study was concerned to obtain an overview of teacher perceptions with regards to inclusion. In order to gain such information semi-structured interviews were conducted with teachers in non-inclusive junior schools for pupils at key stage 2. Similar interviews were then held with teachers who work in the school described in chapter 4 which has been commended for its inclusive practice. The interviews conducted with both samples of teachers were based around the same core questions (see appendix 2) though being semi-structured in nature, interviewees had a considerable degree of freedom in elaborating upon comments and addressing issues which could be seen as peripheral to this core. The sample of teachers interviewed for this research is outlined in tables 5i and 5ii below.

Table 5i. Teachers in non-inclusive school sample.

Number of teachers interviewed = 20	
Number of female teachers	= 16
Number of male teachers	= 4
Distribution of teaching experience = 3 years - 28 years.	
Mean length of teaching experience = 12.5 years	

Table 5ii. Teachers in inclusive school sample

Number of teachers interviewed = 10	
Number of female teachers	= 7
Number of male teachers	= 3
Distribution of teaching experience = 3 years - 28 years	
Mean length of teaching experience = 10.2 years	

In addition to the teacher samples, similar procedures were followed with the head teacher of the inclusive school, and a sample of heads of other non-inclusive schools educating pupils at key stage 2. The head teacher samples were seen as important because of the strategic and management overview which they could be expected to bring to the issue of inclusion. It was anticipated that whilst teachers were likely to focus upon their own classrooms when answering questions, head teachers were more likely to take a view of the school as a whole. The profiles of the head teachers in this study are presented in tables 5iii. and 5iv.

Table 5iii. Head teacher of inclusive school.

Gender = male	
Number of years in present headship	= 19
Total number of years headship experience	= 19
Number of years teaching experience	= 32
Number of years working with key stage 2 pupils	= 27

Table 5iv. Head teacher profile non - inclusive schools.
N = 7

Gender of heads in sample Female = 4 Male = 3	
Range - number of years in present headship = 1 year - 17 years	
Mean number of years in present headship = 4.7 years	
Range - number of years headship experience = 2 years - 17 years	
Mean number of years headship experience = 9.1 years	
Range of years teaching experience = 13 years - 29 years	
Mean length of teaching experience = 21 years	
Range of years teaching experience KS2 = 9 years - 27 years	
Mean length of teaching experience KS2 = 20.1 years	

Comparison of the two samples

The range of teaching experience in the two samples was identical, though the sample of teachers from the non-inclusive schools can be seen to have a slightly greater average length of service. Similarly, when both samples of interviewees were asked about their experience of working with pupils at key stage 2 it was found that teachers from the non inclusive schools had slightly more experience ($M = 12.5$ years experience) than did their inclusive school colleagues ($M = 10.2$ years experience). Comparison of the two independent samples was tested for significance using a t-test, with a conclusion that no significant difference existed between the two samples at a 5% level (see appendix 5). Whilst experience of teaching as a whole can be expected to have provided teachers with opportunities to have honed their general teaching skills, it should not be assumed that teachers who have been teaching for more years have greater experience of children with special needs. It is quite possible that whilst a teacher of limited experience may at some time have encountered, for example, a deaf child, others may progress through their entire career without having to teach such a child.

The head teacher of the inclusive school is clearly very experienced in this role, and was responsible for overseeing the development of inclusive provision at the school. From the point of view of this research this was considered important. This particular head teacher has had the experience of running the school in its pre-inclusive days and can therefore be seen to have had the experience of implementing the necessary changes during transition. It was also anticipated that because of his experience of

moving through such a period of change, he might have insights with regards to the conditions which have been created in order to promote successful inclusion.

With regards to their training to address special educational needs, most teachers could cite one-off short school based sessions, but 6 of the 20 teachers in the non-inclusive sample had received some specific longer term SEN focused training. The nature of this training is presented in table 5v.

Table 5v. Training undertaken by 6 teachers in the non-inclusive school sample. N= 20 teachers

Teacher No.	Nature of Training
01	TEAACH course (3 days) for management of autistic children.
01	3 modules as part of MA course.
03	RSA (now OCR) Diploma in dyslexia
05	RSA (now OCR) Diploma in dyslexia
07	Reading recovery for SEN pupils.
17	Two term course for SENCO (special needs co-ordinators)
19	RSA (now OCR) Diploma in dyslexia.

The number of teachers within this sample who have taken the diploma course for the education of dyslexic pupils reflects the commitment which Northants LEA has given to supporting this course. This has been a priority within the LEA with a drive to address dyslexia, and a desire to avoid the need for parents to use a special needs tribunal route to obtain appropriate provision for pupils assessed as being dyslexic. Table 5.vi. provides similar details for teachers from the sample at the inclusive school.

**Table 5.vi. Training undertaken by 3 teachers in inclusive school sample.
N= 10 teachers**

Teacher No.	Nature of Training
IT2	Two term course for SENCO (special needs co-ordinators)
IT2	Research and dissertation for MA.
IT3	British Sign Language Stage 1
IT7	Mandatory qualification for teacher of the deaf.

These figures for training are interesting. It might have been assumed that in a school which is committed to inclusion, and which has such a high proportion of pupils with special educational needs, there would have been a greater number of teachers who had undertaken long term training course. However, the proportion of teachers who have pursued further training of this nature is the same for both samples. The figures for the inclusive school do reveal that to some extent the training undertaken does reflect the nature of some of the school population, with two teachers having qualifications related to the education of deaf pupils.

Documentary scrutiny for the inclusive school does reveal a high percentage of time given to special needs issues during training days and staff meetings. For example, all staff (both teaching and non-teacher) had during the term in which this research began, had in-school training related to the needs of autistic pupils. The SENCO provides regular sessions for staff related to specific issues of special needs management, such as the management of IEPs and planning. Several one off sessions have been used to heighten staff awareness of specific subjects such as behaviour management of pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties, and understanding and use of British Sign Language. Staff at the inclusive school, when questioned about training emphasised the importance of support provided by

the SENCO, and this will be discussed, along with other training issues, later in this chapter.

The figures related to training do not, of course, take account of any which may have been received by teachers who were excluded from the sample because they have less than three years experience, or the two teachers who chose not to participate in the study. However, discussions with the head teacher and the SENCO suggest that the figures presented here do reflect the staff as a whole.

When questioned about their personal training experiences in the area of special educational needs all head teachers, including the head of the inclusive school, revealed a lack of attendance at longer term training courses. Most talked about one-off days or evening sessions, but none had an additional special needs qualification.

SENCO experience

Teachers in both samples were asked whether they had held the post of SENCO at any time during their career. It is thought that teachers holding the post of SENCO will probably have greater understanding of special needs management requirements, and may be called upon to give advice in schools. However, there is some danger in assuming that SENCOs in the primary sector have necessarily gained the role because of a particular interest in this field. A national survey commissioned by the National Union of Teachers (NUT) and conducted by Warwick University (Lewis, Neill and Campbell 1997) revealed considerable

dissatisfaction with this role. Some teachers suggested that they came upon the role almost by default, simply because none of their colleagues was willing to take it on. Similarly, SENCOs questioned through this survey felt that opportunities for training, and time to fulfil the responsibilities of the role were inadequate. The role of the SENCO has been subject to much criticism (Dyson and Gains 1995, Farrell 1998b) In the context of this research teachers and head teachers were questioned about their experience with regards to this role as it was felt that by undertaking the duties of SENCO they might have gained additional insights into special needs issues. Tables 5.vii, 5.viii, and 5.ix, show the SENCO experience of teachers and head teachers in the samples. The head teacher of the inclusive school has never held the post of SENCO.

Table 5.vii. SENCO experience, teachers in non-inclusive schools.
N = 20

Teacher No.	Years as SENCO	Attendance at SENCO training course
03	2	None
07	8	None
09	1	None
17	4	Two term SENCO course

Table 5.viii. SENCO experience, teachers in inclusive school
N = 10

Teacher No.	Years as SENCO	Attendance at SENCO training course
IT2	3	Two term SENCO course
IT7	10	None

Table 5.ix. SENCO experience, head teachers in non-inclusive schools
N = 7

Teacher No.	Years as SENCO	Attendance at SENCO training course
NIHT1	5	None
NIHT2	2	None
NIHT7	2	None

Special school experience

In the collection of personal data from the samples, the final information requested related to experiences of working in special schools. Perceptions of the experiences of special school teachers are considered later in this chapter, but the reasons for asking about this aspect of teaching were again related to the types of experiences and attitudes which teachers may have carried with them into the mainstream. The head teacher of the inclusive school does see the experiences which some of his staff brought with them from special schools as having been crucial to the success of establishing inclusion in the early days at Studfall Junior School. Some of the special school experienced staff who transferred to Studfall at the time when special schools in Corby closed, have subsequently left. The contribution which they made to the school through their experience and expertise is discussed below.

None of the teachers from the non-inclusive schools had any special school teaching experience. This was also true of the head teachers in both the non-inclusive schools and the inclusive school. Of the teachers currently working in the inclusive school, only one teacher from the current staff has had special school teaching experience. This individual teacher has taught in schools for children with physical disabilities, hearing impairments, and moderate learning difficulties and

holds a senior management responsibility for special needs within the inclusive school.

In considering the typicality of populations as suggested by Ball (1984) a number of observations can be made with regards to the samples in this research. The gender balance of teachers in the non-inclusive schools sample reflects the national figures for primary schools (Statistics of Education DfEE 1998b). There is a slightly higher proportion of men to women in the inclusive school sample, though this is a true reflection of the staffing at the school. The difference in the range of special needs experience and training of the different samples is not great. This was important for this study, because a key stage two school in which all staff had extensive special needs expertise would be atypical, and the perceptions of such staff may well have made overall comparisons with teachers in non-inclusive settings invidious.

As discussed in chapter 3, the sample obtained for this research was to some extent based on convenience. However, the efforts which were made to obtain a sample which may be seen to be representative of a true primary teaching population and to ensure that the conditions in the focus inclusive school, may be said to have achieved its purpose in allowing for comparisons to be made.

5.3 Analysis of data - teacher perceptions and classroom practice.

All teachers who participated in the study were interviewed with the intention of gauging their perceptions about the conditions required for effective inclusion.

The questions asked were designed to obtain information related to three areas, these being:

- Teacher and head teacher beliefs and perceptions of the implications of inclusion for their own teaching needs and practice.
- Teacher views on the requirements for including specific pupils.
- Teacher and head teacher beliefs and perceptions with regards to the likely impact of inclusion upon schools.

Each of these areas will be discussed in turn with reference to both teacher perceptions gained through interviews, observed classroom practice, and information gained through scrutiny of documentation.

A coded analysis of responses to interview questions is contained in appendix 5.

The responses when examined can be seen to provide evidence of common concerns and beliefs with regards to the implications of inclusion and the conditions which need to be created. Themes which constantly occur centre around classroom support, the requirements for further training, the time required for planning and concerns about disruptive behaviours and difficulties of access. In presenting these results responses to questions have been grouped to address the three areas listed above.

Teacher and head teacher beliefs and perceptions of the implications of inclusion for their own teaching needs and practice.

All teachers and head teachers were asked to provide a general comment upon what they saw as the main implications of greater inclusion (Non-inclusive teacher Q6, Inclusive teacher Q6, Non-inclusive headteacher Q7, Inclusive head teacher Q7) From this initial question it became clear that a number of themes were likely to feature throughout the interviews. For teachers and head teachers from the non-

inclusive schools the need for classroom support was a major issue. Other recurring themes centred upon training, the pressures of time, access and resources.

Classroom support

In response to the general question about the implications of inclusion, nine of the twenty teachers from the non-inclusive settings saw the provision of classroom support as a vital component. There was a common belief that if pupils with special needs were to transfer from special schools this was most likely to work only when the pupil was accompanied by support staff.

