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**TEACHERS' EXPERIENCES IN IMPLEMENTING  
INCLUSIVE EDUCATION POLICY IN PAPUA NEW  
GUINEA: A STUDY OF TWO PRIMARY SCHOOLS  
IN THE NATIONAL CAPITAL DISTRICT.**

A thesis  
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of the requirements for the degree  
of  
**Master of Education**  
at  
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by  
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THE UNIVERSITY OF  
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## **ABSTRACT**

Papua New Guinea (PNG) endorsed its inclusive education policy entitled 'National Special Education Policy, Plans and Guidelines' (NSEPPG) in 1993. It is one of the essential documents that PNG formulated in connection to international trends such as the 1990 World Declaration on Education for All and the 1994 Salamanca Statement that advocate that regular schools should accommodate all children regardless of their physical, intellectual, social, emotional, linguistic or other conditions to receive education along with their able bodied peers (Smith-Davis, 2002). The NSEPPG provides the cornerstone of how inclusive education is to be achieved across all levels of education in PNG. The PNG government began with initial plans to merge special education practices to inclusive education since 1993 when the inclusive education policy was enacted. The actual progress began in 1994.

This landmark document warranted that all children with disability that have remained excluded in regular schools are to access education in their nearby schools without any forms of discrimination. The policy proclaims that teachers' are responsible to provide the inclusion education for all children through the regular teaching and learning process and the government promised to support the implementation processes. This study was set out to capture this moment in history in two urban primary schools in PNG and to determine the factors that have influenced the implementation of inclusive education policy.

The research gazed through Pierre Bourdieu's three conceptual tools of habitus, field and capital as a theoretical framework to examine twelve experienced teachers' to story their experiences via focus group and follow-up individual interviews on how they implement inclusive education policy. In correlation to Bourdieu's concepts habits, field and capital, what teachers experienced during their teaching in the school identified key factors that least facilitated policy implementation processes. The study has recognized a disconnection between the knowledge on inclusive education and the practices of implementation in the field.

The study found that despite teachers' having positive nurturing instinct to support children's education in view of the Education for All agenda, they are confronted with numerous challenges and complexities as they work to embrace practices of integration and inclusion within their capacities as teachers. The study found that the challenges imposed on teachers were lack of knowledge and skills in inclusive education, large class size, lack of collaborative support system within the school and the education system along with lack of incentives.

The recommendations and the reflections put forth in this thesis offer insight into, roles of primary school teachers, school Principals, school inspectors, teacher educators and educational policy makers in general to look again into how this government innovation can better facilitated at the primary school level where vast majority of school aged children cannot be absent from education. The study suggest what teachers and policy makers can learn from the current study to look into the future of inclusive education in PNG to create a connectedness between policy and practice is no rhetoric policy proclamation to actual practice.

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## **DEDICATION**

To my late parents: Mr Torombe Pendene and Mrs Mamani Yakap-Warena Torombe who craved education and left without a pint neither a scent of it. I know you happily exist in the world unseen to see how I'd crossed the Pacific, trodden the Tasman to collect myself together to more than what you last saw me to make your dreams come to pass through me this way. **MAY YOUR SOULS REST IN ETERNAL PEACE!**

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## CHAPTER ONE: SETTING THE SCENE AND INTRODUCTION

### 1.0 Setting the scene

#### *Disabled country*

*If there was a country called disabled, I would be from there. I would live in a disabled culture, eat disabled food, get disabled education, make disabled love, cry disabled tears, climb disabled mountains and tell disabled stories. If there was a country called disabled, I would say she has immigrants that come to her from as far back as time remembers. If there was a country called disabled, then I am one of its citizens. I came there at age 8. I tried to leave, was encouraged by doctors to leave. I tried to surgically remove myself from disabled country. But found myself, in the end, staying and living there. If there was a country called disabled, I would always have to remind myself that I came from there. I often want to forget. I would have to remember...to remember. In my life's journey I am making myself at home in my country. (Weeber, 2000, p. 2)*

The above narrative titled 'Disabled Country' is the voice of a disabled boy. It carries an embodied message that disabled people experience alienation in all aspects of life. Narratives tell stories that represent experiences in real life and help us to understand more fully our perceptions on certain things in life (Barton, 2007). Narrative stories are written down by people to create a new sense of meaning and significance for people who read them (Valeo, 2009). The narrative above has uncovered real things that happen around us that we often overlook. The narrative has presented a survival story of persons with disability expressing that there is one world everyone is born to live-in. By analyzing the disabled boy's narrative, it reflects the characteristics of the society we live in. The phrase 'get disabled education' on the second line in the narrative captures the need for education to be seen as an ideal benchmark from which people can temper their perception of the exclusionary practices with a shared value in order to work in solidarity with disabled people so they can access education. The issue of inclusion of disabled children is the big challenge facing schools throughout the world and particularly in developing countries. Most school aged disabled children never see the inside of the classroom or drop out of school when experiencing difficulties of any kind. The narrative can be used to speak back to

educational policies about what kind of education we want and for what kind of society. This thesis proceeds through a grounded understanding that an inclusive education policy now guarantees children with disabilities, separated for many years from inclusion, to receive education along with their normal peers inside a regular classroom. This is because education is an inherent human right and, through education, other exclusionary practices expressed in the narrative can be addressed.

## **1.1 Introduction**

Two decades ago, the Papua New Guinea (PNG) government formulated an inclusive education policy entitled “National Special Education Policy, Plans and Guidelines” (NSEPPG) which endorsed the integration of children with disabilities in the general education system. The formulation of the NSEPPG was a reform in the PNG’s education system to merge general and special education, creating a unified education system. This merge in the two separate systems of education to a reformed inclusive education was not an initiative taken by PNG alone. Rather it was a demand by international human rights agreements, conventions and declarations that education be seen as a fundamental human right and countries around the globe were to adopt the view of inclusiveness in their education systems (Smith-Davis, 2002). The worldwide human rights treaties have now shifted educational rights from something that was traditionally considered for selective elites only to people with lesser status in the society, particularly those with disabilities. In the twenty-first century countries worldwide were experiencing this shift from general to inclusive education where all children regardless of their ability, sex, race, and ethnicity are to learn together in a regular classroom, taught by a regular teacher (Ainscow, 2005; Acedo, 2008). PNG was with the flow of this global vision. Its ratification of the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) in 1993 “legitimized the country’s commitment to the achievement of the goals of Education for All (EFA) and CRC” (National Research Institute, 2009, p. 43). The idea of inclusive education was not to warrant disabled children to gain placement in the classroom only; it evolved from wider struggles against the violation of human rights and exclusionary practices experienced by disabled people in the economic, social, political and cultural aspects of their lives. It was generally agreed by international human rights

treaties that an inclusive education was the way to address exclusionary practices that disabled people experienced over time.

### **1.1.1 International human rights agreements, declarations and conventions**

According to Peters' (2007) analysis of where the international community stands in terms of forming inclusive education policy, several key documents provide an effective history of policy development since 1960. These include:

- 1960 United Nations Convention against Discrimination in Education.
- 1971 United Nations Declaration on the Rights of Mentally Retarded Persons.
- 1975 United Nations Declaration on the Rights of Disabled People.
- 1982 United Nations World Programme of Action 3 goals: Concerning Disabled People. (p. 101)

Further significant declarations and conventions that have influenced the change in policy regarding inclusive education include the following:

- The 1989 UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC). This convention advocates the right of children to receive education without any form of discrimination (Karabelle, 2010).
- 1990 World Declaration on Education for All (EFA), adopted in Jomtien, Thailand, which set the goal of Education for All (Smith-Davis, 2002).
- 1993 UN Standard Rule on Equalization of Opportunities for Persons with Disabilities. This Rule affirms the equal rights of all children, youth and adults with disabilities to education and also states that education should be provided in an integrated school setting as well as in the general school setting (Lang, 2009).
- 1994 The UNESCO Salamanca Statement and Framework of Action in Special Needs Education, agreed in Salamanca, Spain, in 1994. This statement requires all schools to accommodate all children regardless of their physical, intellectual, social, emotional, linguistic or other condition (Smith-Davis, 2002).
- 2000 Biwako Millennium Framework (BMF) for Action, agreed in Dakar, Senegal in April, 2000. This framework incorporated the 2000 Millennium Development Goals (MDG) which stipulate that all children should have

access to free and compulsory primary education by 2015 (Hunt, 2011). The relevant target for BMF and MDG is to eradicate national poverty (Wehbi, 2006).

On the same vein as key international documents mentioned above, the PNG government formulated the NSEPPG to guide inclusive education development in the country.

### **1.1.2 The NSEPPG**

In this thesis, the initials ‘NSEPPG’ and the term ‘inclusive education policy’ are often used interchangeably and refer to the same thing. The purpose of the NSEPPG includes two points:

(1) To set out a framework or plan for special education development given the present state of PNG.

(2) To make a statement of policy and guidelines to assist and to apply to the inclusive education implementation plan (Department of Education, 1993, p. 2).

The statements of purpose were developed not in isolation but in view of the principles in the National Constitution of PNG. The National Constitution protects the status of children with disabilities who are learners from risk and vulnerability and the constitution’s principle of Integral Human Development provides that protection (Department of Education, 2003).

### **1.1.3 Integral Human Development**

Integral Human Development (IHD) is a concept drawn from the National Constitution of PNG through Sir Palias Matane’s Philosophy of Education. Matane’s Philosophy of Education is a national philosophical framework that incorporates IHD goals to achieve PNG’s other development goals. The PNG government’s national goals and directive principles aim to drive the country’s socio-economic development and education and are vital to this directive. Thus the general aim of the Philosophy of Education is to “develop practical social skills in order to contribute to the physical, economic, social, political and spiritual growth of society with particular reference to the needs of the disadvantaged” (Matane, 1986, p. 25). The IHD itself articulates that all learners have to critically participate in the learning process in order to develop their

individual strengths, with the main goal of the IHD being “giving each individual the opportunity to develop as an integrated person in relationship with others” (Matane, 1986, p. 6). The IHD thus upholds the rights and equality of every child, including disabled children, to receive a basic education. These visions are recommended as key features in the NSEPPG.

#### **1.1.4 Key features of NSEPPG**

The key features in the statement of the NSEPPG for inclusive education advancements in PNG are outlined in the following:

- That where feasible, disabled children attend regular schools alongside normal children.
- For this to take place teachers need to be trained and so pre-service and in-service training in special education needs to be provided by all Teachers’ Colleges and universities.
- That the Department of Education allocate 2.5% of its budget towards educating the 2.5% of children who have marked disabilities of a kind where appropriate educational intervention will make all the difference. (Department of Education, 1993, p. 2)

These features promise inclusive education development in three phases.

#### **1.1.5 Phases of inclusive education development in PNG**

From 1994-2001, the NSEPPG has had three consecutive developmental phases (see Appendix 13 for original summary page of NSEPPG developmental phases) to coordinate and administer inclusive education in all sectors of the education system in PNG (Department of Education, 1993). The first phase named as ‘short-term development with action priorities’ was initiated at the national level with the establishment of the National Special Education Committee. This committee was to plan and create teaching positions for Teachers’ College lecturers in this area. This move also created a mutual link between resource centers and Teachers’ Colleges for programmes beneficial to student teachers and in-service trainings to teachers in the field. The second phase known as ‘middle term development action priorities’ concentrated on increasing partnership with the government and NGO volunteers while staff at disability Resource Centers were encouraged to take up undergraduate studies in inclusive education at the

University of Goroka. The third phase included long-term development goals, in which inclusive education became a component of elementary teacher training in 1996 and inclusive education programmes began in Wewak and Aitape Districts (Department of Education 1993).

A decade later (February, 2003), the National Education Board in its Meeting No. 139 endorsed a revised set of policy guidelines to provide direction to develop inclusive services further in PNG (Department of Education, 2003). Together with the revised policy guidelines, the National Education Board also endorsed a new 'Directions and Emphases' for inclusive education under a five-year interval plan (2004-2008 & 2009-2013), based on the initial NSEPPG plans and actions for implementing the inclusion policy. These reviews of the set of policies have a clear vision and plan of action to guide implementation of the inclusion policy. Action plans in the NSEPPG include implementation and evaluation, where implementation is the teachers' task while the responsibility of evaluation and overseeing the progress is left with the Department of Education.

## **1.2 Background to the study**

The NSEPPG was developed as a plan to integrate children with special needs into mainstream schools where feasible. The new policy was a pragmatic change that was necessary for an inclusive education system that was different from the segregated institutions for disabled children's education, like, for example, the Cheshire Homes and PNG Red Cross with special school settings. The NSEPPG now called for basic and in-depth in-service and pre-service courses to be offered to teachers so that they are well equipped with necessary skills and knowledge to teach children with specific disabilities (Department of Education, 2003). An in-service programme is an approach to staff development that aims to support graduate teachers to upgrade skills and knowledge in inclusive education while on their jobs (O'Gorman & Drudy, 2010). Pre-service programmes comprise two to three years of intensive training for prospective teachers at the Teachers' Colleges and universities in PNG (Margolin, 2011). Currently, the pre-service teacher training is done through Primary Teachers' Colleges, the University of Goroka and Divine Word University. The in-service training of primary school teachers is the responsibility of the national Department of Education, through the office of

National Special Education to organize teachers' professional skills development through in-service programmes (Department of Education, 2003). Since the inception of NSEPPG in 1993, the Department of Education emphasized that teachers requires training on inclusion skills and knowledge, awareness on teaching inclusively, change of attitudes, curriculum adaptation and modification while understanding the basis of a child's educational right to attend a regular school. When teachers were made aware of what was expected off them claimed them as primary implementers of the inclusive education policy.

### **1.2.1 How NSEPPG facilitate inclusive education**

The NSEPPG states that every child has unique characteristics, interests, abilities, and learning needs, and PNG's educational systems should be designed in a way that takes into account the wide diversity of the learners (Department of Education, 2003). The policy also states that those teachers who teach disabled children should use a child-centered pedagogy to become capable of meeting these children's learning needs successfully. Yet while the policy endorses inclusive education, the type of education that children with disability should receive is a controversial issue. Questions such as: How can special needs children receive education, and to what extent education standards and procedures should be modified so that disabled children can have full access to educational opportunities without discrimination and oppression, are often debated among those who view education as a basic human right. The main debate that arises is whether children with special needs should attend special setting schools or regular schools alongside their able-bodied peers (Chappell et al. 2001). Many countries have now shifted from segregation of disabled children in special schools to their education in regular schools, which is best described by the term inclusion. According to De Boer, Pijl and Minnaert (2010), inclusion refers to the processes of educating students with disabilities along with their normal peers in their local schools with the necessary support services. The term inclusion is also parallel to what is called inclusive education. Ainscow (2005) describes inclusive education as a continuous process of examining, identifying, reducing and removing barriers to students' learning and participation by providing educational supports in ordinary schools (refer to Chapter 2 for a more detailed definition). Yet much depends on the role of the teacher to carry out this expectation.

### **1.2.2 Teachers' role**

Since the inception of the inclusive education policy in PNG, teachers' roles have been extended to practice inclusion and integration of children with disability in schools. Teachers' role is to focus their duties within the inclusion practices that encompass the alignment of the goals of the inclusive education policy. Valliant (2011) notes "the teacher is a vital partner in the development and success of inclusive education" (p. 386). Their role to make education inclusive will make the government innovation become reality at the School Level.

## **1.3 The research context**

### **1.3.1 General information about PNG**

PNG is located in the South West Pacific and is the world's second largest island nation. Its capital city is Port Moresby. It borders Indonesia in the west and Australia to the south. PNG has twenty-six provinces and a total land surface of 464,000 square kilometers (Le Fanu, 2013). PNG is a developing country and currently has a population of 7 million people. Approximately 3.5 million of the population is young people of whom 45% are under the age of fourteen. Roughly 85% of the population live in the rural areas and depend on farming on community owned land for their livelihood (Department of Education, 2004b). PNG gained independence on the 16<sup>th</sup> September, 1975 from its colonial power, Australia (Waiko, 1997).

### **1.3.2 A brief history of education in PNG.**

Before independence PNG's education system was colonial in nature, following the model of Australian and British education systems (Waiko, 1997). Euro-western colonizers educated the indigenous people with a view of capturing land and expanding administrative boundaries while missionaries brought the gospel to convert natives to the Christian faith. Because of the influence of the missionaries and colonisers, the country's education system went through several successive stages. These stages occurred between the 1880s and the 1960s. Initially, there was the conversion stage, when local people were converted to Christianity. During this time, schools were established by the missions and they concentrated on teaching vernacular literacy and practical skills to develop local people to be productive members in their society (Le Fanu, 2013). The dualism and expansion

stages were the periods when the colonial government established schools alongside the missions, but the curriculum was mission-oriented (Guthrie, 2012). The expansion stage was the time when schools were expanded in preparation for indigenous people to take on responsibilities once independence was granted to PNG (MeI, 2007). The 1960s to 1980s were the nationalism and decentralization stages, when schools previously built were consolidated and expanded and duties and responsibilities were devolved to the twenty (now 26 provinces from reform) provinces to take charge of their own schools. In the 1990s, PNG experienced a new reform in education away from the colonial and mission perspectives through Matane's (1986) Philosophy of Education. The Matane philosophical goal was a home-grown philosophy for learners so they could uphold PNG values while learning and developing their career pathways to match the standards of the outside world. Though mission schools still exist and maintain their philosophy in the provision of education, the current reformed education mainly changed the curriculum and the structure of the education system.

### 1.3.3 Papua New Guinea's education structure

The figure 1 below shows PNG's education structure.

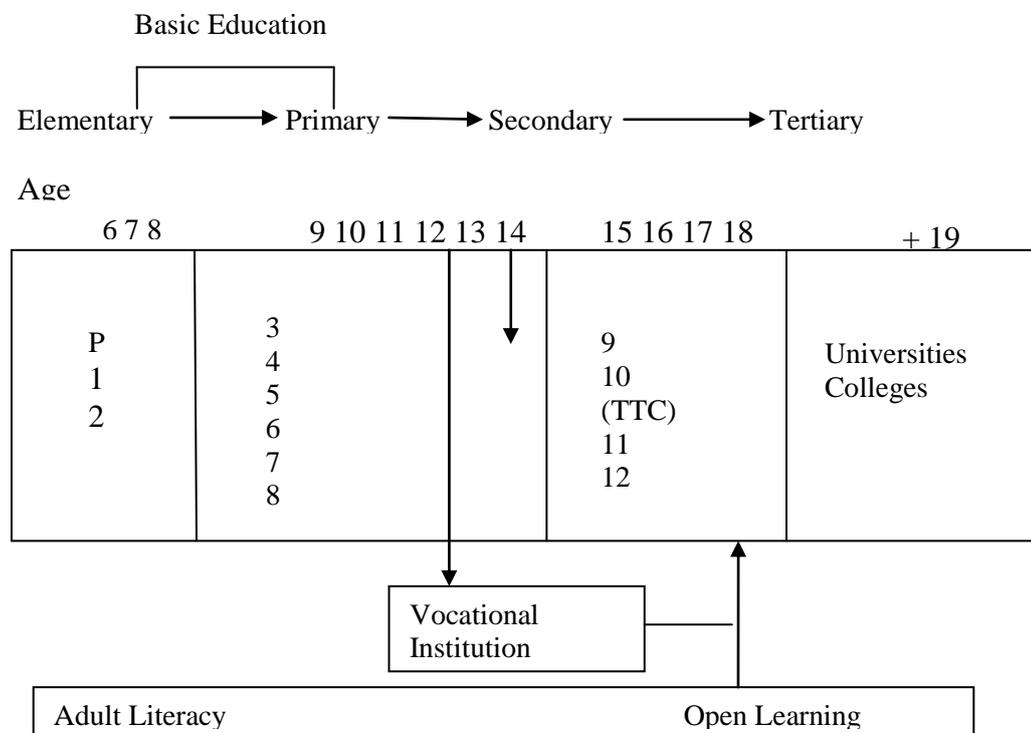


Figure 1: Papua New Guinea education structure

*Notes:* TTC–Technical Training Certificates (Two year courses in technical training) P–Preparatory classes with literacy in vernacular Colleges, a range of non-university training institutions Vocational–Two year lower secondary training with a vocational skills bias Open learning, College of Distance Education and other distance programmes Grades 11&12–Training focused on academic programmes (Sciences, Arts, Technical, and Agricultural) (Mel, 2007, p. 222).

#### **1.3.4 PNG Universities and Primary School Teachers Colleges**

There are currently eight universities and 10 Teachers' Colleges in PNG. The universities are: University of Papua New Guinea, University of Technology, University of Goroka, Divine Word University, Pacific Adventist University, Jubilee University, Vudal University and Natural Resources and Science University. The primary school Teachers' Colleges include: Dauli Teachers' College, Balob Teachers' College, Holy Trinity Teachers' College, Madang Teachers' College, Gaulim Teachers' College, Kabaleo Teachers' College, Kaindi Teachers' College and PNG Education Institute.

The University of Goroka was the pioneer secondary school teacher training university and also the first to introduce inclusive education courses in the Bachelor of Education programme for both pre-service and in-service teachers. This initiative was followed by the Divine Word University. The pre-service programme in these universities is run for four years for students entering university from secondary school or equivalent while the in-service programme runs for two years for experienced teachers. This means teachers who have already taught in schools and who wish to upgrade their qualification are enrolled under the in-service programme. The primary school Teachers' Colleges offer a range of teacher profession courses including inclusive education courses for newly qualified teachers. It takes two full years for teachers to graduate with a teaching qualification from the primary school Teachers' Colleges.

#### **1.3.5 PNG primary education structure**

Primary education system in PNG has two stages. The first stage is called Lower Primary and consists of Grades 3 to 5. The second stage, known as Upper Primary, consists of Grades, 6, 7 and 8. At the end of Grade 8 students sit their

final Grade 8 Examinations (National Research Institute, 2010). Students who pass the exam continue onto Grade 9 while other students who do not meet the passing criteria become school leavers. While the school leaver system is in place, the Primary Education curriculum is designed in a way that subjects taught in this phase of education should equip school leavers with relevant skills and knowledge to return to their communities and live life productively (National Research Institute, 2009). Children enrolled in the Primary School level are aged between 7 to 12 years. Webster (2004) points out that the primary school stage is a crucial period for students because there is school leaver system in place and students who cannot proceed to Grade 9 can return home with sufficient skills to sustain their lives wherever they are. It also means students acquire lifelong skills in their Primary Education; thus every child has to be enrolled at this level of education. Because of the structure of the education system in PNG, enrolment of disabled children particularly at the Primary School level is of great importance. Disabled children should be enrolled in Primary Schools in order to learn literacy and survival skills so that when they cannot continue to onto secondary school, they will use the skills and knowledge they learned at school to be self-reliant when they leave school.

#### **1.4 The aim of the study**

This aim of this study is to explore factors that facilitated or constrained the implementation of the inclusive education policy in two urban primary schools in the National Capital District of PNG. PNG's inclusive education policy emphasises that the full range of educational opportunities be open to children with disabilities in the regular schools through the two principal recommendations:

- (1) That where feasible disabled children should attend regular schools along with normal children ...
- (2) That all teachers ... should receive effective and practical training in dealing with handicapped children within their classes. (National Department of Education, 1993, p. 1)

The aim of this study is to determine how teachers have adopted the inclusive education policy within the two principles. This study also aims to see whether the

inclusive education policy has been an effective tool for delivering equality of opportunity in education to children with special needs in PNG.

#### **1.4.1 The research questions**

Four research questions guided the direction of this study:

1. What are teachers' understandings of the inclusive education policy?
2. How are teachers practicing inclusion in the schools?
3. What are teachers' views and experiences about teacher preparation and professional development opportunities in relation to developing inclusion practices in line with the policy?
4. How are teachers doing curriculum assessment and reporting on their inclusive education practices?

#### **1.5 Impetus for the study**

It is pertinent to expose the experience and interest I bring to this study. My interest in this study developed from four reasons. The first is my job as a teacher with three-year teaching experience in a rural primary school in PNG. The second reason stems from my second job as an advocacy officer for the rights of persons with disabilities (PWD) in a non-governmental organisation in Port Moresby, PNG. The third reason that motivated me to do this study arose from the experience of taking graduate papers in the Human Development and Counselling Department at the Faculty of Education at the University of Waikato, New Zealand. The fourth reason is my own personal interest and empathy towards working with disabled people.

##### **1.5.1 My job as a teacher**

While on my first job a number of things happened which increased my awareness about the lack of inclusion and integration in the school where I taught. Firstly, the invisibility of disabled children enrolled in the school where I taught for three consecutive years. The reasons for no disabled children attending this school were unknown. Secondly, the inclusive education policy was a recent concept and my colleagues and I, along with the school Principal, barely discussed it during school-based in-service trainings. Thirdly, it occurred to me that teachers obviously lacked a positive attitude to initiating inclusion and or

integration in their classrooms. My experience during teaching and seeing no disabled children enrolled in this regular school conflict with the overall expectation of the foundation document, the NSEPPG.

### **1.5.2 Advocacy officer**

My passion for this study is also driven by my second job as an Advocacy Officer for PWD. When I worked as an Advocacy Officer in a national organisation that advocates for PWD rights, the majority of disabled people who came to my office wanted assistance for education and employment. The organisation I worked for was seen by PWD as a place to resort to with their unsettling questions. When I came to work directly with PWD I could see not one particular interest but many. In this sense I mean that PWD just wanted to do anything and everything when an opportunity was created. This does not mean all those who came to me were educated. Some had little education and others none at all. From this I inferred that many PWD did not attend school at all or left school before completing their education. They were not educated simply because they experienced forms of exclusion at home or at school.

Despite their lack of education, disabled people still came to the office to seek opportunity. From this, it showed how education is equally craved by those with disability. It is not only adult PWD but also parents of disabled children who were seeking educational opportunities for their children. This shows a complete picture, that disabled children need to get an education as it is an important aspect of their lives. It can be concluded from the number of PWD coming to my office that their interest and eagerness to be educated is more than what we think. Newman and Stitzlein (2012) believe that the need in education to attain the skill of literacy is connected to survival. In other words, education gives the key to survival in this challenging world and that is how education is perceived by disabled people. We should see that disabled people are born with their own needs and wants. Thus education must be made available to them with appropriate support so that they can identify their potential and live their lives to the fullest.

My career shift from a teacher to an advocacy officer for PWD also brought me face-to-face with the disadvantages experienced by disabled people. I noticed PWD experienced difficulties as a consequence of their disability reducing their

potential to achieve certain things. While doing this job, I learned to work with them, to talk to them, understand their language and the relationship of their rights to their need to be citizens of a society. It made me realise that most disabled children and adults' educational engagement has not fully come into being in PNG. The reasons for persistent resistance to full inclusion and integration in regular schools were not known to me, thus the proposed study will uncover these. I had been unable to obtain any information about the reasons while I was working with the organisation. Therefore, my study was designed to show the obstacles that had driven disabled children away from enrolling in regular schools.

The low level educational attainment information brought forward by the adult PWD showed how they faced exclusion during their journey to education. However, I observed that when an opportunity was provided for disabled people to take part in workshops run by the organisation, PWD were immensely eager to do anything that was supported. For this reason, disabled people can do all the things their non-disabled peers can when we support them. For me personally, it is now necessary that both disabled children and adults have a just and fair opportunity to attend school and get employment. Many factors emerging from this study will show how effective implementation of the inclusive education policy in urban schools in PNG can be achieved. But at this point in time, I am unaware of any systematic reasons for the low enrolment figure neither for disabled children in the schools I taught nor for older disabled peoples' lower educational attainment.

### **1.5.3 University study**

The third reason that inspired me to do this study was the experience of taking the paper 'HDCO521 Contemporary Issues in Disability and Inclusion Studies' at the University of Waikato. The content of this course is oriented towards understanding diversity of people and how human society can be organised and integrated without forms of oppression and discrimination against disabled people. From the paper, I have gained some understanding of the theories involved in disability movement perspectives and how liberation ideas from oppression and discrimination were driven by disabled activists themselves to make their voice known to the world. That clarified my pre-conceived beliefs about disability and the important aspects of recognising existence of PWD in society was broadened. At the same time, the paper began to make personal sense

to me as it related to my work experience with PWD and about the way they were experiencing prejudice. The paper gave me the idea of integration and inclusion of disabled people to all activities, including education, as a basic human right. This paper was an inspiration to me because inclusive education evolved from the outcry of disabled people who advocated gaining recognition of their educational rights. This caused me to have a clear understanding of what inclusive education policy meant for PNG and the theoretical underpinnings thereon. Yet even as I offer this thumbnail sketch of my profession and my university study, my personal interest in understanding disability issues still remains.

#### **1.5.4 Personal interest**

My personal interest in working with disabled people arose out of nothing more than empathy. Empathy means understanding another person's feeling completely and allowing ourselves to feel for others as if we were that other (Claypool & Molnar, 2011). My empathy in working with people with disability has been demonstrated when I left my salaried job as a teacher to work as a volunteer in two separate national organisations that advocate for the rights of PWD in PNG. I sacrificed my teacher profession for a non-paid voluntary job because I want to make an impact in the life of disabled people. It was my personal choice to work with them, especially for them to recognise their inherent human rights that are often violated by their non-disabled partners. That is to say my personal interest in working with PWD did not provide me with salaried employment conditions; rather my interest was to see a national office that is actively representing disabled people's voices.

My personal interest in working with PWD is part of my personality and an instinct that comes from within me. My interest was demonstrated in many ways, including doing their household chores such as washing and cooking. I am not only writing down my mind but my actions through which PWD with whom I worked with to appreciate me as their co-partner. As a person with a teaching background, my support to PWD is always with a view of their educational rights. As an able bodied person having no problems in accessing education, while my disabled partners face exclusion because of stereotypical attitudes and beliefs imposed on them due to their disabilities, I see the unfairness among the human society that reduces educational opportunities for PWD. This common sense of

seeing how PWD can excel in education means I can make a difference in their lives by influencing able bodied partners to recognise the equality we have. My satisfaction is to see the trend of inclusive education in action in primary schools. This is because when disabled people are educated, they can live independent lives, rather than able bodied people like me seeing them as people who rely on others for their welfare.

I believe that the banner for inclusive education must go up. Education is legally constituted as a basic human right and the enrolment figure for disabled children in PNG should rise. The people who are obliged and designated to implement the inclusive policy should make it happen. That is because education is a centre for accessing everything and it has to be considered as a survival tool. For this reason, every effort has to be made to give educational opportunities to children with disabilities to enrol in schools close to them.

#### **1.5.5 Research problem**

The research focused to explore the actual situation of implementing inclusive education in PNG as proclaimed in the NSEPPG. The questions that provoked the research are: How is inclusive education understood by teachers? Are teachers professionally prepared to practise inclusive education? Do teachers understand and consider the nature of the inclusive education and related policies? How do teachers understand inclusive education policy and inclusive education as a universal idea that benefit children with special needs in particular educational rights? What is the nature of the practice of inclusive education in PNG?

This study was undertaken to see if present practices of inclusive education meet the standard laid down by statements presented in PNG's inclusive education policy document. This is because enacting a policy is one thing, while reporting and evaluating are other paramount aspects used to gauge the success or failure of a policy process. Because twenty years have elapsed since the inception of the inclusive education policy, this study could explore any problems associated in the implementation process over time. As the main purpose of PNG's inclusive education policy is to create better conditions to meet the educational needs of children with disabilities in PNG, it was thought that this study would be useful to this end.

## **1.6 Focus of the study**

The primary focus of the study is based on two main views. The first is to see the effectiveness of policy implementation at the Primary School Level through the view of teachers as the primary implementers of the policy. The focus of the study is to examine teachers' experiences and perceptions of their professional development opportunity to practise inclusion. Teachers play an important role in giving children with special needs an education in our schools. My study focuses on views about the present state of the implementation of the inclusive education policy. From the findings of my research, I should be able to report to the National Department of Education about the status of implementation of the inclusive education policy at the Primary School level. The report will help the national government to see how well the policy has been achieved and to begin to explore what might need to change in order for inclusive education policy implementation to become more widespread.

### **1.6.1 Right to education**

The study focuses on children with disabilities' right to education from a human rights perspective. All relevant theories of human rights reinforce the idea of disabled children accessing education in the regular classroom. The study is based on the assumption that children with disability should receive education, as the value of education to children with disabilities is recognized as a right. The inclusive education policy is therefore the educational innovation driven in the light of human rights discourses. The fundamental purpose of education is not only to provide learning opportunities for children with disability, but to provide the information they need to belong to and to participate in the community as independent citizens. That means children with disability have to receive education that will sustain their livelihood. In the contemporary world it is doubtful that any child can succeed in life if he or she is denied the opportunity to education. It is a requirement of the national government of PNG that the NSEPPG be the principal means by which children with disability are enabled to receive education.

### **1.6.2 Justification of the study**

PNG is a developing country and viewed by the outside world as somewhat inexperienced in adopting new ideas to make education accessible to all children. As a result it has received considerable support from international organisations and interest groups to support the inclusion of disabled children in education in particular. Although there is an inclusive education policy to support education for disabled children, the area of inclusive education is still underdeveloped in research and rigorous investigation in this specific area has yet to be comprehensively undertaken (Mapsea, 2006; Rombo, 2007).

This research is significant in that it attempts to go beyond previous studies that have explored inclusive education practices in PNG to date. For example, a study by Rombo (2007) showed how school cultural features influence inclusive education initiatives in one province of PNG. That study looked at the cultural aspect that determined inclusive education practices in PNG, while a study by Mapsea (2006) concentrated on how special education policy is implemented in regular schools in Enga Province of PNG. Both studies suggested that the progress of inclusive education in PNG has not gained full momentum, thus further research is needed to stretch the boundaries of inclusive education in PNG. Therefore, this study as indicated by its title gives the need to examine urban primary school teachers' experiences and views as implementers of the inclusive education policy in PNG.

It is also apparent that there is a growing literature around the world focusing on the trend of inclusive education and the policies which support its implementation. This study is timely in that regard as well. This study will contribute empirical evidence to the literature on the on-going issues pertaining to inclusive education policy and practices that are oriented towards education as a human right. It will add new knowledge to the existing knowledge on inclusion and integration in situations identified in PNG.

### **1.7 Significance of the study**

This study is significant in a number of ways. Firstly, it provides for a better understanding of the factors associated in implementing the inclusive education

policy through the lived experiences of primary implementers, specifically urban primary school teachers. Secondly, it identifies if and how effective channels of communication between implementation and monitoring of inclusive education occur. Thirdly, it provides an examination of whether PNG teachers, as educators and professionals, view education as a human right for pupils with disabilities.

### **1.7.1 Factors associated with inclusive education implementation**

This study is also significant because it explores how government policy about inclusive education is implemented at the Primary School level in this country. To better understand how inclusive education policy is implemented, it is important to examine the context within which it is done (Liasidou, 2008). Investigating how the inclusive education policy has been implemented by the teaching staff concerned will identify specific activities that actually affect the use of the policy as an effective tool to promote inclusion.

### **1.7.2 Implementing the inclusive policy in the National Capital District**

The inclusive education policy succinctly spells out that teachers are the ones who can make learning equitable for each child with disability. The inclusive skills and knowledge teachers learn through their teacher training programmes should help them make inclusive practices effective. Yet writing a policy is not the same thing as engaging people in the process of policy implementation. The selected sites for the study will demonstrate how effectively information about inclusive education practice had been accessed, tolerated and managed by primary school teachers in schools close to the original place of production and publication of the inclusive education policy document. From this perspective, this study is new in its context in terms of analysing the government policy and practices of inclusive education in an urban primary school in NCD, PNG.

The study is designed to show the connection between inclusive education policymakers and teachers-as-implementers. As policymakers do not engaged in the implementation process, it is not clear whether full implementation of the policy has succeeded. If failures occur, there needs to be an intervention so that the spreading of inclusive education policy can be effective and consolidated. Unless a follow-up review to confirm the smooth implementation of the policy is done, the PNG government will not know how far it has achieved its plans and

goals for the country's socio-economic development through education. It is for this reason that this study is timely, to see how far the inclusive education policy has been achieved at the Primary School level for the last 20 years.

### **1.8 Scope of the Study and its Limitations**

The study includes two urban regular government primary schools in the National Capital District in PNG. A total of twelve teachers, six in each school respectively, took part in the study. The participant selection criterion was not restricted to a certain group of teachers; rather, teachers who got their teaching training before or after the inception of inclusive education policy in 1993 were involved. This included teachers who took inclusive education units during their pre-service or in-service trainings to develop particular skill and knowledge on integration and inclusion. The study was limited to two urban schools were because of the limited funding allocated for the purpose of this study. The allowance was not sufficient for food and accommodation in the city for the duration of data collection. Although the study is limited to two schools it is hoped that it provides sufficient information to begin to develop an overall view of what is under investigation.

This study is conducted through a qualitative research methodology with focus group and follow-up individual interviews as data gathering tools. Through data triangulation (focus group and individual follow-up) validity and reliability is achieved. The results from the study may not be similar to what may be expected in rural primary schools or urban schools in other provinces of PNG. (For further discussion about the methodology, see Chapter 3).

#### **1.8.1 Rationale for the study**

Low enrolment of children with disabilities in schools in PNG adds to the risk of poverty for members of this group (World Bank, 2004). Generally, disabled people in Pacific Islands countries including PNG lacked education, employment, and livelihood opportunities and have or no or limited access to support services. This has led to economic and social exclusion. For instance, the World Bank notes that the relationship between poverty and disability is commonly accepted as a vicious circle (World Bank, 2004a). That means, having a disability adds to the risk of poverty and the condition of poverty increases the risk of disability. A

recent study by Newman and Stitzlein (2012) offers strong support for the role of education in this area in that “liberal theorists share a long-standing concern with the right to develop an autonomous life through education” (p. 5). They reported that when children with disability are educated, it enables them to live independent lives. Education is at the heart of economic development and success, and when citizens of PNG are educated, they will contribute towards the economic and social development of the country. Therefore, the investigation into this study is important because findings will help to address some socio-economic problems found in PNG. The support that can be provided by teachers in educating disabled children will assist them to live independent lives in the society. School is the training ground for citizenship and students learn explicitly from the school culture, curriculum, teachers and peers. For example, Ferguson (2008) emphasises that the information they learn at school is not only of virtue but also encourages tolerance and respect for diversity. Furthermore, the more citizens of PNG are educated, the chances of improving living standards of people are higher and as result socio-economic problems such as poverty can be reduced. It is envisaged that the findings of this study will inform further development of inclusive education policy as well as revisiting the plan for the implementation of the existing policy. This study is not intended to measure the teachers’ professional competency nor assess participating schools’ compliance with policy imperatives. Rather, it aims to gain a better understanding of how the teachers experienced the implementation in their role as a teacher and the reasons for successes and failures.

### **1.8.2 The overview of the thesis**

The body of the thesis is arranged in six chapters. The first chapter has presented setting the scene and introduction’ and opened with a narrative that carries an embodied message to set the overarching premise to the research. The message in the narrative illustrates education as a human right for disabled children and they should receive education in the regular primary schools in PNG as they are supported by the inclusive education policy. Within this view, the background of the study and the research context along with the aims of the study were presented. It is followed by the impetus of the study, significance of the study with the scope and the study and its limitations.

The second chapter comprises three parts, and includes a literature review that establishes the context for the thesis within the following main areas:

- 1) Part one, the medical and social model of disability, the concept of inclusive education and key considerations that underpin inclusive education.
- 2) Part two defines policy along with policy implementation, including the definition of inclusive education policy.
- 3) Part three presents the history of special and inclusive education in PNG along with other national policies and legislation that support inclusive education in the country.

The third chapter is composed of two parts:

- 1) The theoretical framework that guided the study is presented. The research was guided through Pierre Bourdieu's three conceptual tools, habitus, field and capital (Jenkins, 1992; Reed-Danahay, 2005; Grenfell, 2009).
- 2) The second part of this chapter presents the research methodology of the study. The study was done using the qualitative research methodology with focus group and individual semi-structured interviews as data gathering tools for the research.