"I think you've got to have staff support. You'd have to be careful that you could give the child all the support needed, and I think it would be very hard on teachers if they didn't have that support. Last year I had a child who was statemented and he had actually been kept back two years, but he again had a lot of problems. I think having him in an ordinary school where he could relate to children, the sort of 'normal' sort of child, actually helped him because I think he would have levelled down rather than levelling up. It helped him because he had a lot of support, he had a lot of ancillary time. But if he didn't have that level of help, I don't know if it would have been successful."

(Non-inclusive school teacher 07)

"Greater input of support staff. These children for various reasons are very demanding, and in fairness to them, if they are going to be properly supported in mainstream situations they do need somebody there."

(Non-inclusive school teacher 18)

These quotes from teachers who are not working in inclusive situations echoed those from several of their colleagues. Head teachers expressed similar concerns, feeling that additional staffing was needed both in order to ensure that the individual pupil with special needs was supported, and to enable the teacher to address the needs of others in the class.

"If it's a small class with good levels of support, classroom support and teaching support, then it is possible that it could be beneficial to the child. I also have a concern for all the other children in the class as well, because if a teacher is having to spend so much time with one child, it can be at the expense of other children. So I think the support has to be thought out very carefully before the child is offered a place."

(Non-inclusive school headteacher 3)

In response to this general question, only one teacher from the inclusive school mentioned classroom support as a priority. However, some care does need to be taken with regards to this figure as each of the teachers in the inclusive school sample is working in a classroom with support and speaks very highly of the work undertaken by this colleague. It is possible that teachers working in this situation have come to accept that working in this way is the norm, and therefore did not see the need to mention this as one of the greater implications of a move to inclusion. This view may be further reinforced when we consider their responses in relation to the two specific case study pupils presented. Teachers in the inclusive school were more inclined to mention the importance of classroom support as a necessity when discussing individual pupils (see responses to questions 10a and 10b)

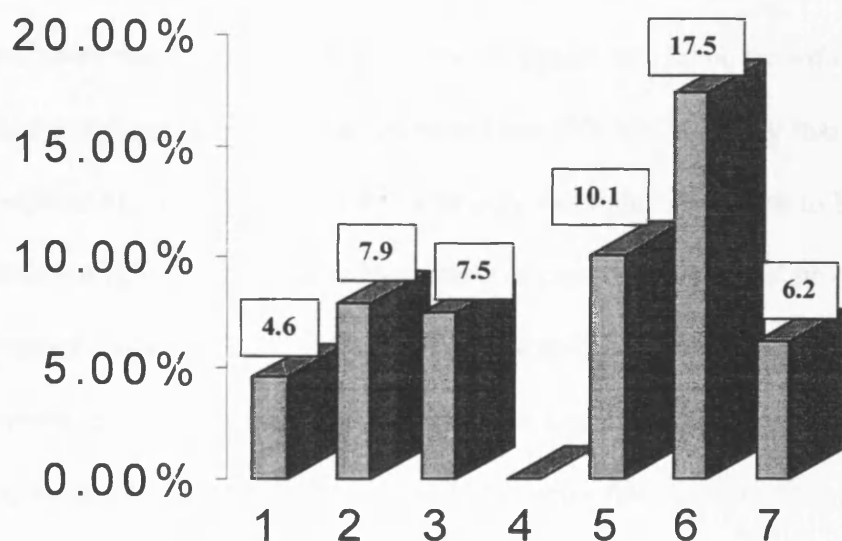
The views of teachers with regards to classroom support become more interesting when considered alongside the data obtained from classroom observation. The emphasis of comments made by teachers was upon the need for support for the individual pupil in order to ensure that the pupil could access the work presented and remain on task. Figure 5.x. gives an analysis of the actual time given to individual support of pupils with special needs in the lessons observed and warrant some further comment. Each of the pupils observed had a statement of special educational needs, and was observed on average for 311 minutes (range of observed time 293 mins - 345 mins) The total breakdown of observations related to situations can be seen in

appendix 6. Pupils were shadowed throughout an entire school day in order to gain a picture of how they were managed in a variety of situations. (Pupil profiles are to be found in appendix 3)

As can be seen from table 5.x. the amount of time given to individual pupils in support during the day was relatively small, and certainly does not reflect the view that individuals cannot function in class unless provided with a constant one to one.

Table 5.x.

Percentage of individual support time given to each pupil (*excluding pupil 4) by a learning support assistant during the time observed



***N.B. Pupil 4 received support from a communication support worker throughout the time observed. (This is normal practice at the school)**

The presence of a classroom support assistant in each class group was seen as critical by the teachers in the inclusive school, but it was apparent that this person could actually support a number of pupils at any one time. Observations revealed that the classroom assistant tended to work with small groups or moving from one individual to another checking work. However, teachers were always aware that the support was present, and that they could intervene where the need was greatest at any time. It is noticeable that pupil 6, who is described as having emotional and behavioural difficulties, received the greatest amount of individual intervention, followed by pupil 5 who is autistic. Staff at the inclusive school commented that of all the pupils with whom they were working, those with emotional and behavioural difficulties caused them the greatest number of management problems.

Two other factors of classroom support are seen to have been important when the data collected is analysed. The first of these concerns the nature of support in the individual intervention situation. The majority of time spent by classroom support assistants when working with individual pupils was taken up with checking pupil understanding of instructions given by teachers, and ensuring that pupils were performing the tasks required. Classroom assistants were seen to be particularly adept at ensuring that pupils had a clear view of expectations and at providing additional or simplified information. They were similarly effective in correcting work and moving pupils on to further tasks. In essence these skilled professionals act as an efficient go-between, linking teacher intentions to the activities of pupils. It might be suggested that rather than attaching classroom support assistants to individual pupils, it is more appropriate to recognise their role as supporting the teacher in enabling the class as a whole to function effectively.

The second critical factor regarding classroom assistants was to be found in teacher planning. An examination was made of teacher lesson plans and other similar documentation. This revealed that the teachers in the inclusive school were clear in defining a role for support assistants and had identified key tasks for them in each lesson which would allow all pupils with special educational needs to play a full part in the lesson. A crucial factor here may well be the fact that classroom assistants are involved in every stage of the planning process.

"The teaching assistants have networked well. They have very clear expectations about what pupils can do."

(Inclusive school teacher IT1)

The findings on classroom support described here reinforce some of the views expressed in the literature, but also suggest that we should look beyond some of the rather broad statements that have been made. Giangreco (1997) saw the training and supervision of classroom assistants as a vital factor in enabling inclusion to take place, but says little about how these colleagues can be most effectively deployed. Thomas et al (1998) is a little clearer in this respect, and their belief that the use of a support assistant exclusively to work alongside an individual pupil is inconsistent with the principles of inclusion, is confirmed by both the views expressed by teachers and the practice of staff observed at Studfall School. One particular concern expressed by Thomas and his colleagues was that over intervention by classroom assistants might inhibit the teacher from spending time with the individual pupil with special needs. The observations made during this project reveal that teachers in the inclusive school

were equitable in dividing their time amongst all members of the class. Similarly, the concerns expressed by Lewis (1995) with regards to inhibition of peer interaction resulting from too much intervention by support assistants was not apparent at Studfall School where there was a high emphasis upon all pupils participating in group work. A vital factor in the success of inclusion at Studfall School could well be the integration of support staff into a teaching role; one in which they share in all planning and delivery activities and have a clear understanding of teacher expectations. This reinforces the opinions expressed by Ainscow (1996) that collaborative planning is an essential feature of successful inclusive schools.

Training

A recurring theme with regards to the implications of greater inclusion focused upon the need for additional training. Here we have some consensus between members of both inclusive and non-inclusive samples. The teachers interviewed expressed concerns with regards to their own lack of experience, and the skills which they would need to accept pupils with special needs into their classrooms.

" I think specific problems need specific training so you can understand and cope with it. I think its hard to know how to deal with certain types of children. It's like say, autism. I've never had to deal with an autistic child and I think you need to have an understanding of autism itself. Its helpful to have that training behind you."

(Non-inclusive school teacher 12)

Asked about his current state of preparedness to address special needs (question 9) one teacher commented:

"I don't feel at all well prepared. Two years ago I had a lad with slightly autistic tendencies and I did some reading, I did some talking to people to try and find out the best strategies for dealing with this pupil. I tend to try to find out as the need arises. I don't know what my new class holds next year, though I know there are special needs children in that class. I haven't had any training, so I don't feel prepared."

(Non-inclusive school teacher 15)

Head teachers, when asked about the current state of their teachers' preparedness to teach pupils with special educational needs reinforced the teachers' own views with regards to the need for additional training.

"If we are thinking in terms of inclusion, we would have to be looking at fairly significant whole staff training issues. When there is inclusion into a particular class, we automatically think that it's the responsibility of that class teacher, whereas it's a multi-dimensional matter. Teaching and non-teaching staff would need to be trained."

(Non-inclusive school headteacher 5)

Teachers at Studfall School also saw training as an issue, but often commented on the fact that the experience they had gained whilst actually tackling problems, and the levels of support received from the SENCO and special needs manager were equally critical. When asked about how well prepared she was to provide an appropriate education for pupils with a range of special educational needs, one teacher from Studfall commented:

"I suppose I'm only prepared because of the experience that I've had. I know that here I will definitely get the help and support needed to meet their needs. I feel that I could definitely go to a long list of members of staff, with the SENCO and (other experienced SEN teacher) at the top for that support. I also feel supported by the head, in that I don't feel I'd be put in a position for which I wasn't prepared. I feel that there would be some sort of training offered to me."

(Inclusive school teacher IT3)

The theme of the ethos of the school as a place in which staff share their experiences and anxieties is repeated throughout the data collected from Studfall School. Teachers acknowledge the need for more training and at times comment critically upon the lack of suitable courses to meet their needs. Teachers also talk about the time which it takes to gain the necessary experience, and some are able to reflect upon the difficulties which were encountered when the school first accepted pupils from the special schools.

" I was amazed. Inclusion started the year I came here and I hadn't known the school previously. I came in from a couple of years out of teaching. I'd been in a village school before that. I was captivated by it. It just felt so right. We all learned a lot as we went along. We went through a period when some of the teachers first came from the special schools when we weren't working as a collegiate unit. That took a bit of time to get together, as it would anywhere. I can't imagine that people would come together from different backgrounds and work together just like that. It took a while, it took time to bed down. We had a lot of staff meetings about issues that arose. It went well. The only thing that bothered me was that the LEA were trying to push more children in than we were able to cope with at the time. I think colleagues were all very open. I don't think I've experienced a workplace that felt so open, and so willing to take on the challenge. I think (the headteacher) is a very good strategist. His strength is in strategy and he clearly had things well worked out. He's very good at picking the right people for the strategy and then letting them get on with the job, that's one of the reasons why its been a success."

(Inclusive school teacher IT5)

It is clear from the data collected that whilst training is seen as a major issue for all teachers this needs to be provided alongside the development of a supportive climate, and teachers also need to have opportunities to reflect upon their professional experiences. The comments made in the quote immediately above are also important in recognising that developments are likely to take time, and that there will invariably be tensions in the early stages of inclusion.

Ainscow (1999) has discussed the importance of experience as a part of training for inclusion. He argues that whilst training through courses is important, teachers will only become more skilful and gain in confidence as they acquire experience of hands on situations with children with special needs. Ainscow recognises the importance of achieving a balance between an input of knowledge gained through specific training, and the acquisition of experience which enables teachers to reflect upon the relationship of the training to their practice.

The comments regarding teachers from the special schools coming from a different background may also be significant. The structure of special schools does differ from that of the mainstream primary and we should not assume that practices always transfer readily from one to the other. Whilst special school teachers may have developed the skills of developing individual programmes, establishing objectives, and working with considerable precision, there is a recognition that these will need to be considerably adapted to become manageable in the mainstream situation. The head of Studfall School commented that:

"This mainstream school has benefited considerably from the expertise we've gained from teachers who transferred from the special schools. They have brought with them a whole battery of experience and understanding about how you manage children's learning"

(Head teacher, inclusive school)

If we revisit the three critical factors in the achievement of inclusive schools identified by Porter (1997) and discussed in chapter 2, we can see evidence of all of these in the quotations provided above. Effective leadership, a role for the teacher with special needs expertise, and training and support were all issues of concern to

teachers, and were seen as positive features by staff at Studfall School. However, other factors were seen to provide a possible obstacle to the development of inclusion.