The fourth chapter presents the findings drawn from the research. This chapter contains four main themes regarding how the findings emerged. This includes how teachers perceived inclusive education as the concept and how their experiences reflect the current state of implementing inclusive education policy in PNG. The fifth chapter presents the discussion of the findings. This includes the four themes from chapter 4. The discussions are made in relation to Bourdieu's concepts of habitus, field and capital and literature reviewed in chapter two. The sixth and final chapter has two parts. The first section provides a conclusion that summarizes the four themes discussed in chapter five. The second section covers the limitations of the study, recommendations and ends with the conclusion.

## **CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW**

### **2.0 Introduction**

This chapter consists of a review of the literature that set the context of this study and is presented in three sections. The first section covers the following areas: Summaries of medical and social models of disability, a summary of how inclusive education is defined and key considerations for developing inclusive education from the inclusion perspective. The key considerations include: The role of the teacher in inclusive education, the impact of teachers' attitudes and beliefs in inclusive practices, adaptability in classroom, and whole school environment along with teachers' professional development through pre-service and in-service training.

The second section provides the definition of policy and policy implementation processes. It also provides a definition of inclusive education policy and a brief introduction to inclusive education policy together with summaries of inclusive education policies and practices from countries around the globe. Those countries include: New Zealand, China, Cyprus and Botswana. The third section presents the following information: A history of how PNG adopted an inclusive education policy, PNG's inclusive education policy, and examples of policies in PNG that support inclusive education, such as Matane's Philosophy of Education, the National Curriculum Statement and the PNG National Policy on Disability. The chapter finishes with a brief summary.

### **Part One**

#### **2.1 Summaries of medical and social models of disabilities**

Contemporary issues in disability and inclusion in education have their origin in the discourses of the medical and social model of disability (Slee, 2008). The models of disability are associated with different value systems, attitudes and behaviors with contrasting ideas between disability and inclusion (Pearson, 2009). Within these models, arguments about children with disability gaining equal access to education provoked worldwide movements to support an inclusion education. A brief summary of each theories and their definition are provided in the next section.

### **2.1.1 The medical model of disability**

The medical model of disability viewed disability as a sickness or disease of some sort whereby only the medical profession could intervene with treatment to correct it as much as possible (Brisenden, 1986; Mulvany, 2000). This theory of disability view that problems experience by disabled people are the consequence of a disease (Kett, Lang & Trani, 2009). These ideas made it possible for medical professionals to measure a person's limitation and devise corrective procedures to ensure the greatest degree of normalisation. For example, when a wheelchair user is unable to get into a building because of the stairs, the medical model would suggest that it is the way the wheelchair is made that restricts the disabled person's access to the building. However, Barnes (1999) argues that the medical lens is fixed on the individual's disability and the larger political, economic and material structures that are at play in an able-bodied society fall somewhere outside the frame.

The medical model equated an individual's health status, impairment and capacity limitation, and failed to address social factors such as discrimination, prejudice and the inaccessibility disabled people faced (Officer & Groce, 2009). It saw disability purely as a problem of the person with disability, without considering the difference between the type of impairment and the disability (Mulvany, 2000). Impairment is the physiological loss or abnormality on the person's body while disability is what reduces the person's full function and participation in all activities due to the loss of the body part (Crow, 1996). The medical model perceived that because of the physical and psychological defect in their bodies, disabled people were more dependent, unintelligent, unattractive, helpless and childlike and unable to fulfil tasks (Fisher & Goodley, 2007; Badley, 2008).

The limitation the medical model is that it sees only the alternative path a wheelchair user could take, such as the lift. The medical lens narrows its sight to wheelchair provision as a solution rather than considering what other things the wheelchair-bound person can do to survive. Other senses and parts of the body still function for this person. And the social model of disability is an alternative lens that has challenged the medical model's tradition of overlooking the normal functions and abilities of disabled people.

### **2.1.2 The social model of disability**

The social model of disability is defined as a theory that sees disability as a product of specific social and economic structures and aims to address issues of oppression and discrimination of disabled people that are caused by institutional forms of exclusion and by cultural attitudes embedded in social practices (Terzi, 2004). The social model believes that attitudinal and environmental barriers are the predominant obstacles existing in society: able-bodied people tend to fix their gaze on the disability of people rather than noticing their abilities (Mulvany, 2000). It advocates that places like buildings, schools and playing grounds should be made suitable to accommodate people with varying disabilities (Chappell et al., 2001).

The social model of disability aim to eradicate the attitudinal and environmental problems faced by disabled persons by understanding them as full members of the society and adjusting situations to enable them to adapt and function within their society (Kett, Lang & Trani, 2009). It became a tool for supporting the principle of equity and inclusion in society by taking a firm stand that no longer should a person with disability be considered inferior nor seen as self-pity and unworthy but as a full human being (Skrtic, 1991). From this perspective, the social model of disability has shifted the negative stereotypical attitudes towards people with disabilities and drawn people to appreciate that everyone, able-bodied or disabled is equal. Therefore, the social model of has the incremental influence that sparked human rights movements across the globe (Kett, et al. 2009; Terzi, 2004) and called for disabled people to participate in all aspects of life including an inclusive education (Chappell et al., 2001).

### **2.2 A summary of how inclusive education is defined**

Inclusive education is a contested term and in recent years its ideas have gained increased interest (Opertti & Brady, 2011). Yet confusion about what the term implies remains (Booth & Ainscow, 2002; Ainscow, 2005, 2007; Ainscow & Miles, 2008; O’Gorman & Drudy, 2010; Opertti & Brady, 2011). The ambiguous nature of the notion of inclusive education is reflected through different authors (Booth & Ainscow, 2002; Ainscow & Miles, 2008; O’Gorman & Drudy, 2010;

Operti & Brady, 2011). As Slee (2004, cited in Ainscow, 2007), puts it: “indeed the term has travelled so much that it become jet lagged” (p. 3). However, as time goes on, individuals and groups have defined the meaning of inclusive education in the way it best suits their context. The selection of authors in this section writes specifically about their perspectives regarding the definition of inclusive education. These are closely associated with international efforts to achieve and sustain the education for all agendas (Ainscow & Miles, 2008).

Operti and Brady (2011) define “inclusive education as a holistic reform strategy for education systems aiming to achieve quality education for all ... where a key role for inclusive teachers is to meet the diverse learners’ needs” (p. 459), and “especially those at risk of marginalization and underachievement and who are undermined, segregated and excluded from the regular education systems” (p. 460).

On the other hand UNESCO (2003) has defined inclusive education as:

A process of addressing and responding to the diversity of needs of all learners through increasing participation in learning, cultures and communities, and reducing exclusion within and from education. This process involves changes and modification in content, approaches, structures and strategies, with a common vision that covers all children of the appropriate age range and a conviction that it is the responsibility of the regular system to educate all children. (p. 7)

To O’Gorman and Drudy (2010), inclusive education is defined as an education provided for children with and without disabilities in the regular classroom where learning instruction is provided but includes adaptations that are made by the regular classroom teacher to respond to the unique characteristics of each learner. Meanwhile, Booth and Ainscow (2002) suggest that definitions of ‘inclusive’ sit in close proximity to the term inclusion. These authors define inclusion as the reform in education to keep pupils with disabilities in regular educational settings in their neighbourhood schools by providing necessary services and support for their learning instead of referring them to special schools, and it needs a change in beliefs and attitudes by those who educate them.

As can be seen above, a number of complementary concepts underpin what inclusive education looks like. With regard to the teacher's role, Opertti and Brady's (2011) definition proposes that the teachers' role plays a major part in achieving inclusive education. In UNESCO's definition too, the emphasis is on well-prepared teachers who are capable of practising inclusion both inside and outside of the classroom, by adapting their methods to suit the different circumstances that would enable disabled children's success in learning. Similarly, O'Gorman and Drudy (2010) point out that teacher adapting learning instructions are what characterises inclusive education. For Booth and Ainscow (2002), the emphasis is placed on the words beliefs and attitudes and the notion of inclusion. While these authors define the meaning of inclusive education in their own right, they are cognisant that the key considerations are within the inclusion perspective. The inclusion perspective these authors write invariably includes the notion of teachers' roles and their teaching practises, including their beliefs and attitudes, along with adaptation and professional development. How previous studies have affirmed the importance of each of these key considerations is discussed in turn in the next section.

## **2.3 Key considerations for developing inclusive education from the inclusion perspective**

### **2.3.1 Teachers' role**

Consistent with the meaning of inclusive education, teachers' role generally refers to the way they execute their duty to teach students with disabilities in the regular classroom (Ainscow, 2007; Jordan, Glen & McGhie-Richmond, 2010). The teachers' role includes daily duties such as planning, teaching, and developing strategies to reduce issues affecting their pupils' learning (Wearmouth et al., 2006; Florian, 2008), and teachers also "identify resources to support progressive inclusion" (Agbenyega, 2007, p. 108). In addition, the teachers' role also includes assessment testing and reporting to their supervisor and the Principal (Bourke, 2010). Opertti and Brady (2011) note "inclusive teachers play a key role by addressing the diversity of learners' expectations and needs through a vast repertoire of innovation teaching and learning strategies that do not marginalize them within the broader education system" (p. 470). For such teachers, "their good intentions and good teaching practice will carry all their students forward

into a more equal school/ society in which all students will perform well” (Claiborne, Cornforth, Davies, Milligan & White, 2009, p. 49).

The nature of the teachers’ role does not only limit to the norms of teaching a lesson but it also includes their personal sensitivity to the complex nature of the specific disabilities of their pupils (Bourke, 2010), and the way they reach out to their students so that no learner suffers from their practices while delivering their lessons (Jordan et al., 2010). Ainscow (2007) adds that when teachers understand disabled children’s backgrounds completely, they can use appropriate teaching strategies and perform their duties more confidently.

However, Operti and Belalcáza (2008) argue that inclusive teachers’ roles are not limited to duties inside the classroom but cover duties outside of their classrooms as their role is considered to be one of co-designers and co-developers of inclusive practices. The discourses that surround teachers’ roles in inclusive education largely include the way teachers are prepared to carry out their responsibilities wherever they are at the time of their duty (Jordan et al., 2010). This means the capacity of the role played by teachers is to oversee and plan what suits best for their students’ learning, irrespective of where they are to learn (Ainscow, 2007). For example, teachers can plan for cause and effects of what may happen inside and outside the classroom (Operti & Belalcáza, 2008). It is not the ordinary teaching and learning norms that drives the teachers’ role but it is the creative insight that teachers have for inclusion (Ainscow, 2007).

In inclusive education, the teachers’ role requires flexible thinking in terms of being creative and innovative to accommodate diversity among learners with varying disabilities under their care (Lohani, Singh & Lohani, 2010). Teachers’ roles become realities when the skills and knowledge of inclusion they have acquired through formal training in teachers’ colleges and universities and their own personal characteristics meet their understanding of children with special needs’ diverse learning requirements (Florian, 2008). In other words, a success in inclusive education in a country depends largely on the capacity of the teachers’ skills and knowledge in inclusive education (Bourke, 2010).

However, De Boer, Pijl and Minnaert (2011), believe that one factor that can hinder teachers developing their inclusive roles is when they hold certain beliefs

and attitudes about disabilities. Acedo (2008) makes this point with his study of Finland's inclusive education regarding teachers' roles as:

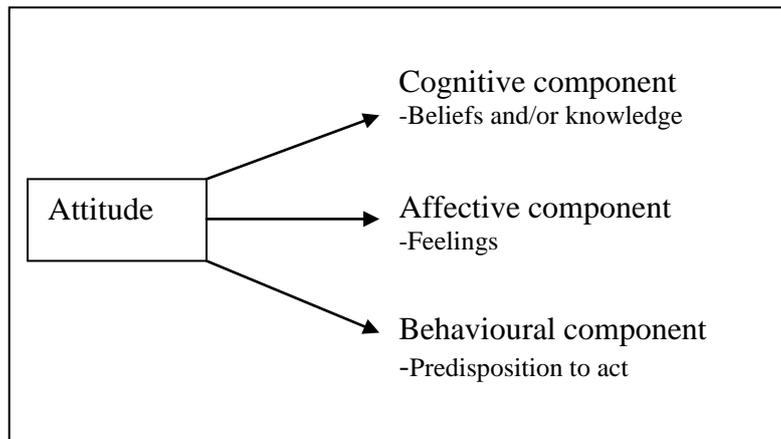
Part of the success of Finnish inclusive education policies relies heavily on teachers' positive approaches towards inclusion, strong professional skills, high quality pre-service education and opportunities to continue their professional development through in-service training and networking with other teachers. (p. 10)

### **2.3.2 The impact of teachers' attitudes and beliefs in inclusive practices**

There is a body of literature on the impact of teachers' attitudes and beliefs on inclusive education practices in which this section cannot pretend to represent (Avramidis & Norwich, 2002; Emam & Mohamed, 2011; Pearson, 2009). There are published articles that show attitudes and beliefs of teachers vary greatly from country to country (Chhabra, Srivastava & Srivastava, 2010). Results from some studies show that some countries achieved inclusive education as a result of teachers' positive attitudes towards inclusion within the vision of EAF (see for example, Horne & Timmons, 2009; Johnstone & Chapman, 2009; Todorovic, Stojiljkovic, Ristanic & Djigic, 2011), while other countries struggle to reach the peak of inclusive education when teachers are less supportive of inclusion with their negative attitudes (e.g, Armstrong, Armstrong, Lynch, & Serevin, 2005; De Boer, Pijl & Minnaert, 2011; Unianu, 2012).

In order to understand how teachers' attitudes affect inclusive education, it is worth defining the term attitudes. The word refers to "an individual's viewpoint or disposition towards a particular object, a person or a thing" (Gall, Borg & Gall, 1996 as cited in De Boer et al., 2011, p. 333), and it "represents relatively stable knowledge, emotions and reactions regarding people, phenomena and situations" (Todorovic et al., 2011, p. 427). The term attitude is not a stand-alone word; rather, "it is considered to have three components: cognitive, affective and behavioural" (De Boer et al., 2011, p. 333).

The figure adapted below describes the three components of attitudes (De Boer et al. 2011, p. 334).



*Figure 2.* The concept attitude and its components

The cognitive component refers to beliefs and knowledge about an object. Teachers' attitudes and beliefs towards inclusive education can be fitted into this category. Take, for example, the belief that children with disability belong in regular schools (De Boer et al., 2011). In this case the feeling towards an object lies within the affective component. An example that would reflect a teacher's feelings regarding inclusion of children with special needs would be 'I'm afraid of the deaf boy's vulnerability to being bumped by passing vehicles. The behavioural component of this statement depicts someone's predetermined views about an object (the deaf boy), which may lead to acting on this view in a certain way. This behaviour might also be portrayed by a teacher through his or her action towards disabled children in a classroom. One example of this is the idea that teachers cannot give extra time to students with hearing difficulties to catch up on their reading lessons (De Boer et al., 2011).

While so far understanding the three components that underlie the term attitude, existing literature continues to emphasize that teachers' attitudes are highly influential in inclusive education (e.g. Jordan, Schwartz & McGhie-Richmond, 2009; Jordan, et al., 2010). Positive attitudes by teachers impact on success in inclusive education while negative attitudes set back the progress of achieving inclusion (Johnstone & Chapman, 2009).

The importance of positive attitudes by teachers for the success of inclusive education has been reported by a number of researchers (see for example, Carrington & Brownlee, 2001; De Boer et al., 2011; Ahmed, Sharma & Deppeler, 2012). According to De Boer et al. (2011), “teachers are seen as key persons to implement inclusive education and positive attitudes are therefore argued as playing a considerable role in implementing this educational change successfully” (p. 331). Positive attitudes and beliefs combine to play a major part in supporting diversity in inclusive education (Booth & Ainscow, 2002; Silva & Morgado, 2004). Hodkinson (2006) notes “successful inclusion may be dependent first upon teachers’ positive attitudes on the beliefs on disability and, second, upon their perceived competence to deliver the lessons” (p. 44).

A recent study by Unianu (2012) argues:

One of the main barriers in the practice of inclusive education is represented by the teachers’ attitudes towards inclusion and its principles... and attitudes are influenced by several factors such as the degree of children’s difficulties, the nature of children’s disabilities, the teachers’ experience with children with special educational needs, the trust in their own capabilities to implement inclusive activities or the expectations towards the children no matter what are the differences between them and the curricular. (p. 901)

This means teachers undermine their work and themselves as teachers when they self-establish a negative viewpoint on disability and consequently lose their confidence in teaching children with disabilities, which further negatively impacts on inclusive education (De Boer et al., 2011). This is because, “many of the attributes of beliefs about disability are conceived by teachers on the larger issues of epistemological beliefs about the nature of knowledge on disability” (Jordan et al., 2010, p. 262). The most serious form of negative attitude towards children with special needs is the rejection of children in their school (Ghergut & Grasu, 2012).

However, some teachers do support inclusion and integration of children in regular classrooms but they do it with reservation by self-imposing negative attitudes towards disability (Johnstone & Chapman, 2009; Operti & Belalcáza,

2008). For example, Chhabra, et al. (2010) state “many regular teachers feel unprepared and fearful to work with learners with disabilities’ irregular classes and so display frustration, anger, and negative attitudes toward inclusive education because they believe that it could lead to lower academic standards” (p.219). The ways teachers exhibit their beliefs about their roles determine inclusive for better or for worse in learning in the inclusive classroom (Jordan et al., 2010; Unianu, 2012).

The complex interplay between the common beliefs and values towards disabilities can help teachers develop creative ways to involve disabled children in learning successfully (Skrtic, 1991). Ainscow (2007) claimed that teachers’ attitudes influence their thinking and as a result impacts on their role in supporting inclusive practices. In other words, some teachers have the tendency to hold low academic expectations of their students with disability in their classroom (Silva & Morgado 2004). They further argue that teachers’ impressions of the intellectual potential of a child labelled as disabled, that they were lower achievers than a non-disabled child, is what diverts their perception away from the original concept of inclusive education. For example, inclusive education is contingent on teachers’ positive attitudes towards inclusive education and that nurtures disabled children’s learning (Ahmmed, et al, 2012). But inclusive education can be achieved depending on teachers’ positive attitudes towards teaching disabled children without exhibiting certain stereotypical patterns in students’ academic behaviour (Jordan et al., 2010). In other words, teachers’ stereotypical and self-imposed perceptions of considering their pupils as one good or bad from the other closes their own motivation to be adaptable to each of their pupils’ needs (Prater, 2010).

### **2.3.3 Adaptation of classroom, curriculum and general school environment**

“An adaptation is any adjustment in the environment, instruction, or materials for learning that enhances the students’ performance and allows for at least partial participation... for individual students based on their specific learning needs and should be based on their strengths as well as weaknesses” (Darrow, 2008, p. 32). According to Parsons, Williams, Burrowbridge and Mauk (2011) schools must adapt so they can “be physically, socially, and instructionally integrating students with disabilities” (p. 723). O’Gorman and Drudy (2010) write that teachers always have been professionals whose effectiveness is judged not only by their

administrator but also by the society as a whole for their efforts in teaching effectively. Hence, teacher effectiveness in regard to their flexibility in teaching by adapting to situations in the best interest of all learners remains vital (Acedo, Ferrer & Pámies, 2009). As Parsons et al. (2011) put it, “students need different things at different times, and a ‘one size fits all’ approach cannot meet those needs of specific disability except by adaptation” (p. 22). Thus flexibility is what is required in inclusion (Peters, 2007).

### **2.3.3.1 Classroom adaptation**

Classroom adaptation is a vital practice for an inclusive teacher and refers to how teachers adjust the physical layout of their classroom (Parsons et al., 2011) as a way of minimising obstructions that might hinder students’ engagement with their learning (Peters, 2007). Examples of how teachers achieve classroom adaptations include students’ seating arrangements at furniture like desks and tables, as well as wall displays and student work centres that have no personalised approach (Acedo et al., 2009). A teacher’s posture, tone of voice and dress may also need to be adapted (O’Gorman & Drudy, 2010). Teachers must also design teaching strategies and organise classroom arrangements so that all pupils have equalised educational opportunities without physical obstruction (Ghergut & Grasu, 2012).

Studies suggest that a disorganised classroom will interfere with disabled children’s learning thus classroom adaptation is important (O’Gorman & Drudy, 2010). When teachers create a less restrictive environment for students with disability, those pupils do not feel excluded (Prater, 2010). According to Peters (2007), a teacher’s proactively adjusting the classroom creates a sense of belonging for their pupils with disability so they do not feel like aliens. Teachers’ skills in adaptation are not limited to the way they set up the classroom environment but also include adapting the curriculum (Parsons et al., 2011).

### **2.3.3.2 Curriculum adaptation**

Curriculum adaptation includes a technical analysis of curriculum content, processes and outcomes by the teacher and the adjustments they make to their instructional practices in order to meet the specific learning needs of children with disability in their classroom (Operti & Brady, 2011, Williams et al., 2011). In addition, Mara and Mara (2012) suggest that curriculum objectives, content,

methodology, and evaluation need to be adapted. Curriculum adaptation is essential as it reduces the chances of stigma that disabled students can feel when teachers do not take into account the special learning needs of disabled students (Florian, 2008). O’Gorman and Drudy (2010) suggest that curriculum adaptation is done by effective teachers to meet the needs of diverse students and is a significant strategy used in order to achieve inclusive education. As Runswick-Cole (2011) puts it, “teachers must deliver best practice” (p. 117), which includes teaching a lesson that does not exclude any learner of the moment (Florian, 2008). An example of a curriculum adaptation is a teacher considering an alternative strategy that would include a boy who uses a wheelchair to participate in the regular Physical Education lesson without the sense of exclusion (Runswick-Cole, 2011). Adapting the curriculum is a must-do action in a class with children with diverse learning needs because it is the way to keep all learners in the school (Avramidis, Bayliss & Burden, 2002; Florian, 2008). Ainscow (2005) notes “some students simply choose to drop out of school since the lessons seem irrelevant to their lives” (p. 109). In order to hold disabled children in the classroom to complete their education, curriculum adaptation is necessary.

However, children’s school life expectancy and their interest in remaining at school cannot be identical across the globe (Ghergut, 2012), but it varies significantly between the wealthier countries and third world countries (Ainscow, 2012). The schools in the developed countries have a higher chance of keeping more of their children in school because of the advantage of adequate teaching materials and facilities to nurture their learning while developing nations increasingly have less student enrolment in schools due to lack of facilities (Peters, 2007). For example, Rogers and Vegas (2010) write that, “in developing countries, many teachers work in schools that do not have adequate teaching materials or basic infrastructure, with on average many more children per classroom than advanced countries” (p. 505). In this scenario, it is important central governments of developing countries should empower education programmes on the content knowledge between learning the school curriculum and how to teach it by adapting to the context (Avalos, 2000).

However, this means inclusive education is not about the ordinary teaching but is about the way educational programmes are re-organised and run in a regular

school to suit all learners' needs regardless of their differences (Skrtic, 1991). Peters (2007), argues that the most valuable proactive role teachers can take to secure adequate support systems for disabled children's education is to adjust the educational activities inside the classroom and to adapt the general school environment because both areas nurture disabled students' learning and participation in school.

### **2.3.3.3 Adapting the general school environment**

Adapting the school environment refers to adjusting the general school setting to encourage a barrier-free learning environment (Operti & Brady, 2011). For example, the architectural structure of the classrooms and walkways, such as tracks on the school ground, should be made easily accessible for disabled children's mobility. As Pivik, McComas and LaFlamme, (2002) put it, "facilitating inclusive school environments requires ensuring physical access ... for optimal learning and social experiences" (p. 103). Peters (2007) also emphasises that adapting a whole school environment reduces the difficulties experienced in inclusion. Naukkarinen (2010) also believes that creating a barrier-free environment increases disabled children's capacity to experience freedom in learning and accessibility.

Operti and Brady (2011) argue that a learning environment that cannot easily be accessed by children with disability does not produce successful inclusive education. Similarly, Chhabra, et al. (2010) in their research suggest that "the ideology of inclusive education is not about segregating students with special needs into special classes and schools but rather about fitting schools to meet the needs of all students" (p. 219). In other words, school environments need to be adapted in such a way to ensure that all children feel welcome as part of their school community. Bourke (2010) argues that to create an inclusive school environment is not an easy task and it requires professionally trained teachers to design a whole inclusive school environment that can best nurture different learners' needs.

### **2.3.4 Teachers professional development through pre-service and in-service practices.**

Professional development is described as a concept that promotes improvement in teachers' education and professional practice (Voltz, 2001), and fosters the

relationship and collaboration between schools and universities necessary to support the learning of prospective and experienced teachers (Margolin, 2011; Deppeler, 2006; Ahsan, Sharma & Deppeler, 2012). Voltz (2001) adds: “perhaps it also includes the innovation type to bring about renewal of education programs, revisiting the preparation of professional development of experienced teachers and reconstructing schools for improved student learning” (p. 288).

Professional development does not end at one stage; rather it is an on-going learning process (Petrie & McGee, 2012) and so the skills and knowledge staff acquire through the trainings are reflected in the workplace (Avalos, 2000). Professional development is important because it introduces the teachers to curriculum and pedagogical reforms (Petrie & McGee, 2012). Teachers’ efficient professional development is a necessity because teachers are key agents in transforming educational goals while performing their role as educators (Margolin, 2011). Literature acknowledges that teachers who are equipped well with sufficient skills and knowledge have a better impact on the success of inclusive education initiatives (e.g. Thornton, Peltier & Medina, 2007; Operti & Belalcáza, 2008; Buzdar & Ali 2011; Margolin, 2011) as they can then blend their professional knowledge and skills, adjust their role and recognise the practices they need to exhibit in order to provide on-going support for their diverse learners (Deppeler, 2006; Ferguson, 2008).

According to Ntombela (2009), providing professional development for those teachers tasked with implementing innovation and providing the necessary material and human resources for the innovation is important to achieve inclusive education. So teachers’ professional development can improve all students’ achievement (Paliokosta & Blandford, 2010; Petrie & McGee, 2012). Thus, “appropriate professional development, including teacher training is regarded as a cornerstone of the development of inclusive education” (Pearson, 2009, p. 559). The aspect of professional development for teachers has to be centred on their skills and knowledge so that they do not lack efficient skills to handle children with varying learning needs (Operti & Belalcáza, 2008), while still performing their role as teachers (Margolin, 2011). As Acedo (2008) argues, “when this type of support is not available and teachers are inadequately prepared and ill-equipped with skills to offer” (p.10), inclusive education has not reached its peak

(Ntombela, 2009). In this vein, a plethora of literature has shown that the lack of inclusion skills and knowledge of teachers limited the facilitation of inclusive education (e.g. Irma & Kgwete, 2007).

In order to provide students with rich learning opportunities and enhance their learning, teachers have to develop their own professional competencies, knowledge and pedagogy. Teachers develop their professional skills and knowledge in two different ways. Firstly, teachers gain their professional skill through pre-service training and secondly, through in-service programmes (Acedo, 2008).

#### **2.3.4.1 Pre-service programmes**

Pre-service training programmes takes place in teacher education colleges and universities (Margolin, 2011). Training programmes include prospective teachers taking units on inclusive education accompanied by supervised practicums (Petrie & McGee, 2012) to equip them for their new role (Conderman & Johnston-Rodriguez, 2009). Training programmes that aim to prepare teachers who can successfully support the learning of every student and respond to the nation's diverse learning community" (Robinson & West, 2012).

Pre-service training offered in colleges and universities is set out in accordance with teacher preparation plans laid out by the education department (Carrington & Brownlee, 2001; Margolin, 2011). For example, "In Papua New Guinea ... the National Department of Education has powers over primary teacher training, although they are tempered by decision-making bodies that include teacher college representatives as well as representation from the university and teacher unions" (Avalos, 2000, p. 463). In other words, in PNG, the National Department of Education offer support to the Teachers' Colleges and decision making bodies oversee the of graduates likely to enter the teaching profession with certain skills. In this vein, research literature has established that lack of appropriate information in teacher preparation curricula, untrained teacher educators and insufficient practicum experiences leave a new teacher ill-prepared in inclusive practices (e.g, Ahsan, Sharma & Deppeler, 2012).

Petrie and McGee (2012) argue that during an initial teacher training at colleges and universities, both the practicum and courses studies should equip prospective teachers for the new role. However, Margolin (2011) argues that the education of teachers in the classroom cannot end there; developing their professional competencies, knowledge and pedagogies should be on-going and delivered whenever a need arises. That means changes in the education system are never-ending, thus teachers are expected to undergo timely training through in-service courses to meet the new demands of the up-coming changes.

#### **2.3.4.2 In-service programmes**

Staff training through in-service education is an approach of staff development that aims to upgrade skills and knowledge (Giangreco, Cichoskikelly, Sherman & Mavropoulos, 2011). Development can either be either planned or unplanned. According to O’Gorman and Drudy (2010) school-focused in-service training is characterised by continuing education activities which try to focus on the interests, needs and problems directly related to the job or the setting. In-service programmes are also a way to help teachers recapture their former knowledge and skills and to apply this in their current situation (Wearmouth, Edwards & Richmond, 2006; Margolin, 2011). As Vaillant (2011) put it, “trained teachers often revert quickly to their old habits and training activities ... and use the innovation they were exposed to in training” (p. 390). Thus teachers who require an in-service training have to be coordinated so they can enhance their skills and knowledge. If all teachers are informed of the changes in the education system school effectiveness and the goals of reform education on inclusion are achieved as a result (Jones, 2012).

So far, existing literature has reflected the key considerations in inclusive education and in particular the concepts of teaching of children with disabilities in the regular classrooms. However, when there is increased interest in providing effective education for all, the most significant document that drives the imperative of inclusive education is policy. Therefore it is worth asking: what is policy and what is its role in relation to inclusive education practice? The next section provides the following: definition of policy, policy implementation, an

inclusive education policy and a brief introduction of inclusive education policy in countries around the globe.

## **Part Two**

### **2.4 What is policy?**

The term policy refers to a country's developmental course of action proposed by the government and submitted as a legislative document stating what has to be done and by whom regarding a major change in social behaviour (Gale, 2006). A policy document by its nature is not a neutral text. It is an authoritative allocation of values written in a document which provides guidelines and principles to aid decisions to achieve rational outcomes that can be adopted by members within an organisation in national, regional or local levels of governments, regardless of public services or private sectors (McMenamin, 2010; Paliokosta & Blandford, 2010; Kearney & Kane, 2006). Policies are viewed as blueprints that are in place prior to an actual implementation and which are to be implemented through a guided process (Souto-Otero, 2011).

Bridges and Watts (2008) write that what makes a policy look like a policy are the policy statements. Policy statements show the sorts of actions that are desirable at the end of implementation (Gale, 2006). However, policy statements are not globally uniform; rather they vary from place to place and from country to country with their own values and contexts (Bridges & Watts, 2008). For example, some policy statements are expressed as categorical endorsements of certain moral or social principles while others express educational principles more specifically (Gale, 2006; Bridges & Watts, 2008).

However, Johnstone and Chapman (2009) argue that "policy is of little value if it does not yield the intended impact on practice" (p. 131). This is because the policy and policy statements are not confined to one particular person. Rather, policy lies in an evaluation of different stakeholders and it is open to anyone's own interpretation, construction, reconstruction and even criticism in the channel of implementation (Bridges & Watts, 2008).

### **2.4.1 Policy implementation**

Policy implementation is concerned with working within the structures and practices through which policy objectives are put into practice (Fitz, 2001). It is a process involving decision making which corresponds in structure, through different stages, with the constitutional separation of powers between the stakeholders in a hierarchical and in a linear framework (Armstrong, Armstrong, Lynch & Serevin, 2005; Fitz, 2001). This implies that those who are responsible for implementing policy have a duty to feedback to authorized decision makers (e.g. government of the day) information about the success and failures of the targeted objectives (Souto-Otero, 2011).

Two approaches can be used to analyse policy implementation processes. They are named as top-down and bottom-up (Fitz 2001). A top-down approach is concerned with the authority of policy makers to correspond downwards in the structure of the constitutional separation of powers between the state and the stakeholders during the process of implementation. The bottom-up approach recognizes that grassroots level implementers determine the extent to which policies are applied at the bottom (Fitz, 2001; Gale, 2006). In this case, the criteria used to measure a successful or failed policy implementation measure is not focused on the degree of match or mismatch between the policy statements and the actions of the implementers, nor the deviant behavior of implementers; rather it is measured against what has been achieved to date (Fitz, 2001).

Policy implementation is therefore a complex process and the responsibility of implementing it is shared among stakeholders who can directly or indirectly benefit from it (Gale, 2006; Liasidou, 2008). However, the core perspective behind policy formation and implementation is to get the organization or institution to implement the ideas contained in the policy more efficiently and effectively (Gale, 2006). This means a policy is a box to tick as it is a yardstick that can be used to measure what has been achieved and what has not (Bridges & Watts, 2008).

Meanwhile, literature has demonstrated that policies cannot be easily accepted by those who adopt it but implementation can be fought over by different

stakeholders (e.g. Fitz, 2001; Gale, 2006). Nor can policy be divorced from those who find it interesting but contradictory views can be resolved to suit the best interest of policy beneficiaries (e.g. Liasidou, 2008; Souto-Otero, 2011). In this sense, a policy initiative can be judged by those who implement the initiative and validate its policy outcome (Souto-Otero, 2011).

While, policies can be seen as a pillar on which for a government can base its country's developmental actions, policy failure often occurs because of misinterpretations of the significance between the text and action (Souto-Otero, 2011). However, Liasidou (2008) states that in the process of attempting to engage persons in conceptualizing a country's policy, one should provide an analysis of the parameters of the cultural, historical and political dynamics that can affect the efficient formulation and implementation of the policy. In this sense it means that governments are not making rhetorical proclamations through a policy; rather, it constitutes the reality of a contemporary milestone in the country's development (Dyson & Gallannaugh, 2007). Liasidou (2008) further elaborates that one can understand that whatever a policy contains are prevalent truths: there is no vague communication in it. It is the actors in the drama of implementation that determine how it can be carried out. As such, inclusive education policy correlates to the nature of a policy (Dyson & Gallannaugh, 2007) and it is the premise of this thesis that the meaning of an inclusive education policy should be examined and its purpose explained.

#### **2.4.2 What is an inclusive education policy?**

Given the nature of the concept of inclusive education and policy as outlined so far, a policy on inclusive education serves to direct, authorise and disseminate educational goals designed within the inclusive practices of teaching and learning processes that will benefit disabled children (Kearney & Kane, 2006; Ainscow, 2007; Liasidou, 2007, 2008, 2010; Johnston & Chapman, 2009; Bourke, 2010; Walker, 2010). An inclusive education policy developed "from the belief that education is the basic right and the foundation of a more just society" (Ainscow & Miles, 2008, p.16). It is a doctrine that overturns segregation practices in education (Vlachou, 2004; Liasidou, 2008, 2010; Hodkinson, 2012). Liasidou (2007) puts:

The quest for the realisation of inclusive policy and practice is primarily an attempt to alter the education system so as to include and respect students' diversity. Inclusion is fundamentally different from integration in the sense that it requires the education system to be radically restructured so as to provide quality education for all children, irrespective of their variegated developmental trajectories. (p. 329)

In addition, Dyson and Gallannaugh (2007) write that a statement on inclusive education policy is like a prescription that serves to reconcile the two ideas of segregated education and integrated education. That is, "inclusive education policy emphasises every citizen's equal access to education regardless of age, place of residence, economic circumstances, sex or mother tongue" (Naukkarinen, 2010, p. 185). The rules of the inclusive education policy stress that general educational authorities are responsible for the education of children with disabilities in an integrated setting (Smith-Davis, 2002). Operti and Brady (2011) elaborate:

Inclusive education policies worldwide usually focus on two concerns. One is the choice between special education and integration or mainstreaming, as well as the strategies and methods for progressively incorporating students with special needs into regular schools: investments in physical facilities and equipment, circular renewal and adjustments, and teachers' roles and practices. The second is how to respond to the expectations and needs of targeted excluded groups mostly linked to ethnic, gender, cultural, socio-economic and migrant factors. (p. 460)

In other words, it can be seen that an inclusive education policy is developed, firstly, to integrate special and regular education together in a unified education system whereby the education of children with special needs is supported with appropriate facilities and resources so that they can learn alongside their able bodied peers. Secondly, an inclusive education policy is developed to integrate a diversity of learners from varying backgrounds to learn together (Vlachou, 2004; Liasidou, 2007, 2008).

An inclusive education policy aims to bring together students with disabilities. Those who have experienced exclusion from education can consider it as their cornerstone to get their support for their educational endeavours (Vlachou, 2004). It is a legitimate document that supports integration and upholds disabled students' right to education regardless of where they are (Ainscow & Miles, 2008). It is a vehicle to raise awareness of disabled children's power, and a means to protect their vulnerability in terms of receiving education (Peters 2007), and it closes the gap opened up by perceptions that one person is better than the other by placing all students in one classroom (Furtado, 2005). In other words, the vision of inclusive education policy is not to weed out students with disabilities in a regular classroom; rather it places all school-aged learners in the same learning environment where they are taught by a regular teacher (Liasidou, 2007).

The inclusive education policy is a reform in education that sheds new light on old educational practices to promote a new vision in education (Acedo, 2008; Acedo et al., 2009; Opertti et al., 2009). Bourke (2010) emphasises that "government inclusive education policies outlined in the inclusive education statement ... have an education system in which difference and diversity are respected and valued" (p. 184). These views express a universal right to education where all children can participate in the educational system whatever their abilities to claim education as their basic right, corresponding to the concept of inclusive education as summarised in section one.

Khudorenko (2012) argues that, despite an inclusive education policy's clear statement and principles, the perception that people with disabilities ought to be fully equal in receiving education has not yet sunk into public consciousness. This is because the dominant interpretation of an inclusive education policy as a completely a new system of education without clear measures of demarcation between abled and disabled learners in a classroom is still unclear to people (Dyson & Gallannaugh, 2007; Liasidou, 2007). However, it could also be the result of the gap between the stated and enacted policies connected to misunderstanding of the principles of human rights and equal opportunities (Vlachou, 2004).

Even, so literature has established that education systems around the world face the biggest challenge in inclusive education, that of providing an effective, high quality education for children and young people with disabilities (e.g. Ainscow, 2005; Kearney & Kane, 2006; Booth & Ainscow, 2002; Ainscow & Miles, 2008; Liasidou, 2008). Opertti and Belalcáza (2008) note “inclusive education is a growing universal concern that informs and challenges the processes of educational reform in both developing and developed regions” (p. 114). The challenges in achieving the features of an inclusive education policy are varied, complex and multi-faceted within and across societies (Pearson, 2009; Kerr & Keating, 2011). The challenge of achieving full inclusion lies in a comprehensive understanding of the working of policy and practice (Dyson & Gallannaugh, 2007) by the actors who adopt it (Ferguson, 2008) and by a government’s commitment to empower the process (Hodkinson, 2012). For instance, Brady and Opertti (2011) note “reform that moves more inclusive education systems by developing inclusive teachers is an extremely complex, dedicated and contested process and it is essential to recognize that teacher education is simply one set of efforts in this direction” (p. 468).

Hodkinson (2012) argues that difficulties occur because the implementation process is perhaps not an easy task for the teachers, thus conditions such as teacher education and declining salaries should not be factors liable to hold back implementation processes. In other words, incentives in the form of recognising teachers’ effort to implement the new vision in education can have an impact on implementation (Walker, 2010).