The problem of time.

The perception that the management of pupils with special educational needs took an inordinate amount of time when compared to that available to their peers was one held by a number of teachers. In particular teachers in the non-inclusive settings believed that there would be a need for additional planning time.

"There are issues with whole class planning which aren't there at the moment. Obviously if you've got children like these in your classroom it would be more work, more time needed. When you're getting sorted with these children that's time you're not spending on something else."

(Non inclusive school teacher 14)

" I feel that any child with special needs, whatever those needs are, will take up more time than - I don't like to say a normal child - but the general run of the mill type of child."

(Non-inclusive school teacher 02)

Only one head teacher commented upon the extra time which they thought would be needed for planning, though several commented upon teacher time in the classroom being a possible distraction from work with other pupils, a point which is further discussed below. Additional time requirements for planning was not seen as an issue by teachers in the inclusive school though an examination of school documentation would suggest that this might be an important factor.

Access

Unlike the issue of time, access was acknowledged as a problem by teachers and head teachers from both the inclusive and non-inclusive samples. Until recently Studfall School has had no significant building modification (a classroom with designed acoustics for deaf children has recently been built) and existing mobile classrooms are inaccessible to wheelchairs. As one of the Studfall teachers commented:

"In terms of mobility, and from my classroom organisation, with having a wheelchair in my classroom I couldn't function in the way I do at the moment. I would need to re-assess the way I've got the furniture."

(Inclusive school teacher IT3)

Several of the teachers interviewed as part of the non-inclusive school sample work in schools where parts of the building would be inaccessible to wheelchair users, or where there are problems with acoustics. It is clear that if a local education authority is to have a commitment to inclusion, physical access is going to be an issue which must be addressed. It is noticeable that during interviews with the head of the inclusive school this was a subject upon which he voiced an opinion in the strongest of terms.

"We have a problem with mobility because we have five mobiles. We have a physical access problem in year five where all the classes are in mobiles. It makes me very angry, because recently millions have been spent on new schools - fine I understand that, but when we have thirty or forty children with statements and we know they are going to be housed in mobiles, I would have some issues. Its not that we can't provide for [educational] needs or anything other than access."

(Head teacher, inclusive school)

This head teacher argues that as a school they could easily have opposed the idea of developing inclusive practice on the basis of an unsuitable building. The fact that they did not do this is largely based upon having a positive attitude and a desire to create an inclusive environment. However, life would be made far easier for the staff, and the pupils if a more accessible environment was created. It has at times been stated that head teachers use the inadequacies of their buildings as an excuse for obstructing inclusion, in some instances this may be true, but for many pupils with special needs poor access is a major obstacle to full inclusion.

Teacher views on the requirements for including specific pupils.

As part of the interview process of data collection, teachers and head teachers were asked to examine the details of two case study pupils (see appendix 2) The purpose of presenting these two pupils was to enable interviewees to focus upon issues whilst considering possible scenarios related to their own classroom or school situation. The answers to questions related to these pupils are particularly helpful in both reinforcing the more generalised views expressed, and elaborating upon general points made. The two pupils clearly both have major needs, but of a greatly differing nature.

Half of the teachers working in the non-inclusive schools identified classroom support as a priority for child A.

"I'd want to make sure I'd got another adult supporting him in the classroom"

(Non-inclusive school teacher 01)

"I would assume that a child like this would have full support on a one to one basis within the class, and I think with that support the child would probably

have his own learning programme.

(Non-inclusive school teacher 02)

"Well, unless I had a special needs assistant who was going to help him keep on task, and keep his concentration, someone who's going to be there more than I could be with our large classes, to help him. If he was just put in with me, that would make things difficult. Especially you see, there's this movement to whole class teaching, and if he's not going to benefit, that's just going to make things difficult"

(Non-inclusive school teacher 06)

Head teachers from the non-inclusive schools tended to support the teachers in this view.

"When the child arrives the support has to be there for the child because he needs to be kept on task."

(Non-inclusive school headteacher 3)

"I think the main thing is adult support. If we got the adult support for him - full time classroom assistant support. He needs the support of an adult to enable him to participate."

(Non-inclusive school headteacher 6)

Where teachers from the inclusive school identified a need for classroom support for this pupil, they tended to be more precise in defining when they would need that support and how they would use it.

"Basically I would think about the other children he was with, in terms of my classroom situation having him wouldn't make a lot of difference. Because we have flexibility he would get good peer models and he would get extra attention in English. I think that the only thing that might be difficult is that I don't have classroom support 100% of the time in PE. I'd be concerned that in this lesson there would be nobody else but me."

(Inclusive school teacher IT4)

Teachers in the inclusive school tended to suggest that Child A was very like the pupils with whom they were already working. Child B was seen by these teachers to pose a greater challenge, and here there was a more clear acknowledgement of the need for dedicated classroom support.

Thirteen of the twenty teachers in non-inclusive schools emphasised classroom support as being essential for the inclusion of Child B, but because of the obvious physical needs of this child they appeared more able to articulate where this support would be needed. Several mentioned the pupil's personal or mobility needs as a focus for additional help.

"You'd obviously need help because the child would need help with going to the toilet and just physical every day things..... You've got to be there to support through all these things so the child would feel encouraged. I think you'd need quite a lot of one to one support."

(Non-inclusive school teacher 07)

"I think she would obviously need help with lunch time and going to the toilet, so you'd obviously need help with that from a classroom assistant, and for things like her art work."

(Non-inclusive school teacher 08)

"I'd want to know what support I was going to get. I wouldn't want to become involved with her personal needs."

(Non-inclusive school teacher 12)

"There's the independence thing. She'd need some support with her personal needs - physical support. It would be difficult to address all the needs as part of the class because they are more different than child A's."

(Non-inclusive school teacher 17)

The views expressed with regards to the personal needs of child B were reinforced by some of the comments received from the teachers at Studfall School. However, these

teachers in the inclusive school, whilst acknowledging that Child B would be challenging, tended to regard her educational needs as being within their expected remit.

"I would need someone to help with the toilet situation. I think the learning problems wouldn't be a problem. I don't think the educational side would be a problem, it's more her social needs."

(Inclusive school teacher IT6)

"She'd have terrible problems getting around my class because it's a small classroom. In terms of being able to meet her needs and the differentiation needed, I don't think I'd need to change. I think I'd probably want more support from our SEN staff - in terms of how to ask questions and what resources to use. I'd need some help with her personal needs.....I'd want to be sure that I was aware of all the possibilities for her. I'd need to work on more multi-sensory things for her."

(Inclusive school teacher IT4)

It may again be argued that as the teachers in the inclusive school have gained more experience of working with pupils with special educational needs they have grown in confidence. The teachers in the non-inclusive settings have no experience of a child like Child B, and therefore have nothing by which to gauge the ways in which they might respond. An interesting comment from one of the teachers at Studfall school reinforces the views expressed by Ainscow (1999) with regards to the value of experience when confronting new challenges.

"If I had a child with an unfamiliar difficulty I'd probably think "Oh no, I can't do that," but I would. I'd read up about it and prepare myself. You have to learn about it. I had the average person's deaf awareness before I had (child) in my class. I had to find out and I found out quick..... My deaf child can cope with everything."

(Inclusive school teacher IT8)

Consideration of the ways in which classroom support is to be used has emerged as a main issue from this research. It is apparent that as they have gained in experience the teachers at Studfall school have not only become more confident in managing pupils with special educational needs, but they have also become adept in the management of classroom support. Interview responses from the teachers who lack this experience tended to focus upon these two children as a problem which would require additional personnel resources. Teachers from the inclusive school tended to agree that classroom support would be required, though not in all situations, and were able to articulate more clearly how they would wish to use this additional staffing.

Differentiation

As has been seen in the review of the literature on inclusion, differentiation has often been regarded as a key to enabling pupils with special needs to participate in mainstream classrooms. This is a view which is supported by the findings of this research, and is emphasised when teachers were asked to consider the management of the two specific pupils. Eight of the ten teachers in the inclusive school saw differentiation as an essential part of enabling them to include pupils with special needs.

"You differentiate for the class as a whole, but quite often you've got a group and you have to differentiate three or four times within that group because their needs are so different."

(Inclusive school teacher IT1)

"When I first came here it was very new (to me). The buzz word was differentiation, which meant all sorts of different things, every different person interpreted it in a different way. At first, if you had pupils with special needs in your class you prepared for different outcomes and had different outputs from the rest of the class. Now the questioning techniques of teachers have improved. The outcomes expected may be different, but it's not totally different."

(Inclusive school teacher IT7)

"Obviously I differentiate for them in planning. You differentiate in everything you do. I do go out of my way to ensure that pupils are not just working side by side with pupils, but are working with them. I'm very anxious not to just have them working alongside."

(inclusive school teacher IT10)

Whilst teachers from the non-inclusive schools also referred regularly to differentiation, it was noticeable that the Studfall teachers had a much clearer perception of how this term fitted into an overall approach to classroom management. Discussions about questioning techniques, peer working and positioning of pupils have become common parlance within Studfall, and is reflected within teacher planning. An examination of teacher plans at Studfall School reveals that a broad range of differentiation strategies are in place, and reflects the good practice in this area advocated by writers such as Lewis (1994) and answers some of the concerns expressed by Hart (1992, 1996) The advanced approach to differentiation adopted at this school is also evident through the observations made of the pupils shadowed for this research. When pupils were given a task which was different from that being undertaken by their peers, teachers made every effort to ensure that these pupils could see how their individual task could contribute to the work of the class or group as a whole. For example, in a science lesson where pupils were asked to draw a diagram to represent evaporation, observed pupil number 2 was given materials to cut and paste a picture to represent the same process. When this pupil had concluded his work, it was used to enhance the work of other members of the class by providing a pictorial representation which was used by the whole class to elaborate upon their diagrams.

In considering Child A and Child B teachers in the inclusive school tended to discuss how these pupils would become an integral part of the group through the

differentiation strategies used. By contrast, many of the teachers working in non-inclusive settings focused upon the need to provide different activities for pupils.

"I'm assuming that these pupils (Child A and Child B) won't fit into a group. So, if their lack of ability or their academic attainment is below that of other children in the class, then you're planning extra activities for them."

(Non-inclusive school teacher 4)

"I think you'd be planning specifically for having these individual children in your class, and although we do differentiate, a lot of it is differentiation by outcome.....You'd have to plan solely for these children. Obviously you're going to have to give her (Child B) work that she can do."

(Non-inclusive school teacher 5)

"They'd (Child A and Child B) have a specific programme. So I'd do my usual planning for the class, plus a specific programme for these individuals. Where they could fit in it would be ok. Otherwise, I'd have to adapt things."

(Non-inclusive school teacher 12)

As teachers have gained experience of working in an inclusive situation they would appear to have developed routines and practices in relation to differentiation and planning which they now take for granted. Many acknowledge that when they were first confronted by larger than usual proportions of pupils with special educational needs this was not the case. It would again appear that Ainscow's (1999) assertion that increased experience is a vital component of becoming effective as an inclusive teacher may be significant.

Teacher and head teacher beliefs and perceptions with regards to the likely impact of inclusion upon schools.

Grouping

Having considered the impact of inclusion upon teachers' own practice and the effects which individual pupils may have upon this, the research also considered the possible overall impression, which a change to inclusion might have upon schools as a whole.

The observations made at Studfall School raised particular questions about the grouping of pupils, and formed the basis of some focused questioning of teachers and the head teacher.

Some advocates of inclusion have argued that pupils with special educational needs are often taught in ability groups in schools and that this can detract from the purpose of inclusion (Booth, Ainscow and Dyson 1997, Manset and Semmel 1997,) Other writers (Snell 1998, Marvin 1998) have concluded that a move towards a variety of groupings, including some based upon ability or need may be critical in supporting classroom management. At Studfall school a range of groupings are in place. During the mathematics and English lessons observed, the dominant approach was to teach through ability groups. This tended to mean that pupils with special educational needs were grouped together. However, teachers at the school would argue that all pupils are ability grouped at this time, and that this has been the practice for some time. Staff at Studfall school assert that in allocating all pupils to sets for English and maths they are not singling out pupils with special needs, and are in fact including them within the normal working practices of the school. Indeed, during observations made for this research it was apparent that some pupils with special needs, for example a boy with autism, were matching their peers in terms of performance whilst working in one of the 'higher ability' sets.

Table 5 xi. shows a breakdown of the times which the seven observed pupils spent in ability groups.

Table 5.xi.

Time spent by 7 subject pupils observed in ability groups separate from main class peers

	Total time observed	Time in ability groups	% Time ability grouped
Pupil 1	300 mins	174 mins	58%
Pupil 2	293 mins	163 mins	55.63%
Pupil 3	305 mins	123 mins	40.32%
Pupil 4	305 mins	0 mins	0%
Pupil 5	345 mins	63 mins	18.26%
Pupil 6	308 mins	133 mins	43.18%
Pupil 7	325 mins	70 mins	21.53%
	Sum total observed	Sum time ability groups	Mean % time in ability groups
	2,181 mins	726 mins	33.84%

The figures for pupil 4 relate to a deaf pupil who has full time signed communication support and remains with her able peers throughout all sessions observed. Afternoon sessions observed, which tended to be used for humanities and art subjects, and some science, were taught almost exclusively through fully inclusive lessons. It was also clear that the ability groups used for maths and English did afford opportunities for pupils to change groups as their strengths in these subjects improved. The observation of pupil 5 in maths revealed that he was participating in an able group and performing at a level compatible to his peers in this group.

The figures presented in table 5.xi. do, of course, only represent a small sample of time observed. However, an examination of school timetables would suggest that the

observation days were typical and representative of the workings of the school. The head teacher of Studfall School commented:

"Teachers have had to think about how they group, how they set, how they target, about the pace. They've had to think about pedagogy much more clearly. Having so many pupils with SEN around makes you reflect on your practice."

(Inclusive school head teacher)

For Studfall School grouping is undoubtedly a factor in enabling teachers to manage pupils with special educational needs. Pupils observed in their groups appeared confident and assured when working with the materials presented. The groups visited had good pace, but it was noticeable that the lower ability groups spent considerable time on reinforcement of learning. The ability to group pupils in this way is dependent upon having a school with a viable population of pupils with special needs. The head teacher commented that he saw the school as being fortunate in having a large number of pupils with special needs, because they allowed for some flexibility of grouping, whereas smaller numbers might lead to pupils being marginalised.

Pupil attitudes, benefits and performance.

Questions were asked during the semi-structured interviews to ascertain whether teachers had a perception of how they thought pupils might respond to their peers with special needs. The teachers in the inclusive school were also asked about any particular provision which they had made to promote a positive attitude towards these pupils.

When asked the question, "how do your pupils respond to those who have special educational needs?" nine of the ten teachers from Studfall School said that their pupils were very positive, though two did say that at various times they had to deal with specific problems. Typical of the positive comments were:

"That's the key. The way that some of them are is an absolute joy. The way that they are so together, they really support each other and are there for each other. They don't patronise the special needs children in any way because they are so used to the children. They make allowances where necessary, but they are just really supportive. Their whole attitude towards people, I guess that's going to impact upon them through their whole lives. They accept differences so readily. It creates a really good atmosphere."

(Inclusive school teacher IT4)

"I think a lot of children will become more tolerant citizens as a result of inclusion and be able to live with each other. Their chances of growing up to be balanced individuals are so much better now than they ever would have been. It's a real world situation."

(Inclusive school teacher IT5)

Teachers did not, in general report having taken any particular measures to prepare pupils for their peers with special needs. The main reason given for this was that the pupils came up together right through the school system, and just accepted that these were their classmates. They did state that on occasions when pupils with special needs entered from outside the school they would sometimes put additional measures into place to ensure that they were made welcome.

"I haven't (taken any specific measures) but my class is year 6 anyway, so they've come up through the school and are sympathetic to the situation. When (deaf child) came, the children were very welcoming, probably a bit overpowering. A few started signing, then loads of them learned. It was phenomenal really. Now you see them doing it on the playground. She hasn't got celebrity status any more. The second deaf girl came along and it was like - we've seen this before. Sometimes the parents comment, they say you've put them on so and so's table, but we don't accept any of that. Some of those

parents came to the school years ago, so you can see that the children are much more tolerant than their parents are."

(Inclusive school teacher IT1)

Observations of pupils in the classroom situation endorse the view that pupils are not only accepting of their special needs peers, but have formed firm friendships. Pupils with special needs were seen to be chosen as working partners, and joined in with playground games and other activities.

Eighteen of the twenty teachers from the non-inclusive settings also felt that their pupils would be positive in accepting pupils with special needs, as did six of the seven head teachers. Head teachers tended to see the need to put some form of preparatory work in place:

"They would respond well, but there would be a need for some explanation to the other children."

(Non inclusive school headteacher 1)

This need for explanation is thought quite likely to be necessary in a school where pupils with special needs are initially introduced.

Similar results were obtained when interviewees were asked about whether they thought that pupils with special educational needs would bring benefits to the school. Teachers at Studfall school talked enthusiastically about raised awareness for both pupils and teachers. All of the headteachers spoke of the importance of raised awareness:

"It would hopefully open children's eyes. On the whole pupils accept other children. Increased tolerance and awareness, Just because someone is different it doesn't mean they are any better or worse."

(Non-inclusive school head teacher 4)

"I think that as a community there are benefits and that it is an enriching experience. My concern is that it will only be of benefit if the staff and the child have the support they need to really make it work."

(Non-inclusive school headteacher 6)

When asked to consider any disadvantages of including more pupils two particular issues were raised by the headteachers and teachers from the non-inclusive schools.

The first of these concerned possible reaction from parents, and the second, often associated with this, was the likelihood of children with special needs being disruptive in class.

"There are some people who would not easily accept these children coming in to school, and I would fear some discrimination. Some parents would feel uneasy."

(Non-inclusive school head teacher 1)

Parents could be a problem because of attitude. Particularly if a child is being disruptive. I would ask, is it going to effect the overall standards if the teacher has to give so much more time to pupils with SEN?"

(Non-inclusive headteacher 3)

This last point was further probed by asking interviewees if they felt that having pupils with a range of special educational needs in class would make a difference to the performance of the class. Teachers at Studfall School were certain that having pupils with special needs had not had an adverse effect upon class performance, Indeed, it was more common to receive a positive response from these teachers.

"No, I don't think so at all. In fact if anything it makes me think the subject matter through more carefully because I'm having to differentiate it. You really have to know your stuff, which you should anyway, but it really helps me think things through carefully. It helps even the most able children to sit and work with someone who is less able. It helps them to sort through in their own mind exactly what they've learned and to assess their own learning. I just think the benefits far outweigh any perceived disadvantages. I can't imagine now, having done it for so long, that there are any disadvantages."

(Inclusive school teacher 1)

"I think that across the school the teaching has got better. Staff have had to go on courses for teaching children with special needs and I think the spin off is that this has benefited all children."

(Inclusive school teacher 2)

"I think things have been enhanced. I think if anything its improved the lot of children having so many with special needs."

(Inclusive school teacher 5)

The head teacher at Studfall agrees that having pupils with special needs in the school has had major benefits for the quality of teaching, and as such has benefited all children. However, he accepts that in the early days of moving to inclusion he did have some reservations and concerns. Not the least of these were based upon the perceptions which parents had of the school and the likely effects of inclusion. He recalls one particular occasion.

"Going back six or seven years there were some concerns. I recall one parent saying, "how is my child going to manage in this system?" You have to have the confidence in your colleagues around you to say - it'll be fine - we'll give it a go. At the end of the day, I must say, I got the most wonderful card and letter from this parent saying, "You said it would be ok and you were right." But you take a risk in any innovation, you take a risk. You have to say, look, this is right, let's do it, and let's do everything we can to make it work."

(Head teacher inclusive school)

This comment sums up the approach which seems to pervade Studfall School, and represents an enthusiasm based upon a belief that inclusion can work. However, it must be remembered that teachers from this school can speak with the wisdom of hindsight, whilst those working in non-inclusive settings feel an apprehension for the unknown.

Do special schools have advantages in meeting special needs?

The final information gathered from the data sought opinions about the role of the special school. The Green Paper, Excellence for All Children (1997) suggests that even with increased inclusion there will be a need to retain some segregated provision in the future. All interviewees were asked if they saw special schools having any advantages over mainstream schools in addressing special educational needs. Fifteen of the twenty teachers from non-inclusive schools, and five of the head teachers believed that special schools had an advantage through being staffed by teachers with special expertise. Five of the Studfall teachers also cited this as being an advantage. Eleven of the non-inclusive teachers also saw small class size as an advantage as did four of the head teachers. Of the teachers at Studfall School all had positive comments to make about special schools.

"I do have fairly strong views. I think that there are some areas of special needs where special schools are necessary. I certainly think that some of the more severe learning difficulties children benefit from special schools." I would not completely abolish the special school system."

(Inclusive school teacher 6)

"I'm sure they do for some children. I'm sure there are some children who do need the specialist teaching available in a special school."

(Inclusive school teacher 9)

These comments may be seen to reflect a realistic perception from the teachers in an inclusive school which has recognised the hard work which has been involved in bringing the school to its current situation. They also endorse the views expressed earlier by the head teacher of Studfall, that the teachers who had joined the school with a special school background had brought with them expertise and positive attitudes. It seems appropriate to leave the final comments of this chapter, related to the question of special schools, to the head of Studfall school before drawing conclusions from the data in the next chapter.

"I recently visited a special school in this county. I had a guided tour and a look around the school, and I reckon that sixty or seventy percent of the children were similar to those we are dealing with here. I have to say, I would rather they were educated in a mainstream school because - it's a philosophical and equal opportunities issue - why shouldn't these children have the right to be educated along with mainstream folk? Why shouldn't mainstream children have the right to be educated alongside children with special needs?..... I think what the mainstream offers that special schools can't is that it's easier to have high expectations of (a pupil with Down's syndrome) in a mainstream setting because he is with his mates and good role models.

Watching an art lesson the other afternoon, with four children with statements in the class. At ten past three after a wet playtime they were as busy as everyone else in the class. I thought, this is wonderful - that's about good quality teaching. It wasn't special needs teaching, it wasn't mainstream teaching, it was good quality teaching. If that's the focus - the teaching, it doesn't matter who you've got in front of you."

(Head teacher inclusive school)

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSIONS

6.1 Implications of the research

The research conducted for this study has produced a series of findings, which both reinforce some of the convictions expressed within the body of inclusion literature with regards to the conditions necessary in schools, and also raises a number of other questions which might provide an indication of further areas in need of investigation. This chapter will provide a commentary upon the findings in relation to previous research, and will also consider how this particular area of investigation might be moved forward.

Earlier in this work a purpose of this study was described as hypothesis generalisation. Precedents for research with this purpose have been well established in the work of earlier researchers (Bennett and Cass 1988, Robson 1993) and have been described as a legitimate process through which researchers strengthen their understanding of the subject of enquiry, and in so doing become more efficient in identifying research questions which have greater validity. The researcher undertaking this work has described in chapter 2 his concern that much of the literature of inclusion has been generated from a foundation of socio-political and philosophical discourse. Whilst this has its own intrinsic value, the lack of an empirical basis upon which to make more definitive statements about the inclusion process must be of concern to all who have responsibility for the education of children. The investigation conducted for this work set out to gain an impression of teacher perceptions, and to begin to match these to the reality

of the classroom situation. In so doing it has been possible to gain a picture of those conditions which may be necessary for the greater inclusion of pupils with special educational needs into mainstream primary schools. Within this chapter four of these conditions, based upon the data collected and the continual themes which emerged from the findings, will be discussed and a hypothesis related to each.