#### **2.4.2.1 The impact incentives have on teachers implementing inclusive education**

Literature has indicated that incentives in recognition of teachers’ efforts in implementing inclusive education policy can determine the progress of implementation (e.g. Armstrong et al, 2005; Ghore & York-Barr, 2007; Thornton et al., 2007; Johnstone & Chapman, 2009; Opertti & Brady, 2011; Mackenzie, 2012). Incentives can be used in different forms to recognise the role that teachers’ commitment to their duties played in providing education to children with special needs (Thornton et al., 2007). “To encourage implementation, central level officials have to rely on incentives that reward teachers for compliance, sanctions

for non-compliance, and monitoring systems to know what is actually happening” (Johnston & Chapman, 2009, p. 132). As Thornton et al. (2007) write: “many special education teachers are expected to make commitments beyond those expected of regular education teachers without appropriate compensation” (p. 236). Hence, in order to sustain the motivation of teachers, it is important for the government to recognize their commitment to teaching children with special needs requires time and effort by inclusive teachers (Vaillant, 2011; Mackenzie, 2012). When teachers’ efforts are not recognised by the government, teachers cannot find joy in their work (Armstrong et al., 2005). However, the teachers’ commitment cannot be recognised unless their actions are witnessed and supported through those under whom they work (Johnstone & Chapman, 2009). Teachers’ commitment to inclusion is not something they necessarily do on their own accord (Ainscow & Miles, 2008), rather, “policy makers are inviting and sometimes pushing schools to adopt a more inclusive setting and local authorities and or school governing bodies are often responsible for managing the process” (Pijl & Frissen, 2009, p. 368). The responsibilities of the governing bodies do not involve anything other than collaborative and administrative support (Acedo, 2008; Jones, 2012).

#### **2.4.2.2 Collaboration and administrative support**

Literature on this topic continues to emphasise that in order to see inclusive education policy implemented, there has to be a culture of collaboration and administrative support that encourages the policy’s goals and practices (e.g. Skrtic, 1991; Peters, 2002; Peters, Johnstone, & Ferguson, 2005; Ainscow, 2007; Liasidou, 2007, 2008; Meijer, Soriano & Watkins, 2007; Mullick, Deppeler, Sharma, 2012). As Smith-Davis (2002) states, “education for persons with disabilities should form an integral part of national planning, curriculum development and school organization” (p. 77). In addition, the literature also notes that collaborative administrative support is vital in order to monitor inclusive education policy implementation processes (Peters, 2002, 2007; Mackenzie, 2012). Moreover, there is no shortage of literature that indicates a lack of effective collaboration has been a hurdle to achieving inclusive education goals (e.g. Ryan, 2007; Jones, 2012; Mullick et al., 2012).

In an inclusive spirit, management hierarchies can create fluid relationships amongst those involved in implementing policy on inclusion education and nurture a dialogue so everyone should have a voice on what happens at the school level (Ainscow, 2007; Ryan, 2007). This will involve collaboration between policy makers and with people working in the education system, such as the teachers, in order for all parties to negotiate what will work best not only for one person but for everyone (Ainscow, 2007). A development of systematic monitoring and evaluation procedures to ensure flexible special education practices are taking place is what can move policy forward (Meijer, Soriano & Watkins, 2007; Mullick, 2012). Ainscow (2012) remarks: “a fundamental challenge for policy makers and practitioners is, therefore, to find ways of breaking the links between disadvantage, educational failures and restricted life chances” (p. 289). Pijl and Frissen (2009) write:

Specific steering concepts of policymakers, whose interventions seem to address schools as ‘machine’ bureaucracies, while in fact they are professional ones, force schools to create the illusion they have adapted to include students with special needs. Schools and teachers themselves must be the driving forces of change. (p. 366)

Hodkinson (2012) argues “what then is this inclusion of government educationalists and professional speak?” (p. 5). In other words, both policy makers and implementers must speak the same language and have a common vision towards implementing inclusive education (Ryan, 2007). Dyson and Gallannaugh (2007) argue “it is the matter of thinking, talking, reviewing and refining practice and making attempts to develop a more collaborative culture” (p. 5), and that is the network between the professionals and educationalists to minimise the struggle an inclusive education policy attempts to address (Ainscow, 2007). According to Naraian (2010), “in implementing inclusive education, special educators frequently collaborate with general educators in various settings” (p. 1677). In other words, without consistent collaboration no one will know the stagnation state of the inclusive education policy (Dyson & Gallannaugh, 2007). According to de Boer, Pijl and Minnaert (2012), the struggles for an inclusive education policy to claim its intended purpose is not

limited to aspects such as training, resources, legislation and teachers. That means an array of aspects is needed for the inclusive education policy to fulfil its purpose, including sufficient resources within a school for teachers to use in their teaching (Hodkinson, 2012). Volume of sufficient teaching resources for children's learning cannot only reflect how much children with special needs learned from the lessons taught to them; rather it is the entire teaching and learning processes including the assessment systems (Florian, 2008). For example, the tests and examination systems used are able to assess disabled children's learning.

#### **2.4.2.3 Assessment practices on students' performances**

The assessment practices are an important part of teaching and learning processes to assess the students' cognitive ability (Cavendish, 2013). However, Florian (2008) argues that in inclusive education a standardised assessment system cannot determine that all children having the same learning ability; rather, it varies significantly across all students in a class. For example, children with hearing impairment learn at a slower pace compared to typical learners because their impairment reduces their ability to hear. That means, a hearing impaired boy's cognitive ability cannot be determined by a standardised result. Hence, pupils with specific disabilities require specific assessment strategies that can better measure their cognitive ability (Cavendish, 2013). Meijer et al., (2007) argue that an area for policy development includes giving attention to the increasing tension between school academic requirements and the capabilities of pupils with special educational needs.

Relevant literature has reported that children with disabilities cannot remain in school as a result of biased assessment practices (e.g. Florian, 2008; Florian & Rouse, 2009; Ahmmed et al., 2012). This is because when disabled children feel that lessons are not applicable to them in reality, they drop out of school (Cavendish, 2013). Barriers to learning and participation arise from inflexible or irrelevant curricular and inappropriate systems of assessment and examination (Florian, 2009). Peters et al., (2005) note: "in many countries, new standards-based curricula and new laws requiring improved achievement outcomes on standards-based tests are being used as measures of school performance goals" (p. 140). For example, "effective implementation of inclusive education must focus

not only on students but also on all teachers, all curriculum reforms, all teaching reforms, all support personnel, all policies, all strategies for student assessment and so on” (Ferguson, 1997 cited in Peters, 2002, p. 290).

## **2.5 Summaries of inclusive education policies and practices from countries around the globe: New Zealand, China, Cyprus and Botswana.**

Literature has established that many countries around the globe have embraced inclusive education in their own ways depending on their national goals (Kearney & Kane, 2006; Johnson & Chapman, 2008; Liasidou, 2008). This section briefly summaries inclusive policies for four countries: New Zealand, China, Cyprus and Botswana. These countries have been chosen as a way to understand the background information about how inclusive education has been adopted.

**New Zealand** developed inclusive education from the mainstream movement and special education in general (Kearney & Kane, 2006). An array of legislation strategies and plans support the education of disabled people (Purdue, Gordons-Burns; Stark & Turnock, 2011). However, “it was not until 1996 that the policy specifically designed to meet the needs of students labelled as having special needs was introduced” (Kearney & Kane, 2006, p. 206), entitled Special Education 2000 (SE2000). “The policy is New Zealand’s first ‘inclusive’ education policy which brought changes that were designed to make it easier for students with special needs to enrol at their local school (McMenamin, 2011). The main of the policy was to achieve a world class inclusive education system that provides learning opportunities of equal quality to all students (Kearney & Kane, 2006). The policy’s direction was in line with what was described as an international move towards inclusion of all children with special education needs in local educational settings (McMenamin, 2011).

**China** as a member country to UNESCO, adopted the idea of inclusive education in the 1990s (Hu, 2011). Traditionally, children with disability were placed at the lowest level of the social hierarchy. The placement of disabled children this way reflected the influence of the ancient teaching of Confucius. Because of this religion, the feudal system lasted for more than 2,000 years in China. As a consequence, this religion continues to encourage negative attitudes and perceptions about disability. Today the national goal of full inclusion of all

disabled students is far from being achieved because most of the schools have not welcomed children with special needs (Hu, 2011).

**Cyprus** has established special education systems as a private humanitarian initiative since 1929. Special schools functioned independently without unified legislation until 1979 when the introduction of 47/79 Special Education Law began a revolution in the nature of education in Cyprus (Liasidou, 2008). Students with special needs witnessed inclusion around this time.

**Botswana** had its first inclusive education policy enacted in 1977. It was not until the second policy in education was revised in 1994 that special education provision was introduced. But a small number of non-governmental organisations had already been providing education for children with specific special disabilities (Chhabra et al., 2010). Botswana began practising inclusion and integration after signing a number of international declarations, such as the 1994 Salamanca Framework for Action on Special Needs Education which advocates for all schools to accommodate all children.

The next section provides the history of special and inclusive education development in PNG.

### **Part Three**

#### **2.6 History of how PNG adopted an inclusive education policy**

In PNG, the slow pace of special and inclusive education development is rooted in the nature of how people with disability were seen by society in this country (Mapsea, 2006). Interpretation of disability in PNG is impacted due to the cultural complexity such as the country having more than 800 languages (Rombo, 2007). For example, some cultures in PNG considered the presence of physical and intellectual disabilities in children arose from the breaching of traditional taboos and practices of sorcery (Frost, 2002). People with disability were ridiculed and often considered as non-existent in society. Many from rural areas were excluded from educational activities and employment the area of least participation (Mapsea, 2006; Rombo, 2007).

In PNG, the history of special and inclusive education took place away from mainstream schools and in places designed only for disabled people, because there was no demand for education. Children and youths with severe disability (called handicapped at that time) previously were catered for in charitable centres where they were seen as pitiful creatures that needed other people's compassion (Rombo, 2007). Only those children with disabilities who lived close to the urban centres gained recognition by charity groups. Those who were in the village remained secluded, dependent on their family and community to provide care for their well-being (Mapsea, 2006).

Special schools were initially established by voluntary groups which were often backed by charitable non-profit organisations. Most organisations were church run and of western origin. This means that these groups were mostly run by overseas charity groups. The church groups' entry to PNG was mainly to spread Christianity and through their outreach voluntarily supported special education provision that included life-skills rather than a full educational curriculum. Any education provided by early missionaries, such as Catholics, was mainly conducted by care organisations. That means the focus on special education at that time was more structured.

A study by Mapsea (2006) noted that there is no formal record to estimate when special education actually started in PNG. As such it is possible to suggest that special education existed before the year of independence because charity-giving organisations such as the Cheshire Home have provided services since 1965 (Department for Community Development, 2009). This does not mean that there was no education for disabled children but education may have been silently taking place in the specially designated places. According to the Department of Education (1993):

The Department of Education has had a policy that concentrated solely on the provision of education for normal children...in PNG, in the past; the government has not been able to assist with special education of such children and has had to rely on the selfless assistance of private agencies and religious, charitable and local bodies. (p. 4)

According to Mapsea (2006), private institutions in PNG that catered for children with special needs included: Mount Zion Blind Centre for children with visual impairments; Callan Services for Disabled Persons for children with hearing impairment; Wewak Boys Town which provided care to children with emotional and behavioural difficulties; and the Cheshire Home which cared for children with cerebral palsy, autism and physical disabilities. These organisations were, and still do, provide care by giving services in terms of basic living skills. However, there was little focus on education. For example, the Cheshire Home is a charitable organisation located in the main city, Port Moresby. At one stage it only provided residential care for severely disabled children. Since 1965, the scope and objectives of the institution have changed considerably in relation to residential special education (Department for Community Development, 2009).

However, inclusive education started as a low priority area at the time of PNG's independence in 1975 (Mapsea, 2006) and on an ad-hoc basis (Rombo, 2007). Church agencies through their extensive missionary network also provided invaluable services to the communities, but little attention was paid to education (Le Fanu, 2013). For instance, in 1991, Callan Services was formed by the Christian Brothers to provide basic community-based rehabilitation services for people with disabilities in order to create an opportunity for these people to live life to the fullest. This agency also worked in collaboration with the Catholic Church to establish Special Education Resource Centres (SERCs) in the main cities around PNG (Department for Community Development, 2009). The SERCs were established especially to provide services to cater for people with disabilities under Community-Based Rehabilitation (CBR) programmes. The aim of the SERCs was to promote training and the development of quality services such as health services. People with disabilities were screened for the level of their disability and recommended for further treatment. This move provided recognition for children with disability to receive education but only in a small way (Le Fanu, 2010, 2013).

However, expanding educational opportunities through the SERCs remained a problem in the early years because there were no salaries for teachers. This was because SERCs were not recognised by the government, and special and inclusive

education was not legitimated in PNG's education system. As such, SERCs experienced financial hardship in paying their staff (National Department of Education, 1993). At the inception of the inclusive education policy in 1993, the Department of Education began to recognise the efforts put in by the SERCs for the education of children with disabilities whereby SERCs provided resources to mainstream schools and teachers to facilitate learning by children with disability. To assist the Department of Education to extend special and inclusive education in the country, the SERCs were drawn into government plans for inclusive education and participated in drawing up the guidelines for implementing an inclusive education policy in regular schools. Teaching positions in the SERCs were created with full salary. The SERCs supported the Department of Education by allowing their staff to train pre-service or in-service teachers studying inclusive education in Teachers' Colleges or universities in PNG (Department of Education, 1993).

Although the adoption of inclusive education practices has been slow, there has been a gradual acceptance of two ideas: that disabled children should be educated and that they receive education preferably in their local school. This change has come about partly because of the change in view about the nature and function of the word 'disability' and the view that children with disabilities should be fully educated. This idea of changing the placement of disabled children from segregated education to the regular classroom marked a turn in global views as reflected in conventions and conferences to which PNG is a signatory in some instances. For example, PNG ratified the Convention of the Rights of People with Disabilities in 2008 (Department of Community Development, 2009). PNG was no exception in committing to formulating its own inclusive education policy.

## **2.7 PNG's inclusive education policy**

The PNG government through the Department of Education committed to formulating its first inclusive education policy in 1993, entitled: "National Special Education Policy, Plans and Guidelines" (NSEPPG). This initiative begun in response to international treaties outlined in the previous chapter (section 1.2.1). The statement and purpose of the inclusive education policy is set out in the following two points:

(1) To set out a framework or plan for special education development in the present state of PNG.

(2) To make a statement of policy and guidelines to assist and to apply to the inclusive education implementation plan (Department of Education, 1993, p.2).

These statements of purpose reflect the message of the Minister for Education, who endorsed the inclusive education policy in February, 1993. The Minister's message as read was:

There has been a major shift in the government's position on providing education services for the disabled in our society. Previously it was put in 'the too hard basket' and the excuse for doing very little was that it was an area that voluntary agencies could do much better than government. While the importance of voluntary agencies is still acknowledged today for the severely disabled, it is recognised that the Department of Education and the government can do much for disabled children who have the potential to be integrated into our existing schools and can support more the voluntary agencies that are providing education for the disabled. This document outlines the principles which have caused this change of position and the implementation strategies have been prepared by the Special Education Committee ... and approved by the National Education Board for the ways that this can be done. (Department of Education, 1993, p. 1)

In addition, the 1991 Sector Study made a number of further recommendations in support of inclusive education in PNG. The recommendations by the study sector and the statement of the policy and guidelines contained three key features:

1. That where feasible, disabled children attend regular schools along with normal children.
2. For this to take place teachers need to be trained and so pre-service and in-service training in special education needs to be provided by all Teachers' Colleges.

3. The Department of Education allocates 2.5% of its budget towards educating 2.5% of children who have marked disabilities of a kind where appropriate educational interventions will make all the difference (Department of Education, 1993, p. 4).

Furthermore, the Department of Education (1993) emphasised:

Special education will be included in mainstream teacher education courses of all Colleges for all training of pre-school, elementary, primary and secondary teachers with optimal basic and in-depth pre-service and in-service courses offered to student teachers and teachers wishing to pursue qualifications related to specific disabilities ... as it is part of the expectation of an ordinary teacher to avail of courses or in-service workshop offered to enable the integration of at least one disabled child in his/her class... and the special education team will arrange basic and in-depth in-service for interested or concerned teachers. (p. 21)

Consistent with that analysis of the inclusive education policy, PNG has a range of other powerful government policies and legislation that have staked the inclusive education policy in PNG's education system.

### **2.7.1 Examples of policies that support inclusive education in PNG**

#### **2.7.1.1 Matane's (1986) Philosophy of Education**

Matane's 1986 Philosophy of Education is the key pillar for education reform in PNG. It includes the following main principles: integral human development; equity and participation, national sovereignty and self-reliance in terms of using natural resources in the most sustainable way (Department of Education, 2004a; 2004b). These principles highlight the philosophical goal that education is for all, and all children attending schools in PNG are expected to learn their indigenous values while at the same time developing their academic and career paths.

#### **2.7.1.2 The National Curriculum Statement**

The National Curriculum Statement is an educational policy that has specific outcomes to be achieved at each grade in a particular subject area from Elementary to Grade 12 (Department of Education, 2002). "The National Curriculum Statement outlines that curriculum reform is intended to develop

students who are physically, mentally and spiritually equipped to use the resources within the community to improve their standard of living” (National Research Institute, 2010, p. 2). The document sets out clearly the outcomes of learning areas and demonstrates what skills, knowledge, attitudes and values are to be attained in each subject and grade level by students.

### **2.7.1.3 The PNG National Policy on Disability**

The PNG National Policy on Disability was endorsed by the Department of Community Development in 2009 and is based on the following principles: protecting human rights, inclusiveness, barrier free, partnership and information. The purpose of this policy is to develop a more inclusive society where all persons with disability have equal access to education, training, employment, health care services, rehabilitation services and recreational opportunities so that they can recognise their potential and live as effective members in their community and society (Department for Community Development, 2009).

These policies are designed to assist the implementation of the policy on inclusive education. These policies show that it is clear that the government placed inclusive education firmly on its agenda and that a policy that mandates education for disabled children was not going to go away. That means in the twenty-first century, PNG’s education system was to witness an evolution of inclusive practices supported by the raft of policies.

## **2.8 Summary of the chapter**

This chapter consisted of three sections of literature review that informed the current study. The first part provided a summary of the definition of inclusive education and described the key considerations in inclusive education. The key considerations in inclusive education are: 1) The role of the teacher in inclusive education. (2) Teachers’ attitudes and beliefs in inclusive practices. (3) Curriculum adaptation. (4). Environment adaptation. (5) Teachers’ professional development. The second section provided definitions of policy and inclusive education policy and the processes of implementing a policy. It also provided a summary of four countries: New Zealand, China, Cyprus and Botswana. All have adopted inclusive education policies. Also included in this section is a summary of the role of inclusive education in the wider community. The third section

highlighted the history of special and inclusive education in PNG prior to the adoption of an inclusive education policy through international declarations and agreements. This section also provided a brief insight into PNG's complementary policies that support the present inclusive education policy.

## **CHAPTER THREE: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

### **3.0 Introduction**

This chapter is organized in two parts and explains the theoretical framework that guided the study and the research methodology used to carry out the research. The first part defines and explains Pierre Bourdieu's three conceptual tools of habitus, field and capital that were used as a theoretical framework for examining teachers' views and experiences in implementing inclusive education policy in two regular primary schools in PNG. The theoretical framework illustrates how the combination of habitus-field-capital of Bourdieu can offer a re-imaging epistemological radar to see through the teachers' "lived experiences" (Reed-Danahay, 2005) of practising inclusion in schools by teaching children with disabilities in regular classrooms as required by the PNG government through the inclusive education policy. The second part explains the research methodology used to undertake the research task. This section explains the methodological approaches used for the present study and describes how the field work was practically carried out. The chapter ends with a brief summary.

### **Part One**

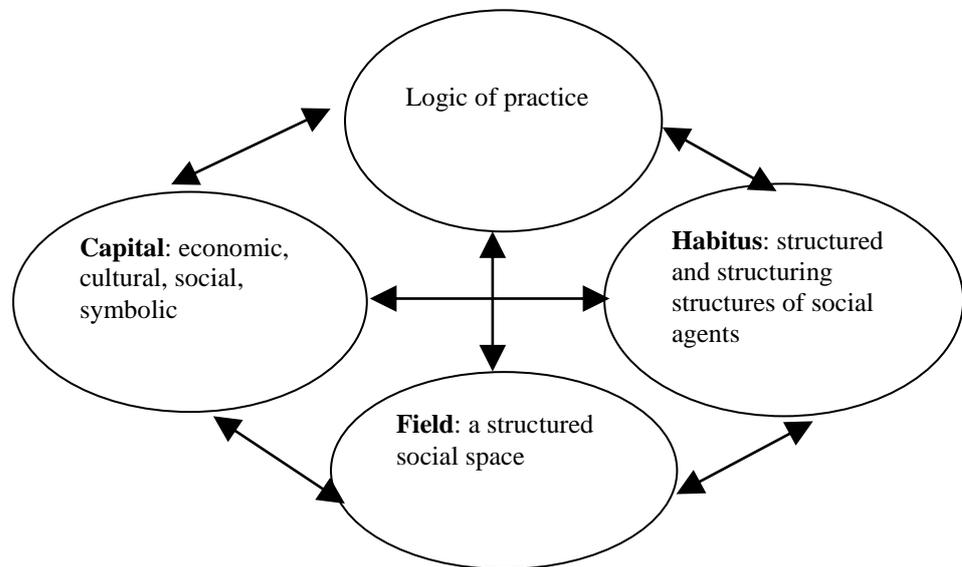
#### **3.1. Theoretical framework**

This study adopted Bourdieu's three conceptual tools of habitus, field and capital as a theoretical framework to guide the research. Pierre Bourdieu uses his three thinking tools of habitus, field and capital to explain the relationship between objective social structures linking from macro structures to micro-level (Bourdieu, 1985; 1990). These include institutions, discourses, fields, ideologies, and everyday practices within the social structures (Harker, Mahar & Wilkes, 1990; Jenkins, 1992; Webb, Schirato & Danaher, 2002; Reed-Danahay, 2005).

I gazed through Bourdieu's three conceptual tools of habitus, field and capital as a lens to reconcile teachers' views and experiences in implementing the inclusive education policy in the primary schools in PNG as they function in the school structure that is a part to the education system. I applied the concepts to analyse teachers' practices of inclusion that differ from the medical model of disability to the social model of disability that is the origin of an inclusive education policy

which encompasses their professional skills and knowledge in inclusive education, and resources that support inclusion and integration in regular schools.

Bourdieu’s conceptual tools are not stand-alone perspectives (Swartz, 2008). Rather, they are one valuable set of tools from his toolbox that represent the “dynamic relationship between the structure and agency within a social practice pointing to the promise and possibility of social change” (Nolan, 2012, p. 203). Jayasinghe and Wickramasinghe (2008) summarises the interdependent relations among the three concepts as:  $practice = (habitus \times capital) + field$  and the trio are not dominant or causal over the other. The inter-dependent relationships of the three concepts adapted in Jayasinghe and Wickramasinghe (2008: 399) are shown in Figure 3 below



*Figure 3: Interdependent relations among Bourdieu’s three concepts, habitus, field and capital.*

By taking a reflexivity stance, the researcher is able to assess the intrinsic correlation between the relationship of habitus, field and capital above; and define the concepts metaphorically on their epistemological basis as to how they provided the theoretical framework for the study.

### 3.1.1 Concept of habitus

Bourdieu conceptualises habitus as “a system of durable, transposable dispositions which functions as the generative basis of structured, objectively unified

practices” (Bourdieu, 1975 cited in Harker, Mahar & Wilkes, 1990, p. 10). That is: “habitus is the dynamic intersection of structure and action, society and the individual” (Calhoun, LiPuma & Postone 1993, p. 4). Habitus includes “attitudes, belief, perceptions and practices all formed through the embodiment of one’s life story” (Nolan, 2011, p. 204). For example, habitus is the pattern of behaviour of individuals and groups and are predictable and long lasting because they follow and create hegemonic social structures (DiGiorgio, 2009).

Habitus operates at different levels in one’s thought and explains how an individual is supposed to behave, think and feel (Nolan, 2011). Webb, Shrirato and Danaher, 2002) explain habitus as:

First, knowledge (the way we understand the world, our beliefs and values) is always constructed through the habitus, rather than passively recorded. Second, we are disposed towards certain attitudes, values or ways of behaving because of the influence exerted by our cultural trajectories. These dispositions are transposable across fields. Third, the habitus is always constituted in moments of practice. It is always of the moment brought out when a set of dispositions meet a particular problem, choice or context ... Finally habitus operates at a level that is at least partly unconscious. (p. 38)

Henceforth, habitus is the output behavior of the thoughts and feelings of individual’s perception of their position within a social structure, which results from their experience of the practices of the structures as they exist in objective and subjective terms (Watson, 2009). However, actions and use of language are whole body expressions but that does not mean these expressions are determined by the person alone. Rather, they are created through and by social interactions and as such people’s natural qualities are created (Bourdieu, 1990).

Habitus can also express the ‘meaning of things’ through providing an explanation of the phenomena that exist in the social structure because of one’s direct involvement in it (Lizardo, 2004; DiGiorgio, 2010). For example, in the case of this study, Bourdieu would suggest that the teachers’ day-to-day direct involvement in the school, while being engaged in the education system, would

recount their habitus:, that is the views they hold and the experiences they have while implementing the inclusive education policy in the school in which they teach. Teachers can use their habitus to describe their everyday practices of inclusion, in the way they chose their teaching strategies, approaches and classroom management to teach children with disabilities in the regular schools. In addition, teachers can use their habitus to classify children with specific disabilities and adapt their teaching strategies and approaches to meet their varying learning needs. For example, teachers classify pupils with hearing difficulties as having learning needs and as such the teacher adapts the lessons to engage all the learners. Such approaches taken by a teacher would maximise the benefit to children with disabilities of being included in a regular classroom. As such, it is assumed that teachers' views and experiences include an unconscious element which is their habitus that would emerge from their narratives as they are a part of the field.

### **3.1.2 Concept of field**

Bourdieu views field is a structured social system occupied by individuals or institutions that has a matrix of power system and correspond to further systems of objective relations (Bourdieu, 1985). It is a term that has a capacity to define the status of the individuals occupying this field, as determined by the power relationships that exists in the field (DiGiorgio, 2011). Field is characterized with things such as schools, institutions, manifestos and political declarations (Bourdieu, 1985; Bourdieu & Passeron, 1990).

Jenkins (1992) further elaborates on field as:

A network, or a configuration, of objective relations between positions objectively defined, in their existence and in the determinations they impose upon their occupants, agents, institutions, by their present and potential situation ... in the structure of the distribution of power (capital) whose possession commands access to the specific profits that are at stake in the field as well as their objective relation to other positions. (p. 85)

However, the positions held by occupants in the field also define who they are and their positions and in turn impose upon other occupants, agents and institutions. For example:

Education policy makers are accountable to parliament and the general public. They are under pressure to maintain or improve the quality of education, implement innovation and to control expenditure. Their means to influence practice in schools basically consists of legislation, regulation, funding and the inspectorate. These means can be useful to fulfill necessary conditions for inclusive education, like clear policy statements, removing special education legislation, re-organizing funding, setting up support structures and empowering parents (Pijl & Frissen, 2009, p. 372).

In a field, occupants produce practices and compete with one another to develop capacities (Rawolle & Lingard, 2008). In this capacity, Bourdieu's use of field explains that inclusive education policy development was instigated by governments worldwide by perceiving education as a human right. Each country took on the responsibility of developing an inclusive education policy that will mandate their disabled children to receive education alongside their peers in a regular educational setting. Policy in each country is distinctive insofar as it also conveys something of the uniqueness of each country's approach. Furthermore, the concept of field is clarified by (Harker et al, 1990) as:

One can image society as a sort of system of fields so you must think as a system and relationships. This system of field (within the social space) is really an integral field and how action (practice) is a product of history and field which is also a product of history, and as the same a product of the field of forces. (p. 36)

In this sense, the concept of field explains that inclusive education policy was a product of history, from the struggles of disabled people to gain recognition to participate in all aspects of life. Their voices came to the attention of the wider global community which, in turn, stimulated the idea for inclusion in education.

Bourdieu would view that the idea about inclusion in education was agreed to by the global community. In turn, each country participating in this aspect of the global community developed a policy through their department of education and tasked the teaching profession with auctioning the policy at school and class level. An example, Acedo (2008) highlights the key point at the International Conference on Education (ICE) held in Geneva in November, 2008 as:

This year, the conference gathers ministers of education and other stakeholders from the whole world into a dialogue on inclusive education policy implications and challenges in various contexts and all levels and forms of education. The key challenge is to build more inclusive, just and equitable societies by developing quality education systems that are more inclusive and responsive to the tremendous diversity of people's learning needs throughout life. (p. 5)

This statement implies that the formulation of the inclusive policy and analysing it goes beyond the government terrain and includes the discursive fields that inform inclusive education policies (Liasidou, 2008). In this scenario, it can be seen that the school environment where the teachers are teaching is the smaller field and the school is part of the outer field which is the education system and government. Hence, in order for teachers to be part of the field of the school environment, they are required to have capital.

### **3.1.3 Concept of capital**

The concept of capital is defined as power resources in arenas of struggle ... not only material but a wide variety of power resources" (Swartz, 2008, p. 48). Berling (2012) writes that "capital functions as a social relation of power because it needs to be recognised as authority in a specific field in order to be valuable" (p. 455). Capital acts as "the medium of communication between field and habitus and of the ontological complicity that exists between them" (Bourdieu, 1982 cited in Grenfell, 2009, p.19). In other words, the quantity of capital decides an individual's power and status in a particular field. For example, "in the intellectual field, you must have a special, specific capital, authority, prestige and so on" (Harker et al, 1990, p. 36).

According to Bourdieu (1985), there are four types of capital, “these are principally, economic capital (in its different kinds), cultural capital and social capital, as well as symbolic capital commonly called prestige, reputation, renown, etc., which the different forms of capital are perceived and recognised as legitimate” (p. 197). The types of capital overlap as they manifest in different ways (DiGiorgio, 2009; Grenfell, 2009; 2010). “Each type of capital may present itself in concrete material or symbolic form, and specific fields determine its value at particular times” (DiGiorgio, 2009, p. 182).

Economic capital represents wealth such as monetary units (Berling, 2012) and “most typically connoted money or financial resources” (Emirbayer & Johnson, 2008, p. 3). For example, economic capital can determine the type of teaching resources and facilities, including the architectural setting of the school environment, to influence inclusive education. DiGiorgio (2009) maintains, “economic capital is important at the school level as ... public schools are required to provide services for students with special needs, but individual schools are more or less able to do this according to their resources” (p. 182). This means resources and facilities to influence inclusive education cannot exist without sufficient money. In other words, inclusive education can work when there are sufficient resources and facilities to support children with disabilities’ learning in the school so they may better receive their education.

Cultural capital represents non-financial asset beyond the economic means that individuals have which identify their status within a given social space (Reed-Danahay, 2005). “Bourdieu uses the word cultural capital to represent resources that people accumulate and exchange in order to maintain their positions of power within a field of society” (DiGiorgio, 2009, p. 181). Examples of cultural capital include external markers such as educational qualification, prestige, skills and authority (Webb et al., 2002). Cultural capital acts as a mechanism to confer power to individuals who inhabit a social system (Harker et al., 1990). Hence, “the main principle behind the concept of cultural capital then, it embodies or transmits the logic of practice of the field in a way that differentiates and therefore establishes hierarchies” (Grenfell, 2009 p. 20).

There are also three subtitles of cultural capital: embodied, objectified and institutionalised. Embodied cultural capital represents one's features that identify that person from one's habitus not only by deliberate labeling but also passively, from the family and the cultural norms and practices (Emirbayer & Johnson, 2008). Embodied cultural capital is linguistic capital because linguistically one's feature is attached to a certain name that people believe (Hurtado, 2010). For example, a boy born with hearing impairment is called a "deaf boy" because of the language system in a culture that determines the name attached to the loss of a sense in his body. Hence, in the inclusive classroom, the boy's learning is crucial as it depends on the teacher to understand completely the difference between the boy's lack of ability to hear and his learning and intellectual ability.

Objectified cultural capital on the other hand denotes that the volume of physical objects one has determines that person to procure greater advantage in that particular field (Emirbrayer & Johnson, 2008). For example, the amount of teaching resources provided in the regular school can aid the teachers to teach children with disabilities effectively. Institutional cultural capital consists of institutional recognition, such as a qualification (e.g., Bachelor of Education) that represents the amount of skills and knowledge held by a person in order to claim his or her position in the field (DiGiorgio, 2009). For example, a teacher's professional capacity in terms of having competence, skills and knowledge in inclusive teaching can teach children with disabilities effectively, achieving the goals of the inclusive education policy.

According to Bourdieu (1999), "symbolic capital is the capital of recognition accumulated in the course of the whole history of prior struggle (thus very strongly correlated to seniority), that enables one to intervene effectively in current struggles for the conservation or augmentation of symbolic capital, that is, for the power of nomination and of imposition of the legitimate principle of vision and division, universally recognized in a determinate social space" (p. 337). In other words, "there are two elements in the concept of social capital: one, the relationship of itself that allows individuals to claim access to resources possessed by other members of the network: two, the amount and quality of those resources"

(Rostila, 2010, p. 308). In this sense, social capital is linked in possession an individual has to have in order to be a member of a network so that collectively members of the network can mutually make sense of the world (Grenfell, 2009). For example, all teachers' need to be aware of the inclusive education policy and the role it encompasses so that mutually they can implement the policy at the school level with the common vision.

Further, symbolic capital denotes symbols of status that are recognised by others to give an individual a status (DiGiorgio, 2009). For instance, symbolic capital represents an individual in terms of his or her title, fame (being famous) or being in possession of a material that gives that person a status (Grenfell, 2009). The nature of symbolic capital within the terms of reference of this research can be seen as teachers' qualifications, which give them the professional status to occupy the field, which is the school, to implement the inclusive education policy with practices of inclusion at the school level. Symbolic capital in this instance is influenced by the inclusive practical skills portrayed by the teacher to meet the diverse learning needs of children with disabilities (Florian, 2008). In a way, social capital "is the ability of actors to secure benefits by virtue of membership in networks and other social structures" (Portes, 1998, cited in Rostila, 2010, p. 310).

In the next section, how Bourdieu's three conceptual lenses discussed so far had been methodologically applied to the research is presented.

## **Part Two**

### **3.2 Research methodology**

#### **3.2.1 Research paradigm**

The researcher sought a research paradigm that would be consistent with Bourdieu's approach to provide an in-depth understanding of factors that facilitated or constrained the implementation of inclusive education policy in PNG through the views and experiences of teachers as frontline implementers. Qualitative research methodology was desired as it was deemed the appropriate research paradigm because it has the advantage of employing an inductive research strategy that can facilitate such understanding between the causal relationships of variables that emerge in the study (Cohen, Manion & Morrison &

2007). The qualitative research methodology correlates with an inductive approach as it is a systematic procedure for analysing qualitative data in which the analysis is likely to be guided by specific evaluation objectives” (Thomas, 2006, p. 283). These include when teachers view their experiences (habitus) regarding their professional skills and knowledge (capital) and their work to promote children with disabilities’ education through implementing inclusive education policy in the two primary schools (field).

In addition, qualitative research methodology “is primarily concerned with understanding human beings’ experience in a humanistic, interpretative approach” (Jackson, Drummond & Camara, 2007, p. 21) and its approaches are “concerned with the ethics, politics and power differentials existing within research contexts” (Guba & Lincoln, 2005, 2011, p. 456). The inductive approach fits with the qualitative research methodology because “a qualitative researcher relies on the participants to offer in-depth responses to questions about how they have constructed or understood their experiences” (Jackson et al. 2007, p. 23). The qualitative research methodology is relevant because it provides the parameter for the participants’ perspective to generate in-depth understanding of the factors that constituted a successful or failed implementation of an inclusive education policy in PNG. In order to gauge the participants’ personal views and experiences to understand how policy implementation takes place under their role as teachers, phenomenological approach was taken (Lincoln, 2009).

### **3.2.2 Research design**

A phenomenological approach relates to the nature of inquiry to search for truth and understanding from a person experiencing certain things that occur in their everyday world (Cohen et al., 2007). In other words, it is an inside approach used by a researcher to gain information from the lived experience of a person in the particular phenomena under study (Donmoyer, 2006; Denscombe, 2007). A phenomenological approach is often used for co-operative researcher-participant relationships such as in an open-ended dialogue in a focus group (Luttrell, 2010). This allows a researcher entrance to a participant’s world and to access information from their lived experience (Denscombe, 2007).

The phenomenological approach was taken for this study in the belief that policy implementation is a complex process that requires construction and reconstruction by those who have the responsibility to implement it. Their experience is crucial for understanding the underlying factors that affect policy implementation processes (Souto-Otero, 2011). As Johnson (2009) notes: “the main emphasis of phenomenological work is the viewpoint of the experiencing person in regards to specific situations occurring in their everyday world” (p. 24). Such an approach is congruent to the bottom-up analysis where the implementers at the base level of the power distribution structure provide feedback upwards to the authority who has formulated the policy (Fitz, 2001). That means a bottom-up analysis is applicable for analysing the factors relating to policy objectives affecting persons in the base level power structure in their efforts to implement the policy. The researcher believes the research paradigm and design she used could elicit factors that need to be analysed so that children with disabilities’ right to education is maintained through the inclusive education policy.

However, it is worth mentioning the assumptions the researcher had which led to formulating the research topic, framing the research questions, and deciding the theoretical framework, research methodology and how the findings can be analysed. The first assumption was that policy implementation is a very complex process, best understood by exploring the perspectives of participants engaged to implement it (Liasidou, 2008). The second assumption was that effective policy implementation is not only facilitated by clear policy goals and statements but requires effective communication and interaction between local level (teachers), political level (government, education minister) and the context of EFA and UPE (Vlachou, 2004; Dyson & Gallannaugh, 2007). These assumptions were thought to be best answered by the following research questions re-capped from Chapter 1 point 1.4.1.

### **3.2.3 The research questions**

1. What are teachers’ understandings of the inclusive education policy?
2. How are teachers implementing the inclusive education policy?
3. What are teachers’ thoughts about professional development opportunities in relation to developing inclusive education practices in line with the policy?

#### 4. How do teachers report on their inclusive education practices?

### **3.3 Triangulation and data gathering methods**

#### **3.3.1 Triangulation**

In order to establish triangulation, focus group discussion using a semi-structured interview and individual follow-up interview tools was used to generate data for the phenomena under study (see Tables 1 and 2 below). Focus group discussions were the primary data gathering method and an individual follow-up interview was sought to provide supplementary data to enrich the overall data collection process. Data gathered in the focus group were conducted using previously prepared interview questions (Appendix 10). A semi-structured interview technique was employed in the focus group discussion as it has the nature to give participants flexibility and freedom to express opinions or to criticise others' views while giving the researcher time to maneuver with probing questions (Cohen et al., 2007).

#### **3.3.2 Focus group interviews**

Focus groups refer to a group of participants who can generate information on the topic provided by the researcher through interacting and communicating (Cohen et al., 2007). Data emerges as participants discuss the topic amongst themselves, helped by prompts introduced by the researcher to them (Burton & Bartlett, 2005). In this way, participants bring their views to the surface while the researcher listens. By using this method, a more collective view of the inquiry is retrieved. Terrell (2011) pointed out that “in a focus group the researcher relies on visual and verbal cues to begin to establish rapport between the participants” (p. 2). Observing these cues gives the researcher a chance to also think about what information is omitted so an alternative avenue can be sought to expose any omissions. A way to bring out the withheld information is through an individual follow-up interview.

#### **3.3.3 Individual follow-up interview**

The individual follow-up interview was considered as a supplementary data generating technique in order to maintain and enhance triangulation. This approach was sought for the purpose of retrieving information that might have been held back by participants during open discussions in the focus group setting.