Before embarking upon this discussion it is, however, important that we are clear about the legitimacy of any messages which come from the research, and the limitations which inevitably surround small scale research projects of this nature. In the previous chapter Bassey's (1999) commentary upon the generalisation of small scale research findings was discussed. The research conducted for this study can be seen most closely to relate to Bassey's notion of a study of singularities, and as such there is a need to exercise caution with regards to our interpretation of these in a broader context. Having discovered that some factors which may enable more successful inclusion to take place can be identified within the research findings, it is not possible to make definitive statements about these in relation to key stage 2 schools as a whole. However, using Bassey's definition of 'fuzzy generalisation' it is possible to provide some statements with 'built-in uncertainty' (Bassey 1999 p.3) which can assist us in devising hypotheses. Such statements may not only be useful, but possibly essential if we are to establish the foundations for further and more in-depth enquiry in this area. Indeed, further legitimisation is given to this process by Walcott's (1994) assertion that interpretation, the third part of his triad of qualitative research analysis, must inevitably be founded upon the researcher's own previous professional expertise, and that of others reported in the literature. There are themes

which have emerged from the research here reported which do lend themselves to the kinds of interpretation which Bassey advocates. As with much research conducted in the social sciences and especially within an interpretive paradigm, there is a need to recognise the many variables which inevitably exist when undertaking investigations which involve children, teachers, and a variety of learning environments. To some extent this is the beauty of the challenge thrown down to the educational researcher, though it can equally be a source of some frustration. This study has considered these variables and limiting factors, and this chapter will therefore limit its conclusions to those areas where clear trends and issues have emerged.

Four dominant themes will be discussed in the next section of this chapter. These have been selected as those which were most clearly evidenced from the triangulation of interviews, observations and document scrutiny. Whilst other issues have been highlighted in the data it is these four which are, in the terms of Elliot and Adelman (1976) as cited in chapter 3, most secure within the established data set. Robson (1993) suggests that in research with a focus upon hypothesis generation, such as this is described, it will often be important to select that data which gives the clearest indication of areas in need of further investigation. These writers emphasise that in small scale research such as this, it is necessary to attend to evidence which can be most effectively substantiated through more than one source. Each of the themes to be considered in detail has been identified as a priority within the sample studied and will therefore form the core of this discussion.

6.2 Themes emerging from the research.

The interviews, observations and document scrutiny conducted for this study have inevitably revealed a range of opinions and beliefs regarding the conditions necessary to promote inclusion. However, from these it is possible to identify four themes which may provide a key to successful inclusion, these being

- The importance of positive attitudes towards pupils with special educational needs and the philosophy of inclusion.
- A clear view of the ways in which classroom support may be used effectively as an aid to inclusion.
- The importance of training which is related to a contextual understanding of working with pupils with special educational needs.
- Management of the pace of change from segregated to inclusive practice.

Although other themes can be drawn from the findings, it is these four which are pre-dominant in the responses of teachers and through the observations undertaken. Each of these themes will be considered individually, though it is important to recognise that all of the conditions necessary for successful inclusion are interrelated and impinge upon each other.

6.3 The importance of attitude.

The philosopher Martin Heidegger (1927) discussed the difficulties which exist in projecting ourselves into the position of others in order to gain an understanding of their experiences. He suggested that it is only upon the basis of experiencing something, that we can truly begin to understand its nature. Such an existentialist viewpoint, if taken to its logical conclusion, presents the interpretive researcher with major difficulties.

However, we can to some extent see the truth of Heidegger's statement when we explore the reasoning behind the views expressed by teachers in this study. The teachers who

work in the inclusive school demonstrate a greater confidence in their own abilities to meet the needs of a wide range of pupils with special educational needs. When presented with the two case study pupils during interview there was a tendency for these teachers to examine their current practices, and talk in positive terms about what they would do to meet the pupil's needs. These teachers did not deny that such pupils provide an additional challenge to the teacher, but they did tend to see themselves as reasonably well equipped to confront the challenge. Teachers from the non-inclusive school sample were less confident in their answers, and in some cases saw children with special educational needs as inflicting a further burden upon classrooms which are already stretched near to the limits of endurance.

It would, however, be a false conclusion to suggest that inclusion at Studfall School has been successful because the pupils have entered a school with a wholly positive attitude to pupils with special educational needs. It may be more accurate to suggest that these attitudes have developed over time as teachers have gained in experience and confidence. If we probe a little deeper into the responses provided by the teachers at Studfall School we find several instances of teachers who recall that when they first encountered such a high proportion of pupils with such complex needs they felt somewhat overawed. These teachers are quite open in describing the ways in which their personal and professional confidence has grown with time and as they have become more experienced in managing a greater range of pupil needs. By contrast several of the teachers from non-inclusive schools used expressions such as 'I can't imagine having this child in my class'. It may

well be that a fear of the unknown in teachers has been interpreted as an unwillingness to rise to the challenge offered by pupils with complex needs.

If we return to the literature and examine discussions regarding the attitudes of teachers to inclusion, we find that the majority of reports are very factual in their presentation. Semmel, Abernathy, Butera and Lesar (1991) conducted a study of attitudes towards pupils with special educational needs in both segregated and inclusive provision in the USA. They suggested that teachers in both samples supported the idea of educating all pupils in mainstream schools in principle. However, fewer than one third of teachers questioned believed that the mainstream school would afford the best environment for these children. Thomas et al. (1998) in their analysis of conditions which allowed for the transition of pupils from segregated to inclusive provision in the Somerset project, also identified attitudes as a key factor. They indicate that the positive attitude of the head teacher, and his communication of a belief that the school could not only contain, but successfully educate pupils with more complex needs than had previously be experienced, was critical to a school's success in becoming inclusive. This belief is certainly endorsed by the findings of the project described in this study. The head teacher exudes enthusiasm and commitment to inclusion. Beyond this, he is perceived by his staff as providing a high level of support, placing the special needs 'experts' within the school in a position where they can have maximum impact, and maintaining a realistic perspective on the challenges which pupils with special needs present in the classroom. The enthusiasm of a head teacher alone would be insufficient in enabling inclusion to succeed. At Studfall School a notable feature is the consensus and belief which permeates

the whole school, that inclusion is both right, and manageable. Further more, as teacher IT3 stated

“I also feel supported by the head in that I don’t feel I’d be put in a position for which I wasn’t prepared”.

(Inclusive School Teacher IT3)

Forlin (1995) in research conducted into teacher attitudes towards inclusion in Australia, is one of the few writers to move beyond a presentation of facts and to begin to examine underlying teacher concerns about inclusion. He recorded that teachers in mainstream schools believed that the most stressful situation likely to arise from inclusion was a difficulty in maintaining a personal belief in their own level of competence. This fear may in part be attributed to the difficulties which teachers experience in perceiving how they may meet the needs of a pupil whose abilities may be exceptional to those which they have previously encountered. It is interesting to note that O'Neill and Linfoot (1989) in their research into teacher attitudes to inclusion report that of the teachers they surveyed, those in their first two years of teaching had the most positive attitude to inclusion. One may surmise that this could be related to the inexperience of these new teachers who have not yet established a routine, and therefore may not perceive pupils with special educational needs as having a disruptive influence. It may also be a fact that new teachers are constantly taking on new challenges and simply accept those presented by pupils with special educational needs as being part of what is expected of them.

Jenkinson (1997) endorses the belief that attitudes are central to the positive development of inclusion, and states that it is difficult to find a successful inclusive school in which a

positive attitude does not permeate every aspect of the school. Other recent writers, Tilstone (1998) Ainscow (1999) Allan (1999) have also stressed the need to ensure that attitudes are right within a school before inclusion begins. Here, however we may have some difficulties in moving forward with the pace which documents such as "Excellence for All Children" advocates. If, as this research suggests, attitudes and beliefs about the ability to successfully include pupils are directly related to teacher experiences of having managed pupils with special educational needs in the classroom, we may be at an impasse unless more schools are willing to grasp the nettle and become more inclusive. The research conducted here suggests that teachers will gain confidence in managing pupils with special needs, and develop a more positive attitude to inclusion only when they have worked in an inclusive situation. It similarly suggests that attitudes can be greatly influenced by the senior managers of the school, but that these individuals also need to ensure that they create a supportive working climate in which teachers can gain the confidence to succeed. We may then hypothesise, that teachers working in an inclusive school who have received the support of the headteacher and management of the school are likely to be more confident in managing pupils with special educational needs. We may further suggest that teacher apprehensions with regards to working in an inclusive classroom environment, when based upon a lack of experience, may not be an accurate assessment of the difficulties which teachers in an inclusive system encounter. However, in order to test such a hypothesis it would be necessary to revisit and more closely define the characteristics of an inclusive classroom environment. We may be getting closer to achieving this after discussing the other themes which have emerged from the research.

6.4 The use of classroom support

The need for additional classroom support in order to include pupils with special educational needs, was regarded as a prime factor by most teachers and headteachers from the non-inclusive schools. The availability of such support was also a reality in most of the situations observed at Studfall School. Teachers in the non-inclusive schools tended, in their interview responses, to focus upon the demand which children with special educational needs were likely to make upon individual attention. However, the observations conducted at Studfall School revealed that well organised classroom support tended to benefit a whole class and that attention to individuals with special needs was minimal (see chapter 5 table 5x)

Giangreco and his colleagues (Giangreco 1996, 1997, Giangreco, Whiteford, Whiteford and Doyle 1998)) emphasise that effective classroom support has a major role to play in promoting inclusion. They are clear in their view that such support should feature as part of a collaborative planning and team work approach, and that in order to be effective an emphasis must be placed upon planning for the whole class rather than focusing upon the individual. To achieve such a team approach may not be easy. Wood (1998) has suggested that many teachers have become used to working in an autonomous state, and that this may present some difficulties when moving towards a more collaborative approach. He indicates that teachers may need to shift their own perception of their role, and that this should concentrate upon one of creating an environment in which all pupils

are accepted, and which is conducive to promoting learning for all pupils. An emphasis upon team work for the management of the whole class, as opposed to targeting the individual pupil with special educational needs, is more likely to support the development of independence in pupils. The classroom in which support staff concentrates attention upon an individual pupil may well be likely to cause that individual to be isolated from his or her peers.

Again this is a theme which is visited by Thomas and his colleagues (Thomas et al 1998). They stress the need for flexibility, recognising that an individual pupil may require support at times for which it is difficult to plan. However, they agree with Giangreco et al. (1998) that collaborative planning and team work is highly dependent upon effective communication between teacher and classroom assistant, and an element of trust which enables the classroom assistant to make decisions, when necessary, about the levels of support which an individual child needs. This, of course, demands that support staff are recognised as professionals in their own right, and receive the necessary training to enable them to function in this manner.

At Studfall School classroom support staff are an integral part of the planning process. They are seldom allocated an individual pupil during lessons, but tend to manage small groups, or have a roving brief in whole class teaching situations. During observations undertaken for the project it was noticeable that the classroom assistants did not only provide their attention to pupils with special educational needs. They were adept at recognising pupils who needed assistance and intervening accordingly. Where they were

directed by the teacher it was often for some organisational purpose with a group of pupils rather than an individual. When questioned informally, classroom support assistants saw themselves as being valued team members, and felt that they were consulted on all aspects of class management. Interviews with teachers at Studfall School revealed that they value their classroom support colleagues highly, and respect their opinions and understanding of the children. The teachers were firm in their belief that these professional colleagues were critical in enabling pupils with special needs to be maintained in the classroom. They did, however, suggest that their presence enabled several pupils of diverse need to be accommodated rather than just an individual.

If we can draw a hypothesis from this, it is that classroom assistants play a critical role in enabling inclusion to take place. However, there is a need to investigate whether providing a classroom assistant for a named individual pupil, as opposed to allocating them to a class may in fact result in greater isolation and exclusion, rather than allowing the inclusion which it may purport to achieve. Research into the effective use of classroom support would appear to be a critical area for further investigation. This writer would suggest that the allocation of classroom support to a named teacher is more likely to support inclusive practice in the classroom than an allocation to a named child. If inclusion is in part a process of moving towards greater independence in the learner, schools need to be cautious about using support staff in a way which creates greater dependency.

6.5 The relationship between training and context.

Teachers in both samples identified training as a specific need in enabling them to address the needs of children who present complex problems. It was therefore somewhat surprising to find that even within the inclusive school, the profile of training through long courses was quite limited. This should not, of course, be taken to indicate a limited commitment on the part of staff, and may indeed relate to the limited availability of suitable training, lack of financial support, or the pressures to undertake training in other areas related to national initiatives. However, training in the education of pupils with special educational needs has recently been identified as a national priority (TTA 1998) and it will be interesting to see whether new training initiatives are developed, and to measure their impact over the coming years.

A particularly interesting finding of this research has been the general perception of teachers from both samples that teachers working in special schools are better trained, and more experienced in dealing with children with special needs. Fifteen of the twenty teachers in the non-inclusive schools saw training and expertise as being critical factors which enabled special school teachers to be successful with children with special needs. A similar proportion of the Studfall sample expressed views along these lines. Training is also regarded as a vital component of creating successful conditions for inclusion within much of the literature as we have already seen (Ainscow and Hart 1992, Giangreco 1997, Porter 1997)

McLaughlin (1996) states that:

“Everyone involved in the education of students with disabilities agrees that professionals who interact with these students should meet the highest qualification standards of their profession.”

McLaughlin (1996) P. 67.

It may be argued that McLaughlin’s statement could equally be applied to all professionals working in any area of the ‘caring professions’. However, a criticism which has been aimed at some training is that it often fails to impact upon quality and standards in the classroom because of insufficient analysis of needs and matching of these to course content (Bradley 1991, Fielding 1996).

An interesting theme which has emerged from this research relates to the relationship between training and contextual understanding. Many of the teachers at Studfall school, in identifying training as an important requirement, spoke about the advantages of receiving that training after having some real experience of specific situations. For example a teacher working with an autistic child expressed the view that training was more useful after she had worked with the child for a while because she was then able to consider the training content in relation to her own situation. In this way the theoretical content of the training which she received could be put into the context of her own classroom experiences. Teachers at Studfall school could articulate their own training needs quite clearly, and in interview were able to describe how specific training had enabled them to change their classroom practice. They also spoke of the vital role played by the special needs co-ordinator and other specialist staff in delivering in house training

which could draw upon examples of known children and situations. By contrast, teachers from the non-inclusive sample who expressed a view about the need for additional training, when asked to elaborate upon the nature of the training required were seldom able to specify beyond relating it to labels, such as training in autism. The focus of training needs expressed by these teachers was generally related to specific 'conditions', with very little emphasis upon general teaching principles which might be applied to the teaching of all pupils. Teachers in the non-inclusive schools often compared their lack of training and expertise to their perception of the high levels of skills of teachers in special schools.

"I don't think that in an ordinary school where there's less money to be spent that it would be the same (as in a special school) And certainly there are people there who are trained to work with autistic children or blind children or deaf children. The primary teacher has to be able to teach a range of subjects, though they are not specialised in everything. If you've also got to try and cope with children who are blind or deaf or dumb. Then they are very special, and I think that people who have spent a long time training may be able to offer something more for these children."

(Non-inclusive school teacher 07)

We may generate a hypothesis from these findings which suggests that training is a critical factor in supporting inclusion, but that its relationship to experience and context is equally important. It could be suggested that providing opportunities for teachers to work alongside experienced teachers of children with special needs may be a positive way forward to providing a contextual understanding prior to the provision of formal training. Teachers at Studfall school often speak of the increased confidence which has come with experience of working in the school over an extended period of time. Advocates of full inclusion have many questions to answer with regards to how the transfer from special to

mainstream schools may be successfully managed. It may be that greater links between special and mainstream schools, as advocated in Excellence for All Children (DfEE 1997) is an important step towards inclusion. Such links could, if imaginatively managed, provide opportunities for mainstream school staff to gain experience of working alongside 'specialist' teachers in an effort to increase their contextual awareness and understanding. Such an approach, if followed by well constructed training programmes, might result in both a better trained teaching force and also address some of the attitudinal difficulties discussed above. The findings of this research indicate a willingness on the part of all teachers to learn from their colleagues, which would suggest that a bringing together of teachers who have a commitment to special needs issues and expertise with those who express apprehension and a lack of confidence could be a critical factor in promoting greater inclusion.

6.6 Management of the pace of change from segregated to inclusive practice

The research conducted has given an indication that with the right conditions it is possible to achieve inclusive schooling for a significant number of pupils who might otherwise be educated in special schools. However, it is equally apparent that the confidence of many teachers to be able to manage inclusive classrooms at present is far from secure. Teachers from the non-inclusive schools interviewed for this research were positive in their assertions that all pupils have an entitlement to an education. The

difficulty often lies in defining exactly what such an entitlement may look like, and where it may be appropriately delivered.

Teachers at Studfall school believe that they have identified many of the necessary conditions for inclusion. These match well to those conditions suggested by many of the writers who have explored this area (Ainscow 1997, 1999, Porter 1995, 1997, Giangreco 1997, Thomas et al 1998). It is clear that the achievement of the current situation at Studfall school has taken a considerable period of time. The head teacher of Studfall School is clear in his belief that the school progressed through a period of trauma early in its history of inclusion. The closure of special schools and the movement of children into Studfall created a feeling of having been de-skilled for some teachers, presented tensions between the established, and newly arriving special school staff, and required a lot of re-educating of parents regarding the likely impact which the incoming pupils might have upon the education of their children. Several years have elapsed since this change, and staff at the school still express their own needs in terms of training and the development of new approaches. Similarly, the head teacher continues to recognise difficulties of access caused by inadequacies in the building, and the need for more focused resources.

The desire for educational reform which will lead to greater inclusion is strong, as was seen in chapter 2. The tide of feelings regarding the more effective delivery of children's rights is such that change will inevitably come. However, change is often most effective when it is carefully managed. Dyson (1999) has described inclusion as being in a period

of two discourses (p. 48). The first of these, and in many ways that which has received most attention, he describes as a *discourse of ethics and rights*, concerned to gain an understanding of pupils' rights and how these may best be addressed within the education system. The second he labels as the *efficacy discourse*, and is less well developed than the former. Dyson describes the efficacy discourse as being concerned for the 'educational order of the inclusive school', and an understanding of what works, and why this might be the case.

The research conducted for this study has attempted to consider some of the issues of pragmatics which impact upon inclusion, and has found that there remains much to be done before we have a full understanding of how to create an inclusive school. There is a danger that in our anxiety to address the first of Dyson's discourses, and to be seen to be doing that which is now generally accepted as morally and politically correct, that we may advance at a pace which is ahead of the state of preparedness which needs to be created in schools in order to see inclusion succeed. The suggestion here is that we may need to proceed with some caution if we are not to create a backlash of anti-inclusionary feeling. Such a suggestion does not rest easily with the views expressed by some writers (Booth 1996) who believe that waiting for the correct conditions may result in inclusion being delayed for an unacceptably long time. The pace of change to an inclusive school system may be slower if we pursue an evolutionary process which involves greater co-operation between special and mainstream schools as an important step in the direction of inclusion. It may also be a critical one if we are to promote positive attitudes, and to ensure a willingness on the part of teachers to embrace inclusion in positive terms.

With regards to the pace of change we may hypothesise that those schools which will be effective in moving towards inclusion will be the ones which are analytical in identifying their own needs, reflective in their practice, and united in achieving a consensus for change. If such conditions are to be achieved each of the four themes discussed in this chapter, along with the other conditions reviewed within this thesis will need to be given detailed consideration.

6.7 Concluding remarks

Having embarked upon this work with a view to hypothesis generation, the researcher has reinforced his own belief that inclusion is a complex issue, and that to ignore these complexities is most likely to lead to further difficulties for pupils with special educational needs and all who teach them. As previously discussed we need to be cautious in generalising from small scale research, but adopting the notion of 'fuzzy generalisation' as advocated by Bassey (1999) we can make some propositions. We can conclude that the perceptions of teachers with regards to the conditions necessary to include pupils with special educational needs in key stage 2 classes is directly related to their attitudes and their professional experiences. The perceptions of teachers who are working in non-inclusive situations, and are therefore based upon limited experience do differ from the realities which teachers in an inclusive school have found themselves managing. Teacher comments about the needs for classroom support, for additional training, and resources, and with regards to problems of access all have a basis of truth

when we examine the realities of Studfall school. However, the ways in which these factors are applied, and impact upon the work of teachers at Studfall school are subtly, but significantly different from the perceptions of teachers in the non-inclusive situations.

In order to move this proposition forward, and to remove some of the ‘fuzziness’ which exists within such a small scale survey, it would be worthwhile to follow two courses of action. Firstly, to repeat the research with a larger sample, in order to ascertain whether the same issues, opinions and perceptions were consistent when examined in relation to a greater number of teachers. Secondly, to create further small scale research projects to examine the four themes discussed in this chapter. The information gained from small scale research of this nature, when disseminated to colleagues in schools, could have an impact in promoting further debate and enabling the central issues to be discussed in a constructive manner on the basis of some empirical evidence.

In the future it will be necessary to construct research which will study what works in schools as they become inclusive. As more schools follow a similar path to that trodden by Studfall school, there will be opportunities to conduct case study research which should then inform others bound upon the same journey.

Studies of this nature invariably raise as many questions as they provide answers. Some of those questions have been identified within this chapter. It is clear, both from this research, albeit limited in scope, and from the literature studied for this work, that there is an urgent need for more research into the efficacy of inclusion, and the generation of

further advice for teachers on how to manage pupils with complex needs in their classrooms. Theoretical perspectives on inclusion abound, and in pursuit of Dyson's ideas as expressed above, it would now seem appropriate to move away from the ethical and rights discourse to concentrate upon an efficacy discourse which may provide us with a greater understanding of improving the education of children with special educational needs in every classroom.

APPENDIX 1

ETHICAL CODE USED DURING THE RESEARCH

Appendix 1

The following ethical code was established following consultation with the ethical guidelines provided by the British Educational Research Association (BERA) and was adhered to throughout the research process

Ethical Code

The researcher recognises the rights of all staff and children in the focus schools to have their confidentiality protected at all times.

The researcher is under an obligation to describe accurately and fairly any information provided through interviews during the course of the research.

There is an obligation to incorporate interview data into the text of any report or thesis related to the research, and to ensure that particular opinions and perceptions are not misrepresented..

The researcher will protect the source of information gathered from interviews and through other data collection methods.

The researcher will protect the interests of case study schools, and the staff and pupils within these schools.

The researcher has an obligation to report truthfully the findings of the research.

The researcher will report the procedures, results and analysis of the research accurately, and in sufficient detail to allow other researchers and teachers to understand and interpret them.

The researcher will inform the case study schools of any intention to publish findings from the research through journals, books, or any other publication, and will discuss the proposed content of any such publication before proceeding.

The researcher will make himself available to discuss the procedures, conduct, or findings of the research with any party involved in the research process.

The researcher has a responsibility to conduct classroom observations with sensitivity to the needs of children and school staff, and will withdraw from any observation situation, which is deemed as being disruptive.

The researcher is obliged to share research findings with colleagues from the participating schools, from University College Northampton, from Leicester University, and with the wider educational research community.

APPENDIX 2

SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW SCHEDULES

Appendix 2

Questions used during semi-structured interviews.

1. Questions to teachers in non-inclusive schools.

Section 1 Personal data.

Q1. How many years have you been teaching?

Q2 How many of those years have been working with key stage 2 pupils?

Q3 Have you had any specific training in the teaching of pupils with special educational needs?

If yes, could you please tell me about this training?

Q4 Do you, or have you ever held the post of special educational needs co-ordinator?

If yes, for how long did you have this post?

If yes, did you receive any training for this role?

Q5 Have you ever worked in a special school?

If yes, could you tell me something about the type of school?