It was also used as an approach to protect participants where they could not discuss something sensitive in the presence of their colleagues.

### 3.3.4 Tables showing participants' involvement in the study

Tables 1 and 2 below show School A and B participants' involvement in focus group discussions and individual follow-up interviews.

Table 1  
*School A: Nature of participants' involvement in the research*

Participants	School A	Focus group interview	Follow-up interview
Teacher 1	✓	✓	
Teacher 2	✓	✓	
Teacher 3	✓	✓	✓
Teacher 4	✓	✓	
Teacher 5	✓	✓	✓
Teacher 6	✓	✓	

Table 1 show that a total of six teachers participated in focus group interviews followed by two participants who were involved in individual follow-up interviews.

Table 2  
*School B: Nature of participants' involvement in the research*

Participants	School B	Focus group interview	Individual follow-up interview
Teacher 1	✓	✓	
Teacher 2	✓	✓	
Teacher 3	✓	✓	
Teacher 4	✓	✓	
Teacher 5	✓	✓	
Teacher 6	✓	✓	✓

Table 2 shows that in school B six participants took part in focus group interviews and one participant responded to an individual follow-up interview.

### **3.4 Context**

Two urban regular primary schools were chosen for the study. The selected schools are in Port Moresby, the capital city of PNG and they are labeled as “School A” and “School B”. These schools were selected for the study because of their large student enrolment and full quota of staff. Both schools include grades 3 to 8 and are regarded as primary schools according to the education reform structure (Appendix H). These schools were considered for the study because of their proximity to the head offices for the Department of Education as well their existence in the nation’s capital city. It was considered that staff there would be more informed about the topic under investigation.

### **3.5 Participants**

Participants in this study comprised twelve teachers, with six in each school forming a focus group representing all grades across the school. The participants selected had some teachers who had been teaching prior to the 1993 policy development and some started teaching after. This balance in the category of selecting participants was thought to achieve a small but useful sample.

### **3.6 Ethical consideration**

Ethical consideration as defined by Cohen et al. (2007) is a way of being sensitive to and considering the rights, duties and responsibility of individuals who are participating in a research study in terms of their status, religion, race, ability and age. Ethics include how to show respect for the key aspects of the human character. For instance, ethics is moral principles or rules of conduct where human beings can judge their actions as either right or wrong or good or bad when they intend to do something (Denscombe (2002). An ethical approach is a demand for social justice when considering participants as individuals, and when working in their best interests related to the consequences and the impact of participatory research methods on the participants concerned (Barbour, 2008). When the ethical consequences for participants are not considered by researchers they may bring personal or professional risks to themselves or their participants. Cohen et al. (2007) also stress that ethical consideration is “the way to protect the well-being of participants from any harm or danger that would affect them whether physically or psychologically as a consequence of the interview” (p. 382). The

three main areas of ethics concerned in an interview research method are outlined by Lankshear and Knobel (2004) as informed consent, confidentiality and consequences of the interviews.

### **3.6.1 Informed consent**

According to Luttrell, (2010), “ the concept of informed consent assumes the transparency of a social and psychological reality that enables a researcher to provide full and accurate information about the research to autonomous subjects who are able to make rational and informed choices” (p. 128). Informed consent is part of the protocol of the research process (Lankshear & Knobel, 2004). For example, the participants’ consent form for this research is attached (Appendix 9). Researchers have to make sure “participants have adequate information regarding the research, are capable of comprehending the information and have the power of free choice enabling them to consent to or decline participation in the research voluntarily” (Wendy, 2007, p. 40). The researcher has to make known to the participants all possible dangers and consequences likely to be involved in the research process. It is important to make it known to participants because “any study that is predicted to cause lasting or serious harm and discomfort to any participant should not be done unless the research has the potential to provide information of great benefit to human beings” (Wallen & Fraenkel, 2001, p. 23).

### **3.6.2 Confidentiality**

Confidentiality is relates to the researcher’s responsibility to give assurance to the participant and the way to keep secret the origin of information (Wendy, 2007). This is achieved through the researcher promising the participant that what has been discussed will be anonymous (Denscombe, 2007). For example, for this research the researcher provided a participant information sheet highlighting confidentiality (Appendix 7). The researcher has to guarantee the participant that they will reduce the chances of their participants being traced through the data (Rings, 2000). However, in a face-to-face group interview, the degree of anonymity will be reduced because of the nature of the open discussion (Wendy, 2007). That does not mean the researcher has to give participants’ confidentiality away. Rather, it means she has to protect the data so that no one is able to identify the source of any sensitive comments made in the data.

### **3.6.3 Consequences**

Consequences in research are sensitive issues in the research processes both with participants and data (Cohen et al., 2007). Participants have to be protected because when sensitive issues have been revealed, others who read the research findings may want to know the source of the information. For that matter, the researcher was aware of consequences the research might cause and provided a participant information letter (Appendix 7) and participant invitation sheet (Appendix 8), to both with a clear emphasis on voluntary participation. Any researcher has to be mindful to present the data in neutral text (Lankshear & Knobel, 2004). This means, that some parts of the data may contain information that needs to be held back because of security for the participants. To get past this dilemma, Cohen et al. (2007) propose that researchers bear in mind such questions as: “Who will read my results of my research?” and try to write up results that will not readily identify individual participants.

### **3.6.4 Melanesian context**

In the Melanesian context, doing research by female researcher possess few risks. Risks include the female gender status towards male participants. It is quite the norm for both men and women to have reservations about approaching a member of the opposite gender. So for this reason, the researcher was mindful of the context in which she was to conduct her research and the manner of approach to her participants. The researcher was aware that both the focus group interviews and individual follow-up interviews did not pose a threat to herself nor to her participants.

### 3.6.5 Research stages

Figure 4 below shows the initial stages of the research

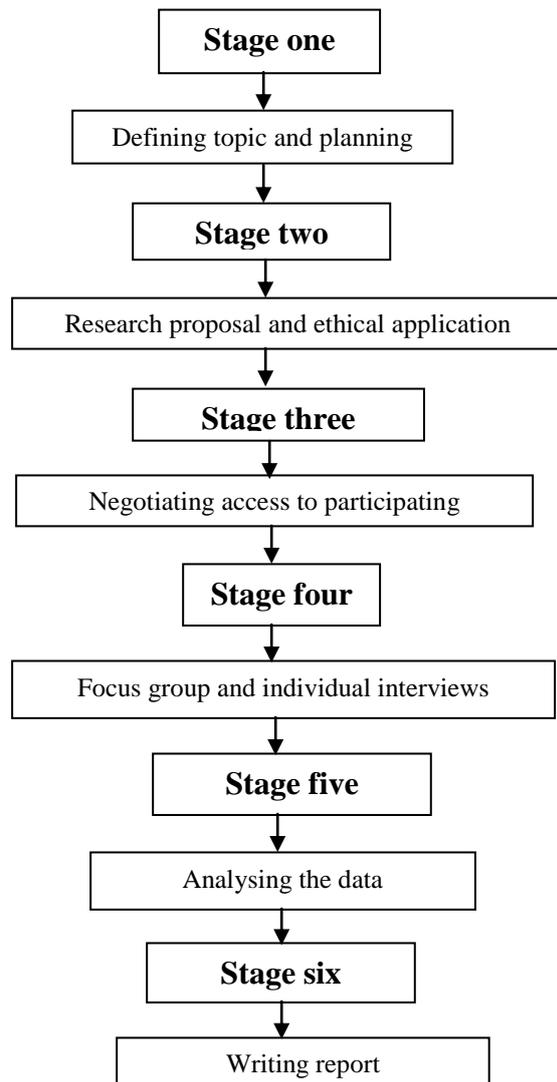


Figure 4: Research stages

### 3.6.6 Ethical approval for the study

Ethical approval for this study was granted through the University of Waikato's Education Faculty Research Ethics Committee (Appendix 1). The research application was rejected once by the ethics committee and returned for corrections to be made to the content of the research proposal. The ethics committee's refusal to accept my proposal in the first instance was because of the evidence of sensitive issues appearing in the content of my ethics application. The ethics committee has strict regulations and protocols to uphold before giving me the

consent to go about with my research. The research ethical application was approved on the basis that I provided thoughtful consideration of the steps and procedures I intended to take when I carried out the research. The strict and careful assessment of my ethics application by the ethics committee was not only the protocol for any proposed research but it is a way to ensure that I am not putting my host university or myself at potential risk.

### **3.7 Quality of research**

#### **3.7.1 Sampling**

Sampling refers to the size of the population chosen for the study and how the population represents the variables to the actual research, so that reliability and validity can be achieved when the data is analysed (Cohen et al., 2007). In order to yield a true picture of the phenomena under study, sampling resembles what is likely to be revealed from the research. That means, the number of people selected for gathering data is not what matters but it is the kinds of relationship the chosen sample have that will generate the desired data.

#### **3.7.2 Reliability**

Reliability is referred to as whether what has been recorded as data by the researcher fits well with what actually happens in the real world of the participant (Cohen et al., 2007). In other words, it is a comprehensive coverage of the phenomena where the data does not mismatch the occurrences in the research arena. Such data would be invalid.

#### **3.7.3 Validity**

Validity is defined in Cohen et al. (2007, p.133) as criteria that is used to measure trustworthiness and credibility of the facts drawn from the research instruments. Validity in research is achieved when the questions are agreeing with responses (Denscombe, 2007). Validity of the data can be achieved through honesty, richness and approaches by the interviewers within the objective of the research (Lodico, Spaulding & Voegtler, 2006).

#### **3.7.4 Qualitative data analysis**

Qualitative data analysis involves organising and accounting for and explaining the data that make sense with the terms of the participants by recognising the

patterns, themes and categories (Cohen et al., 2007). This involves connecting selected words, phrases, sentences and whole paragraphs without distorting the meaning from the participants' own voices to form themes (Petrie, 2012). It is important for the researcher to bear in mind that the connection of the phrases and the interpretation of the qualitative data fits the intended purpose of the research (Cohen, et al, 2007).

In the current research, the data collected from the focus group discussions and follow-up individual interviews was transcribed verbatim. The researcher analysed the data by putting together the sentences with the similar phrase and words to form a theme.

### **3.8 Summary of the chapter**

This chapter formed two parts presenting the theoretical framework that guided the research and the research methodology. The first part presented the theoretical framework by which Pierre Bourdieu's three thinking tools, habitus, field and cultural capital, explained the relationship between objective social structures, linking from macro structures to micro-level processes that include institutions, discourses, fields, ideologies, and everyday practices within the social structures. These concepts explained that inclusive education policy is a complex process and those teachers who are implementers at the school level are professionally knowledge able about educating disabled children and at the same time they are engaged in the education system which is embedded in another social structure. These concepts also explain that the education system is part of the government system and the government is obliged to fulfill its commitment to formulate a policy on inclusion education in keeping with global commitments to the vision of providing education for all children

The second part provided the research methodology by which the research was done, using the qualitative research methodology. This section mentioned the research design, such as the phenomenological approach, along with the research method of focus group discussion and individual follow-up interview to achieve triangulation. It also pointed out the importance of ethical protocols and research quality such as achieving validity and reliability in research while ending with qualitative data analysis.

## **CHAPTER FOUR: FINDINGS**

### **4.0 Introduction**

This chapter presents the findings of the study. The findings emerged through data generated from conversations with twelve teachers who were involved in two focus groups and two individual follow-up interviews about their views and experiences of implementing inclusive education policy in two urban primary schools in PNG. The approach to data collection was guided by Bourdieu's three conceptual lenses of habitus, field and capital. This theory attempted to uncover the teachers' "lived experience" (Reed-Danahay, 2005), especially in their professional practice regarding implementing the educational policy as being part of the school and education system network (Rawolle & Lingard, 2008). Bourdieu's three concepts of habitus, field and capital helped frame the data analysis when each concept was used metaphorically and conceptualised in the following ways. First, habitus can be conceptualised as teachers' practices, experiences, and beliefs and attitudes in relation to their perspectives on disability and inclusion. Second, the term field can be conceptualised as referring to the school setting and its structure that is part of the structure of the education system network of which teachers are a part. The third concept is capital (economic, cultural, social and symbolic) which can be conceptualised as teachers' professional skills and knowledge on inclusion, along with financial resources and facilities, the vital elements that enable teachers to be part of the network of the school and education system and implement the inclusive education policy (Grenfell, 2009; 2010).

Four major themes emerged through a qualitative analysis of teachers' comments. The first theme that emerged was teachers' awareness of, and accessibility to, the NSEPPG document which is the inclusive education policy. This theme also included teachers' general knowledge about the concept of inclusive education. The second theme emerged as teachers' perspectives on practising inclusion when working with disabled children in their class. This theme also highlights teachers' views on having disabled children in their class and the barriers that were there to working with children with special needs. The third theme that came out of the data was teachers' professional development in inclusive education in terms of

their training and practices attained from pre-service and in-service programmes. The fourth theme emerging covered teachers' assessment practices and reporting of inclusive education.

The four themes are presented using brief excerpts narrated by the participants. The participants' excerpts are presented in symbolic form such as "SA/T1" means "school A teacher 1" and "SB/T1" is "school B teacher 1". These symbols represent six participants from each school's verbatim.

#### **4.1 Teachers' awareness of the NSEPPG and the concept of inclusive education**

The researcher asked the opening question of the study in relation to teachers' awareness of the NSEPPG and the concept of inclusive education. This question was asked in the beginning for the purpose of establishing a connection with what participants already knew, and the relationship of this knowledge to what the researcher intended to ask in later questions.

##### **4.1.1 Teachers' awareness of the NSEPPG**

While an inclusive education policy carries the message that teachers are required to integrate children with disability in the regular classroom (Kearney & Kane, 2006; Wearmouth et al., 2006), all participants responded that they were unaware of the existence of NSEPPG. In Bourdieu's lens, the NSEPPG is represented as a form of symbolic capital in which teachers are evaluated against implementing the government policy (Grenfell, 2009). When teachers revealed that they were unaware of the policy, and had not seen it, their responses were immediately noted as a considerable lack of symbolic capital that would hinder the development of any inclusive practices. Teachers were amused at the sight of the NSEPPG when the researcher held out the document to them and said that they would have seen the document if it had reached them earlier. The participants stated that they had not seen, touched nor felt the inclusive education policy in their entire teaching career. As one participant who taught in the same school for twenty years said:

SA/T6      It is my twentieth year of teaching in the same school and  
I have not seen the document until now.

The above participant's response suggested that two decades have lapsed without frontline implementers of the policy catching a glimpse of it. The participants felt strongly that it was a requirement for them to see the original document. All of the teachers expressed concern at the time it is taking for them to know of the existence of inclusive education policy. This can be seen in the words of a School B participant as:

SB/T1 I have not seen the inclusive education policy document of our country. May it's on the way or I do not know.

The researcher prompted: "What do you mean it's on the way?"

SB/T1 I mean it should be somewhere in the pipeline trying to get to us. [laughter]

The response from the above participant stirred laughter in this focus group. It implied to the researcher that, in her culture, such laughter from an open discussion is a way of teasing someone or laughing at what someone is saying. It implied to the researcher that the laughter was on the topic under discussion, not about her. I understood my participants' laughter completely; it was their way of commenting on the non-delivery of the policy document to them even though they were teaching in schools located in the nation's capital city. Delivering policy to policy implementers such as these teachers should not be a problem. The laughter indicated to me that teachers' were more amused than surprised at how long an important educational policy is taking to reach such front line implementers as themselves.

Participants linked their lack of awareness of the NSEPPG to those who were superior to them in the hierarchical structure both at the school level and the education system. Those people had failed in their responsibility to issuing the policy to the teachers. This view can be seen in the words of SA/T5 below:

SA/T5 I think those people above us lacked their responsibility to bring the policy to us. When I saw your letter, I actually went to the Deputy Principal and asked for the

NSEPPG document if it was in the office but the Principal said we do not have a copy of the inclusive education policy in the office.

The above response reflected who teachers thought were in the line of duty to issue them the NSEPPG. This tended to show that the policy document did not reach the school level through the higher order of the school hierarchy, such as the Principal. Teachers' responses indicated that the legitimate document that the PNG government used as a tool to support inclusion education by merging special education with regular school and curricular (Kearney & Kane, 2006) is yet to land in the hands of the front line implementers.

While NSEPPG can be seen as a symbolic capital by Bourdieu, the fact that teachers lacked access to this educational policy while occupying the school structure reflected wider difficulties in the education system structure (Grenfell, 2009). When teachers have no understanding of the existence of the inclusive education policy, they may not understand inclusive education and their role as inclusion teachers (Naukkarinen, 2010).

#### **4.1.2 Teachers' general knowledge of the concept of inclusive education**

When participants were asked to explain their general knowledge of the concept of inclusive education, they expressed a variety of opinions. However, in general they held what can be seen to be limited rather than wide-ranging views on inclusive education. This is an excerpt from one participant.

SA/T2        I do not know much about the concept of inclusive education but a bit of knowledge I have is that the concept is related to disabled children's education.

The above expression illustrated that teachers understood inclusive as education for children with disability but without the features that compose inclusive education (Acedo, 2008). Some participants seemed to lack understanding of the difference between the concepts "special education" and "inclusive education". The teachers seemed to view "special" and "inclusive" education as similar. Inclusive education was a contested term (Florian, 2008) as participants lacked

knowledge that “special” and “inclusive” were now integrated terms (Ghergut, 2012). This comment was taken from a School B participant:

SB/T2 I think inclusive education is special education and it means special school for handicapped children such as those in Hohola Special School.

This participant attempted to give a simple explanation of understanding the concept of inclusive education in her experience by naming a local special school known to her as Hohola Special School. This shows that the participant viewed inclusive education through the medical model of disability when she used the older terms “special education” and “handicapped” (Wendell, 1996). These teachers did not seem to appreciate that special education has been altered to inclusive education by applying the social model of disability in which children with disability are no longer called handicapped (Terzi, 2004). This implies that, in Bourdieu’s lens of cultural linguistic capital (Hurtado, 2010) in relation to teachers’ views, the terms “special education” and “handicapped” as applied to inclusive education remained fixed in medical model views (Fisher & Goodley, 2007). The participants tended to regard inclusive education as a segregated education, like the medical model viewed when they mentioned the local special school (Wendell, 1996), rather than seeing it as a regular education that aims to increase the capacity of schools to respond to diversity (Booth & Ainscow, 2002; Kearney & Kane, 2006).

However, some participants recounted their understanding of inclusive education by labelling children with special needs to the impairments they had. Below is an example of one participant using her local language to explain what inclusive education meant to her, by referring to the impairments that children had (Fisher & Goodley, 2007).

SA/T6 Mi save ting inclusive education em blong skull ol iao pas na ai pas pikinini lo skul blong mipla (I think inclusive education is to educate children with vision and hearing problems in our schools).

The above comment indicated that understanding of inclusive education is influenced by the local language which holds names for impairments. This showed that a participant's habitus, linked to embodied cultural capital when a name is given to the loss of senses on children's bodies, describes inclusive education (Hurtado, 2010). That showed teachers were viewing inclusive education according to how their culture and language defined it. Inclusive education in that sense was conceived by teachers differently from the social model of disability which aims to take away the names that society and the culture attach to a child's impairment (Fisher & Goodley, 2007).

On the other hand, some participants had some knowledge of the concept of inclusive education although only a handful was certain about the concept. A response of certainty as expressed by a participant is seen below.

SA/T1            Yes, inclusive education is to teach disabled children in the same classroom with other normal children.

This participant's awareness of inclusive education arose from exposure to sources that disseminated the knowledge of inclusive education.

#### **4.1.3 Where teachers learned of inclusive education**

Participants were asked to respond to the question: "Where did you learn of the concept of inclusive education?" Participants who underwent teacher training in recent years responded that they learned the concept at Teachers' College. One participant offered this response.

SA/T3            I think we did one or two units on inclusive education in the college and that's where I learned it. But now it is my third year of teaching but I have not discussed these words with my colleagues or Principal.