Section 2 General beliefs and perceptions

Q6 What do you see the main implications of greater inclusion of pupils who are currently educated in special schools into mainstream schools being?

Q7 Would you anticipate that mainstream primary schools might have to change their practices in any way to address the needs of pupils who transferred from special schools?

If yes, in what ways?

Q8 Do you see special schools having any specific advantages over mainstream schools when it comes to educating pupils with special educational needs?

If yes, what do you see these as being?

Q9 How well prepared do you personally feel to provide an appropriate education for pupils with a range of special needs?

Section 3 Specific questions related to two sample pupils.

Q 10a If child A was admitted to your class at the beginning of the next academic year, what effect if any, do you feel this would have upon your working practices?

Q 10b If child B was admitted to your class at the beginning of the next academic year, what effect if any, do you feel this would have upon your working practices?

Q11a How well would you personally feel to be able to meet the needs of child A in your class?

Q11b How well would you personally feel to be able to meet the needs of child B in your class?

Q12a In what ways, if any, would having child A in your class mean that you would have to change your teaching approaches?

Q12b In what ways, if any, would having child B in your class mean that you would have to change your teaching approaches?

Q13 What if any difference would having either of these children in your class make to the ways in which you planned your work?

Q14 Would you feel that the introduction of either of these children into your class would have resource implications?

If yes, what would these be?

Q15 Do you feel that having children such as the two described here in your class would make any difference to the overall performance of your class?

If yes, in what ways do you think this might happen?

Q16a How do you feel your pupils would respond to having child A as a classmate?

Q16b How do you feel your pupils would respond to having child B as a classmate?

Q17 Do you feel that the inclusion of these two children, or others with similar Special needs into your school would bring benefits to the school?

If yes, what would you see these benefits as being?

Q18 Do you feel that the inclusion of these two children, or others with similar Special needs into your school would bring problems to the school?

If yes, what would you see these problems as being?

Q19 Would you like to add any further comments about your views on the possible movement towards greater inclusion of pupils with special educational needs into mainstream schools?

2. Questions to teachers in the inclusive school

Section 1 Personal data.

Q1. How many years have you been teaching?

Q2 How many of those years have been working with key stage 2 pupils?

Q3 Have you had any specific training in the teaching of pupils with special educational needs?

If yes, could you please tell me about this training?

Q4 Do you, or have you ever held the post of special educational needs co-ordinator?

If yes, for how long did you have this post?

If yes, did you receive any training for this role?

Q5 Have you ever worked in a special school?

If yes, could you tell me something about the type of school?

Section 2 General beliefs and perceptions

Q6 What do you see the main implications of greater inclusion of pupils who are currently educated in special schools into mainstream schools being?

Q7 As a teacher working in a school which has included a high proportion of pupils with special needs, have you had to change your practices in any way to address the needs of these pupils?

If yes, in what ways?

Q8 Do you see special schools having any specific advantages over mainstream schools when it comes to educating pupils with special educational needs?

If yes, what do you see these as being?

Q9 How well prepared do you personally feel to provide an appropriate education for pupils with a range of special needs?

Section 3 Specific questions related to two sample pupils.

Q 10a If child A was admitted to your class at the beginning of the next academic year, what effect if any, do you feel this would have upon your working practices?

Q 10b If child B was admitted to your class at the beginning of the next academic year, what effect if any, do you feel this would have upon your working practices?

Q11a How well would you personally feel to be able to meet the needs of child A in your class?

Q11b How well would you personally feel to be able to meet the needs of child B in your class?

Q12a In what ways, if any, would having child A in your class mean that you would have to change your teaching approaches?

Q12b In what ways, if any, would having child B in your class mean that you would have to change your teaching approaches?

Q13 What if any difference would having either of these children in your class make to the ways in which you planned your work?

Q14 Would you feel that the introduction of either of these children into your class would have resource implications?

If yes, what would these be?

Q15 Do you feel that having children with special needs in your class has made any difference to the overall performance of your class?

If yes, in what ways do you think this has happened?

Q16a How do your pupils respond to those who have special educational needs?

Q16b Have you taken any particular measures to prepare pupils for working with their classmates with special educational needs?

Q17 Has having a number of pupils with special educational needs in the school brought benefits to the school?

If yes, what do you see these benefits as being?

Q18 Has the inclusion of pupils with special educational needs into your school brought any particular problems?

If yes, what have these been?

Q19 Would you like to add any further comments about your views on the possible movement towards greater inclusion of pupils with special educational needs into mainstream schools?

3. Questions to head teachers in non-inclusive schools

Section 1 Personal data.

Q1 How long have you been head of the school?

Q2 How many years have you been teaching?

Q2a How many years have you been a head teacher?

Q3 How many of those years have been involved with teaching pupils at key stage 2?

Q4 Have you had any specific training in the teaching or management of children with special educational needs?

If yes, could you please tell me about the training?

Q5 Have you ever held the post of special educational needs co-ordinator?

If yes, how long have you/did you hold this post?

If yes, did you receive any training for this post?

Q6 Have you ever worked in a special school?

If yes, could you tell me something about the type of school?

Section 2 General beliefs and perceptions.

Q7 What do you see the main implications of greater inclusion of pupils who are currently educated in special schools into mainstream schools being?

Q8 Would you anticipate that mainstream primary schools might have to change their practices in any way to address the needs of pupils who transferred from special schools?

If yes, in what ways?

Q9 Do you see special schools having any specific advantages over mainstream schools when it comes to educating pupils with special educational needs?

If yes, what do you see these as being?

Q10 How well prepared do you feel your class teachers are to provide an appropriate education for pupils with a range of special needs?

Section 3. Specific questions related to two sample pupils.

Q11a If child A was admitted to your school at the beginning of the next academic year, what effect if any, do you feel this would have upon the working practices of the school?

Q11b If child B was admitted to your school at the beginning of the next academic year, what effect if any, do you feel this would have upon the working practices of the school?

Q12a How well do you feel that your teachers are at this current time to meet the needs of child A in their classes?

Q12b How well do you feel that your teachers are at this current time to meet the needs of child B in their classes?

Q13a How would you envisage that teachers might have to change their teaching approaches to address the needs of child A?

Q13b How would you envisage that teachers might have to change their teaching approaches to address the needs of child B?

- Q14 Would the inclusion of either of these children into your school make any difference to the ways in which you or your staff planned to deliver lessons?
If yes, in what ways?
- Q15 Would there be resource implications for your school if you were expected to admit either of these pupils?
If yes, what would these be?
- Q16 Would you expect that the inclusion of children such as the two here described would make any difference to the performance of other children in your school?
If yes, in what ways do you think this might happen?
- Q17 How do you feel that the other pupils in your school would respond to the admission of pupils such as the two described to your school?
- Q18 How do you feel that teachers would respond to the admission of pupils such as the two described to your school?
- Q19 What do you think would need to be done to prepare your teachers for the admission of pupils such as the two described?
- Q20 Do you feel that the inclusion of these two pupils, or others with similar special needs into your school would bring benefits to the school?
If yes, what do you see these benefits as being?
- Q21 Do you feel that the inclusion of these two pupils, or others with similar special needs into your school would bring particular problems?
If yes, what do you envisage these might be?
- Q22 Would you like to add any further comments about your views on the possible movement towards greater inclusion of pupils with special needs into mainstream schools?

4. Questions to the head teacher of the inclusive school.

Section 1 Personal data.

Q1 How long have you been head of the school?

Q2 How many years have you been teaching?

Q2a How many years have you been a head teacher?

Q3 How many of those years have been involved with teaching pupils at key stage 2?

Q4 Have you had any specific training in the teaching or management of children with special educational needs?

If yes, could you please tell me about the training?

Q5 Have you ever held the post of special educational needs co-ordinator?

If yes, how long have you/did you hold this post?

If yes, did you receive any training for this post?

Q6 Have you ever worked in a special school?

If yes, could you tell me something about the type of school?

Q7 What have been the main implications for the school of including pupils who were previously educated in special schools?

Q8 Did you as a school, have to change any of your previous practices in any way to address the needs of pupils who transferred from special schools?

Q9 Do you see special schools having any specific advantages over mainstream schools when it comes to educating pupils with special educational needs?

If yes, what do you see these as being?

Q10 How well prepared do you feel your class teachers were, when you first accepted pupils from special schools, to provide an appropriate education for pupils with a range of special needs?

Section 3. Specific questions related to two sample pupils.

Q11a If child A was admitted to your school at the beginning of the next academic year, would you need to change any of the current working practices of the school?

If yes, in what ways?

Q11b If child B was admitted to your school at the beginning of the next academic year, would you need to change any of the current working practices of the school?

If yes, in what ways?

Q12a How well prepared do you feel your teachers are at this current time to meet the needs of child A in their classes?

Q12b How well prepared do you feel your teachers are at this current time to meet the needs of child B in their classes?

Q13 Have teachers changed their teaching approaches to address the needs of children who transferred from special schools?

If yes, in what ways?

Q14 Have you as a school had to give any particular consideration to the ways in which you plan your teaching to meet such a wide range of special needs?

If yes, in what ways?

- Q15 Have there been resource implications for your school as you have included pupils with special educational needs?
- If yes, what have these been?
- Q16 Has the admission of pupils with a wide range of special needs had any impact upon the performance of other children in your school?
- If yes, in what ways has this happened?
- Q17 How have the other pupils in your school responded to their classmates with special educational needs?
- Q18 How have teachers responded to the admission of pupils with a wide range of special educational needs?
- Q19 When the movement of children from special schools started, what did you do to prepare your teachers for the admission of the pupils?
- Q20 Do you feel that the admission of pupils who would formerly have been educated in special schools has had benefits for the school?
- If yes, what have these benefits been?
- Q21 Has the inclusion of pupils who would formerly have been educated in special schools brought any particular problems?
- If yes, what have these been?
- Q22 Looking back on the experience of including pupils from special schools into a mainstream environment, are there things which you would do differently if you were starting again?
- If yes, what would these be?
- Q23 Would you like to add any further comments about your views on the possible movement towards greater inclusion of pupils with special educational needs into mainstream schools?

Two pupil profiles used as exemplars of children with special educational needs for the interview process.

CHILD A

Child A has recently moved into the county, and his parents are seeking a place for him in a mainstream primary school. In his previous county Child A attended a day special school for pupils with learning difficulties.

Child A has some difficulties with communication, his speech is indistinct, and he often has problems making himself understood. Sometimes when this happens, he becomes moody and sulks. Child A likes looking at picture books, but other than a few words, including his own name, and that of his elder sister, he cannot read. His previous teachers have persisted with teaching reading, using a number of schemes and approaches, but all with limited success. Occasionally he appears to be making progress, but he has difficulties with retaining learning.

In mathematics, child A can count to twenty consistently, and he has developed an understanding of more and less. He recognises, and can name, basic two dimensional shapes, and can classify three dimensional shapes according to their attributes. He is beginning to add single digit numbers, and in maths lessons he always appears keen to learn.

Child A enjoys music, though he is a reluctant participant, preferring to listen to others. In art lessons he is enthusiastic, though poor motor control often means that his work is inaccurate. His representational drawings are more like those of a pupil in a reception class.

Physical activities prove to be problematic for Child A. He is poorly co-ordinated, and very timid. He will not join in games that are in any way boisterous. He does enjoy swimming, and has recently learned to swim ten metres independently.

Child A is a sociable boy, and he enjoys the company of other children and adults. Although he very rarely initiates activities or interactions with his peers, he is very happy to be part of a group. At playtimes he will follow other children, and likes to sit with a small group listening to their conversation, and on some occasions, joining in.

Child A is independent in all of his personal hygiene skills, he feeds himself, and dresses himself. With regards to this latter skill, he tends to be very slow, and sometimes seeks the help of others.

In class Child A has very limited concentration, and he often goes off task, and feels the need to wander around the classroom. This sometimes annoys other children as he has a tendency to distract them, and to interrupt their work..

CHILD B

Child B has cerebral palsy, and is dependent upon a wheelchair for her mobility. She is a sociable child with an engaging smile, and she makes friends easily.

Child B has very little physical control over her limbs, and she often suffers from spasms which result in her arms becoming very tense. She has no speech, though she does make consistent sounds for yes and no. Child B has a communication board, which comprises sixty four symbols representing many of her needs and social expressions. She uses a head pointer to indicate the symbols on the board, and though this is quite hard work and slow, she enjoys communicating by this means. She has recently been assessed for a computerised communicator, but as yet this has not been forthcoming.

Child B can read simple sentences, though her lack of physical control often makes reading tiring. She works best with enlarged print, and needs someone to turn pages for her. Her mathematics skills are difficult to assess, but she appears to have a good understanding of number. She can add and subtract single digit numbers, indicating answers on her communication board. She also has some understanding of size and measures, and can consistently identify two and three dimensional shapes.

Child B is unable to participate in normal physical activities, though with help she enjoys being in the swimming pool with other children. She receives physiotherapy twice a week, and has a programme of exercises for both home and school. Child B enjoys music and art lessons, and participates in painting lessons by holding a long brush between her teeth. She enjoys listening to stories, and answers questions using her communication board. She has been particularly enthusiastic in history lessons, and enjoys opportunities to participate in a group.

Child B needs help with all of her personal needs, including eating and going to the toilet. Physical movement sometimes makes her uncomfortable, though she is invariably co-operative. She is a willing child, and seldom complains, though she tends to be very tired by the end of the school day. Child B takes regular medication to control epilepsy, though she has not had a major seizure for the past two years.

APPENDIX 3

PROFILES OF PUPILS OBSERVED DURING RESEARCH

PUPIL PROFILE.

PUPIL 1.

D.O.B. 3/12/87 YEAR 6 MALE

Pupil 1 has Down's syndrome, with associated difficulties of a cleft palate, an intermittent hearing loss and delayed language. His statement describes him as having the following special educational needs.

1. He needs to develop his language skills, both his understanding and expressive language.
2. He needs to develop his basic literacy and numeracy skills. He particularly needs to develop his written recording skills.
3. He needs opportunities for social interaction with a broad range of children.
4. He needs to develop his self help skills.

Parents express particular concerns with regards to his poor language skills. He receives speech therapy, and the reports provided by therapists describe him as having difficulties with production of some sounds. He uses 2 - 4 word sentences when describing actions, and has been described as occasionally stringing six words together. He follows a programme produced and monitored by a speech therapist.

Pupil 1 is independent in feeding and dressing, but tends to be slow. He receives some limited physiotherapy input.

His recent teaching reports state that he can sometimes be lazy. He has significant difficulties with literacy and numeracy. He has a positive attitude to other pupils and is described as sociable. He often has to be pushed in order to finish work. His work lacks accuracy. In class he often listens but does not express opinions or personal views.

He has a good attendance record.

End of Key Stage 1 Assessments. (1995)

Teacher assessment level w throughout. Statutory assessments level w throughout except reading - level 1.

PUPIL PROFILE.

PUPIL 2.

D.O.B. 1/11/88 YEAR 5 MALE

Pupil 2 has general developmental delay accompanied with immature expressive language.

He is described as distractible and his statement indicates that he should

Improve attention and concentration skills and reduce distractibility

Develop his language skills

Develop his social skills, listening and sharing skills.

Develop literacy and mathematics skills.

He has a speech and language programme developed by a speech therapist.

He has gross and fine motor problems which are being addressed through an occupational therapy programme. He sees the OT regularly.

He is described as at times being stubborn and difficult.

His attendance record is good.

End of Key Stage 1 Assessments (1996)

Teacher assessments level w throughout except number - level 1

Statutory assessments level w throughout.

PUPIL PROFILE.

PUPIL 3.

D.O.B. 18/8/91 YEAR 3 FEMALE

Pupil 3 is described as having moderate learning difficulties. These are combined with low levels of motivation and great distractibility.

Pupil 3 has poor understanding of language and is limited vocally. Her literacy and numeracy skills are both considerably delayed. She has poor fine motor skills and this particularly effects her pencil control.

She is described as having major problems sustaining concentration, and has a marked lack of curiosity which makes her difficult to motivate.

Her statement suggests that she:

1. Needs to develop skills of basic literacy and numeracy.
2. To improve both receptive and expressive language.
3. To extend her cognitive skills and improve her concentration.
4. To improve co-ordination and balance and develop her fine motor skills.

She is regularly seen by a speech therapist who has defined some additional objectives.

1. To identify an object from its function, location and category when clues are given.
2. To consolidate her understanding of prepositions behind and in front.
3. To give another child instructions containing four information carrying words to enable them to complete a task.
4. To describe three picture sequences to another child to enable them to place them in correct order, moving on to 4.

End of Key Stage 1 Assessments (1996)

Working towards level 1 in all areas.

PUPIL PROFILE

PUPIL 4

D.O.B. **10/7/89** **YEAR 5** **FEMALE**

Pupil 4 is deaf, and has a designated signed communication worker.

She receives most of her lessons in her mainstream class, and gains access to these through BSL (British Sign Language). Some additional support is offered through a visiting teacher of the deaf who withdraws her for specific activities.

She has some speech, though this is poorly developed as a result of her deafness. Her comprehension skills are generally good, though a little behind other pupils of this age. Her deafness means that she sometimes finds school tiring, and at times her concentration wanes. However, she is generally functioning at levels which are comparable to other pupils of her age within the school. She is socially competent and independent, is popular with her peers, and a willing learner.

PUPIL PROFILE.

PUPIL 5.

D.O.B. 2/9/88 YEAR 5 MALE

Pupil 5 has been diagnosed as autistic.

He has variable concentration and is easily distracted and becomes anxious when confronted with unfamiliar situations, or new people.

He has a literal and delayed understanding of language, and problems with interpretation of verbal information. His statement describes him as having general global delay. He has difficulties with sequencing events and with making predictions about what might happen. He requires set routines and the security of a familiar environment and people.

Whilst his behaviour is normally good, he can become anxious when confronted by unfamiliar persons or situations, and needs the reassurance of consistent known people who can manage him through reassurance and with an empathetic approach.

PUPIL PROFILE.

PUPIL 6.

D.O.B. 29/3/88 YEAR 6 MALE

Pupil 6 has is described as having emotional and behavioural difficulties in addition to general learning problems. He is immature and can be uncooperative, and disruptive. He has poor literacy and numeracy skills and difficulties in sustaining attention. At times he has problems in relating to his peers, and his social skills are under developed.

Pupil 6 has an individual behaviour programme which aims to provide a consistent management approach. This has been constructed because of his history of aggression towards other pupils.

A report from an educational psychologist states that:

"It is likely that (Pupil 6) will need to be taught explicitly a number of the behaviour norms and social schemas associated with the school and classroom setting and beyond. These will need to be established through a gently insistent approach. Continued access to the models of age appropriate conduct is a very important resource for this development. Gradually reducing the unwanted behaviours may be most effectively approached by a regime of tactical ignoring alongside a firm and consistent reference to clear behavioural expectations and boundaries which apply in class."

A report from a paediatrician describes pupil 6 as:

"Having a history of aggressive behaviour, and emotional immaturity."

End of Key Stage 1 Assessments (1995)

Working towards level 1 in all areas.

PUPIL PROFILE.

PUPIL 7.

D.O.B. 22/2/90 YEAR 4 FEMALE

Pupil 7 has speech and language problems. She has difficulties with comprehension and unclear speech. Her concentration span is limited, and she requires a high level of prompting to keep her on task.

At times Pupil 7 displays disruptive and aggressive behaviours. She has difficulty in making friends. Her mathematical development is described as being behind by approximately two and a half years. She requires constant repetition of instructions.

Her statement describes her priorities as follows:

Improve basic language and communication skills.

Improve concentration span.

Improve access to the curriculum extending periods when she can work independently.

Improve basic number skills.

Improve understanding of the written word.

Improve ability to relate to others and develop social skills.

Improve ability to comply with acceptable behaviours in class and at other times such as playtime.

Her statement also describes the need for regular access to speech therapy.

Correspondence from parents describes Pupil 7 as stubborn, and having regular tantrums. The educational psychologist describes her learning difficulties as "complex".

End of Key Stage 1 Assessments

Reading level 1, working towards level 1 in all others.

APPENDIX 4

SAMPLE FROM OBSERVATION SCHEDULE

Appendix 4

Example of observation schedule used.

The following codes were used for recording observations.

CS: Classroom Support provided directly one to one to the pupil, rounded up to the nearest minute in duration.

DB: Disruptive behaviour. The pupil engages in behaviour which disrupts the work of another individual pupil, a group, or the class.

D: Differentiation. The pupil is given work which is differentiated for him/her or for a small group of pupils with whom he/she is working.

A: Access. The pupil is provided with specialist equipment or materials to provide physical access to an activity.

R: Resources. The individual pupil has access to specialist resources.

G: Grouping. The pupil works as part of a group along with others of similar need or ability.

OA: Other Agency. The pupil works with a specialist from an outside agency, such as a speech therapist.

POT: Pupil Off Task. The pupil is not actively engaged in the assigned work.

PWI: Pupil Works Independently. The pupil works alone, without the intervention of an adult or peer.

PST: Pupil Supported by Teacher. The pupil receives individual teacher tuition.

PWP: Pupil Works with Peer. The pupil working with one other child.

Sheet No. 4

Observation No. 3

Pupil No. 1

Teacher No. IT1

Date: 19/4/99

Context: English Lesson

TIME	CODE	TARGET PUPIL BEHAVIOUR	OTHER PUPILS' BEHAVIOUR	TEACHER BEHAVIOUR	OTHER ADULT BEHAVIOUR
11.00	G	Seated as part of a small group and listening to teacher introducing the Lesson.	Group seated listening to teacher, others working on writing tasks.	Introducing activity to group.	No other adults present
11.05		Attentive, listening to story.	Listening to story.	Telling story "Burglar Bill"	LSA arrives in class.
11.07					Leaves with pupil who feels unwell
11.10					Returns with pupil
11.20		Seated at desk.	All return to desks after story.	Introducing work on tenses from the white board.	
11.30	PWI	Pupil writing sentences in 3 tenses	All working on exercise from board	Walking around room Supporting pupils	Supporting an individual pupil.
11.34	CS	Asks LSA for help with spelling			Joins P1 and helps with spelling (2 mins)
11.36	PWI	Pupil appears to be struggling, off Task gazing around class.			
11.37	POT				
11.39	CS	Pupil back at work supported by LSA			Notes P1 off task and goes to help him. Explains work and checks understanding. (3 mins)
11.42	PWI	Having finished writing with the support of LSA begins drawing a Picture to illustrate writing.	Most continue writing, some begin drawing.	Checking pupils' work	Supporting another pupil
11.50		Takes work to show teacher		Praises P1 and suggests he goes to work on computer	
11.52	PST	Puts work away. Working at computer.	Continuing to finish work.	Helping P1 to load computer	Supporting another pupil

Breakdown of session observations of 7 pupils
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Lessons

Mathematics	4
English	6
Science	3
Geography	1
History	4
Design & Technology	1
PE	2
Music	1
Personal & Social Education	1
ICT	1
Story	1

Total number of lessons observed 25**Other activities**

Assembly	7
Speech therapy	2
Occupational therapy	1
Registration	11

Total number of activities observed 20

A total observation time of 36 hours and 35 minutes was undertaken during the months of April and May 1999.

APPENDIX 5

**t-TEST CONDUCTED ON TWO
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES OF TEACHERS
ADDRESSED IN THE RESEARCH**

Appendix 5

t-test conducted on two independent samples of teachers addressed in the research

Label	N	Mean	S.D.	S.E.
Non-inclusive teachers	20	12.50	8.5500	1.9615
Inclusive teachers	10	10.20	8.7760	2.9253

T for equal variances: 0.6887 $P < |T|$ 0.4967

T for unequal variances: 0.6887 $P < |T|$ 0.5037

There is no significant difference between both samples at the 5% level.

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