The response above indicated that teachers learned of inclusive education, their symbolic capital, during teacher training but the concept was not expanded while they were in the school field (Grenfell, 2009). The concept did not expand in the school field for teachers who already learned of it from their training because not

all teachers in the school had a similar opportunity to learn about inclusive education. Some teachers learned about inclusive education as a unit to upgrade their qualification from certificate to diploma at Papua New Guinea Education Institute (PNGEI), a national institution that specifically offers training for both pre-service and in-service teachers. One teacher made the following statement.

SB/T4        I attended PNGEI to upgrade my certificate to diploma and took one paper on inclusive education and that's where I learned the concept.

This statement indicated that teachers learned inclusive education as a single unit at PNGEI as a requirement for a certificate that gave them opportunity to be exposed to the term. The teachers who were attending PNGEI to enhance their qualification were the ones who passed out of Teachers' College before the inception of the NSEPPG.

Some participants' knowledge on inclusive education was learned incidentally from others. These participants said that they picked up the meaning of the concept from their colleagues and friends during open discussions. An example is:

SB/T2        I think it was my colleagues who attended PNGEI told me that there is a course called inclusive education offered for teachers to learn how to teach disabled children in the schools.

This response showed that only those teachers who attended PNGEI were able to tell their colleagues about the new concept. However, inclusive education was seen as a concept that was hard to describe. Most participants mentioned a limited understanding of the concept. The teacher with over 20 years of teaching experience indicated she learnt of inclusive education only indirectly.

SA/T6        I have heard of inclusive education from rumours only because I am an old time. [Laughter]

Laughter erupted at this participant's comment when teachers heard how a teacher who taught for twenty years has learned of inclusive education from rumour only. Teachers' laughter suggested their expectation that the longer a teacher teaches, the more awareness they should have of the concept rather than hearing of it as a rumour.

Teachers' responses discussed so far in this section depicted how teachers were cognisant of the meaning of the concept of inclusive education without seeing or hearing of the policy document. The results showed that teachers who resumed teaching before the inception of the NSEPPG learned the concept from a series of terms that contributed to the current concept of inclusive. Teachers who attended Teachers' College after the inception of the policy took some inclusive education courses where they learned of the concept. All the participants seemed to be aware of the basis of inclusive education.

## **4.2 Inclusion practices in schools**

Teachers were asked to share their experiences on inclusion practices in the schools in relation to how disabled children are enrolled in their schools and how they work with disabled children in their classes.

### **4.2.1 Enrolment of disabled children in regular classrooms**

The participants expressed the view that they did not have responsibility for enrolling students in their school. Participants pointed out that their role did not extend beyond teaching lessons to children in the classroom. They articulated that enrolment is done by the Principal of the school. As one participant stated:

SAT6            I have no power to enroll students in the school. Children with disabilities are enrolled by the school Principal. Parents enroll their children with disability through the Principal.

This response showed that disabled children's access to education was sought by their parents through the head of the school. It seemed that the work of the school Principal was to enrol disabled children to school. Some participants said that

disabled children's enrolment in school became obvious when they saw children with physical impairment present in the schools. Those teachers having pupils with physical impairment admitted having them in their class. Teachers who did not have pupils with physical impairments in their classes made reference to their colleagues' classes. One participant commented:

SA/T1        There are two disabled children in a Grade 4 class, one having hearing problem and other speaking difficulty. I think it is the Principal who enrolled them.

It is apparent from the above response that teachers were seeing children with physical impairment in the schools. This indicated that the school Principal enrolled disabled children and teachers' habitus of working with disabled children in the class depended on the number present.

However, all the teachers responded that, apart from visually seeing children with physical disability in the schools, there were children who had some degree of special needs present silently in their classes. Teachers explained that disabled children were silently in their classes and they learned of their condition only through correcting their activities and tests. One participant stated:

SA/T6        There are at least some students with slight hearing and visual problems in my class. Children with special educational needs are silently present in our classes and that is the fact that no teacher can deny.

This response implied that teachers' habitus of having children with special needs in the classroom was inevitable in PNG schools. Teachers confronted the reality of the presence of children with special needs in their class when they saw their pupils' poor test results and work book activities. Special needs children's passive learning in the classrooms was partly because traditionally in PNG, they are often seen as individuals who are not fit to attend school (Mapsea, 2006). It implied to the teachers that children with special needs became passive learners in their class to avoid discrimination and stigmatisation from the embodied capital of traditional

PNG societies' views on disability (Hurtado, 2010). Once the participants articulated that the presence of children with special needs in their class is something they cannot avoid, they were asked to respond to the issue of how they practiced inclusion to teach those children. How teachers responded to this question is covered in the next section.

#### **4.2. 2 Teachers' perception of inclusive practices**

“Inclusion is regarded as a process where systemic barriers to learning and participation are reduced” (Avramidis & Wilde, 2009, p. 324). All the teachers said that their inclusion practices came with a number of substantial challenges regarding teaching children with special needs in the schools (Ainscow, 2012). They thought that to be a successful inclusion teacher, required their whole model of habitus in practice (Jordan et al, 2009) along with their skills which are a significant aspect of their cultural capital (Grenfell, 2009). The teachers said that they were keen to support their pupils with special needs' learning as much as they could, as this teacher in School A remarks.

SA/T4        Two years ago, I had a boy with physical disability in my class and I tried to help him as much as I can with my own knowledge. I introduced the boy to his classmates saying he was same with all of them. I made him learn at least one thing.

The above comment showed that teachers had the will to teach children with disability in the schools under study. It appeared that teachers' habitus of inclusion practices to teaching children with disabilities were potentially supported by the pupils' typically achieving peers (Avramidis, 2012). Teachers stated that they involved able students in the class to help their peers with special educational needs because they did not have the time to look into each pupil's needs. As one teacher explained:

SB/5        I do not give extra time or special care to them but I treat them all the same because there is no time to look into all of the children's need as I teaching over thirty children in

my class. I put the children with special needs among fast learners so they can help them out.

Participants' views showed that despite not being sure about what 'inclusive education' meant they were, at times, practising key ideas contained in the notion of inclusive education. These included helping children with disabilities to learn and achieve full participation in the school life (Paliokosta & Blandford, 2010) and to mingle with able bodied peers. Despite the teachers' own limitations in knowledge of inclusive education, they attempted to support all children regardless of who they were.

#### **4.2.3 Limitation to inclusion practice**

In this section, the barriers to practising inclusion perceived by the teachers are presented. When teachers were asked to explain how they practised inclusion, three limitations seemed to have appeared in the data of both schools. The three limitations include: administration skills and knowledge and accommodation difficulties. These were experienced by all participants across the schools.

##### **4.2.3.1 Administration limitation**

The participants articulated that their limitation to practice inclusion was affected by the administration. They mentioned that school administration lacked the means of identifying and screening children with special needs present in the school, particularly noting the lack of full use of the Callan Services. The Callan Services refers to a national church-run organisation that collaborates with the government to provide educational support in terms of screening and identifying of children with special needs in the schools (Department for Community Development, 2009). Workers of Callan Services use strategies to visually identify children with special needs and also use screening tests to measure sight and vision levels along with children's reading and writing skills. Once children's learning needs are identified, they are recommended for schooling at a regular or a special school with special recommendation on the certain support they require for their learning. The teachers considered that when special needs children were identified by Callan Services, the pupils can be better supported with inclusiveness in their educational needs. However, all participants stated that

Callan Services was not engaged in their schools by the school administration. A participant in an individual follow-up interview offered a strong statement:

SA/T1 I used to see Callan Services people often do screening in the schools to identify children with special needs but last year they came to the elementary side and not our primary side because the school administration did not inform them.

The above comment implies that when a school administration allows Callan Services to carry out screening and identifying children with special needs in the schools, the teachers' difficulties in finding out which children had special needs in the classroom would be eased. Teachers admitted that when Callan Services do recommendations on children with specific learning disabilities, such as those with Dyslexia, Down syndrome or sight loss, it supports both the schools and teachers to integrate children with special needs in the regular school successfully.

Teachers' believed that school administrators have a responsibility to negotiate with Callan Services to establish a network between the schools and the teachers to help them set specific pathways to support disabled children's learning and participation in school. Such a view can be seen in the following words of a participant:

SB/T4 I believe it is the responsibility of the administration to negotiate with Callan Services to do screening and identify children with special needs so we can best plan for their pathway to learning.

This response indicated that a school administration's sturdy negotiation with Callan Services can help teachers to further develop plans to work with children with special needs. They felt that when school administrations did not invite Callan Services; children with special needs in the two schools had been systematically marginalised and excluded from mainstream schools (Liasidou, 2008). The teachers felt it was important for Callan Services to provide the basis

for identifying children's special learning needs so they would develop further strategies to work them. Teachers said they required Callan Services' support because large class size takes away the time needed to work through all their pupils' learning needs. Teachers considered it a requirement for the school administration to invite Callan Services to provide initial procedure for identifying those children with special needs. Teachers believed they would develop further strategies to support their pupils' learning from what Callan Services had established.

#### **4.2.3.2 Skills and knowledge limitation**

Skills and knowledge are conceptualised as cultural capital by Bourdieu, as bridging the gap between the individual's status and the society (Jenkins, 1992). As documented in the policy, teachers having inclusive skills and knowledge gives them the status to be an inclusive teacher in the regular schools. However, teachers in the two schools under study felt that they lacked the inclusive skills and knowledge to connect them to children with disability in the regular classroom. The data revealed that there were teachers who had unrelated skills and knowledge to the demand of the new curricular (Avalos, 2000).

While habitus is "an individual's perception of their position within social structures which is the result of their experience of the practice of the structure" (Watson, 2009, p.278), teachers voiced that they had limited skills and knowledge on inclusion and consequently there were not full inclusion in the schools. One participant talked about observing a teacher who taught a boy with hearing impairment:

SA/T1        I use to see the teacher who teaches the boy with hearing impairment do not know how to communicate in sign language. I also do not have such skills and knowledge to teach children with specific disabilities so it is quite hard to practice inclusion.

The above response showed those teachers lacked specific practical skills and knowledge such as sign language to be an inclusive teacher in the regular schools. The teachers linked their lack of skills and knowledge to studying only a handful

of courses in inclusive education when they were undergoing training at Teachers' College. Below is an example of this viewpoint:

SB/T4        I do not have the appropriate skills and knowledge to teach disabled children though I took a unit or two in inclusive education while at Teachers' College.

It is apparent from the above response that studying only one inclusive education course at Teachers' College cannot prepare trainees to be inclusive teachers. "Teachers' performance at [their] workplace ... reflects their traits (profiles)" (Avalos, 2000, p.466). Thus, it is apparent from the responses that from their lived experience, teachers' limited skills and knowledge made it very difficult for them to practise inclusion in their PNG schools. They mentioned in particular that sign language is a skill to communicate with students with hearing problems but none of the participants had that symbolic capital to teach at the school.

However, despite the teachers' lack of specific skills and knowledge of teaching children with disability, they expressed a sense of accountability to nurture their pupils' learning. Having such an open approach did help, as some teachers said that their pupils had made their own difficulties known to them. Teachers were able to place their pupils in suitable locations in the classroom for their learning and participation, as the participant example below indicates.

SB/T5        I ask children in my class to be honest with themselves to tell me the disability that inhibit their learning. When children identify themselves with their problem, I tell them to sit in the front seats where they can lip read me and see the chalkboard clearly.

This statement showed that when teachers lacked formal inclusion skills and knowledge, they developed valid contextual approaches in PNG ways for what worked best for them in their own classes.

However some participants stressed that it was not easy for them to identify children with special needs in their classroom because some children were too shy to tell their teacher what they needed to support their learning. For instance, one teacher articulated the following:

SB/T3        Some children feel shy to show that they have a disability. They just mingle with everyone in the class to hide their disability.

This response indicated that children with disabilities were not open about what inhibits their learning and participation in class. This implies that disabled children in PNG were born into a society with stereotypical views on disability, similar to many other countries, that disabled people are not capable of doing anything (Terzi, 2004). Children's lack of freedom to admit their disability to their teacher was tied to the norms of PNG culture and beliefs on disability (DiGiorgio, 2009). Such actions of children's shyness occurred through the medical model of disability that caused them to be introverts (Fisher & Goodley, 2007).

The findings revealed that teachers did teach disabled children but in their own ways at their discretion. Teachers' limited skills and knowledge made it hard for them to accommodate the learning of disabled pupils in their classes (Parsons, et al., 2011).

#### **4.2.3 Lack of adaptability**

Accommodation limitation was another factor constraining implementation of inclusive practices, as reflected in the data gathered. Participants in both schools said that they could not accommodate all their pupils' learning needs because they had large classes. Teachers admitted that they were unable to prepare separate lesson plans for disabled pupils' learning needs though they provided those pupils with added time for completing tasks. An example of this point is taken from a teacher in School B:

SA/T3        I cannot consider each of the children's learning needs because I have 34 children in my class. I give extra time

for them to finish their activities but do not develop separate lesson plans for them.

The above response showed that large class sizes hindered teachers wanting to accommodate the variety of learning needs of their pupils. Accommodation of disability often implies a vast repertoire of learning strategies to respond precisely to diverse learners (Operti & Belalcáza, 2008). In the absence of adequate time, teachers in PNG were teaching children with disabilities by adopting a passive nurturing role to achieve educational goals (Bourke, 2010).

They wanted to make education accessible to many children but many taught without proper practices of inclusion.

#### **4.2.3.4 Education as a human right**

Despite teachers' experienced limitations on accommodation and inclusion skills and knowledge, they were asked to respond to how they perceived education as a human right for disabled children. All the participants considered that habitus of exclusion is against the notion of a human right to education. Teachers remarked that their role was to teach all the children regardless of the challenges they face (Bourke, 2010). Teachers were aware that PNG subscribed to the Millennium Development Goals (MDG) which advocate that all children, including children with disabilities, by the age of six should receive education by 2015 (Department for Community Development, 2009). One participant in School B articulated a strong sense of motivation in seeing education as a human right for disabled children:

SB/T2        I have heard and read of MDG and I know I am the person to provide the education that all school aged children in PNG is entitled for. The education we give them will create their future.

It seemed that teachers generally regarded education as a vital tool for disabled children's survival in PNG. The teachers viewed education as a tool to combat the socio-economic problems experienced especially by third world countries, of which PNG is one (Department for Community Development, 2009). The

teachers took ownership of the notion that children's right to education was determined by them. An example of such comment is seen below.

SA/T3        I know education is their right and I used to feel guilty  
                  when I am not teaching them to their fullest.

It was clear that teachers felt a sense of obligation to make education accessible to disabled children in PNG. Teachers expressed sentiments that education is not happening when a disabled child is left out (Acedo, 2008), thus demonstrating an understanding of the importance of inclusive education in contemporary PNG.

SB/T5        I belief education is key to everything these days. I often  
                  do my own screening as an attempt to teach all children in  
                  my class.

The above expression suggests that the habitus of the teachers in the two schools coincided with the human right lens on education. Teachers did realise that the moment for "taking an inclusion turn" (Ainscow, 2012) on the issue of educational rights and inclusion of disabled children in regular schools had arrived (Acedo, 2008).

#### **4.3 Teacher preparation and professional development in inclusive education.**

When participants were asked to give a general evaluation of their preparedness and professional development in inclusive education, their responses showed that teachers viewed implementation and inclusiveness in a different light from that held by the PNG government. Participants viewed implementation and inclusiveness as two different things. While they stated that they valued inclusiveness, the teachers also expressed reservations about implementation; specifically, that they were not well prepared by the government. Inclusive practices have proven to be extremely complex and challenging (Vlachou, 2004) from what the teachers said. The teachers' habitus was based on four areas, all of which were lacking in policy implementation. These included: lack of teacher preparation, lack of professional development for teachers, lack of adapting the classroom and the general school environment, and lack of positive attitudes amongst teachers.

### **4.3.1 Lack of teacher preparation**

Teacher preparation refers to the way the teachers are ready to take on board inclusion of disabled children alongside their non-disabled peers in the same classroom (Acedo, 2008). This includes how teachers acquire appropriate skills and knowledge to work readily with children with disabilities in their classrooms. While Bourdieu's lens of cultural capital sees that inclusive skills and knowledge are what teachers need to work with children with special needs, the teachers felt their pre-service and in-service training left them inadequately prepared to be inclusive teachers.

#### **4.3.1.1 Pre-service training**

Preparing teachers for them to teach inclusively in school is done during pre-service training at Teachers' Colleges (Carrington & Brownlee, 2001). When participants were asked to give their view on the pre-service training on inclusive education skills and knowledge they received, all the teachers said that they had studied one course on inclusive education and that paper did not adequately prepare them to be inclusive teachers. Teachers articulated that they learned the theory component of inclusive education but learned nothing on the practice aspects. Below is an example of such an expression.

SB/T5      I took one subject in inclusive education when the trimester programme was introduced in the college and the concept was new. One subject was not sufficient to prepare me to be an inclusive teacher. The subject was more theory and we learned nothing on practical skills.

This response shows that prospective teachers were not equipped with practical skills in inclusive education when they were undergoing training at Teachers' Colleges. While practical inclusive skills are perceived as cultural capital (Grenfell, 2009) that enables teachers to execute inclusion roles when teaching children with special needs in their class, teachers felt they lacked self-confidence in working with children with special needs as a result of their lack of special inclusive skills.

Teachers in both schools compared the preparation they had to implement inclusive education with another government initiative, the Outcomes Based Education (OBE). The OBE is another of PNG's educational policies and refers to the "knowledge, skills and attitudes and values that all students should achieve or demonstrate for each grade of schooling from elementary to Grade 12 in all subjects" (National Research Institute, 2010, p. 3). The teachers felt that they were better prepared to implement the OBE than the inclusive education policy. One participant offered the following:

SB/T2        The Department of Education prepared us to implement the OBE but not the inclusive education policy. Implementing the OBE is already challenging us as there are 8 subjects one teacher is able to a class of 30 or more students.

While preparation for teachers to work with the OBE was more thorough, implementation of the OBE created a further tension related to the already limited skills and knowledge teachers felt they had regarding practices of inclusion. None of the participants in both schools considered that the current trend of implementing inclusive education policy was facilitated well. As one teacher stated:

SB/T1        I think the government did not prepare us on time to implement what they had produced. We should have been prepared timely to take on the new tasks to implement inclusive education policy.

The above response indicated that, while teachers were more thoroughly prepared for implementation of another government initiative, the OBE, this policy too created tensions for their practice. The time taken to make sure teachers know what they were being asked to achieve in relation to OBE had reduced the full practices of implementation of inclusion.

#### **4.3.2 Lack of professional development opportunities for teachers**

The lack of professional development opportunities for teachers was an issue for all participants in the study. Participants pointed out the lack of professional

development in terms of enhancing their skills and knowledge as a significant lack that the PNG government would need to be aware of. This identified gap indicates that the obligation of the government to support the professional development of PNG teachers has not been considered an important means of achieving the government's inclusive education initiative (Singal, 2008; Opertti & Belalcáza, 2008). Participants' responses indicated that they lacked the cultural capital to take on the task of implementing an inclusive education policy. Teachers said that an opportunity was not created for them to expand their skills and knowledge on how to implement the inclusive education policy. A strong expression of this view is:

SA/T6 I feel that there should be opportunity for me to develop my professional skills or expand my qualification in tune with the inclusive education policy.

It seemed that when teachers were in the field teaching, they felt that there was a need to enhance their skills and knowledge further to carry on the new tasks laden on their shoulders. Participants considered their current professional training was insufficient to teach disabled children. Such a view is expressed by one participant as:

SB/T4 I think I am not professionally competent to teach disabled students in my class because I do not have the relevant skills and knowledge on inclusive education.

It is apparent from the response above that implementation of inclusive education policy is not something that easily determined without the teachers being professionally equipped (Bourke, 2010). Rather, it will take teachers to be up-skilled in a number of areas in order to reach the government's intended outcomes from implementing the policy.

Participants who had attained their teaching qualification after the inclusive education policy was introduced into PNG's education system considered themselves as receiving little knowledge on inclusive education while attending Teachers' College. As prospective teachers, they require current skills and knowledge about all aspects of inclusive education but participants stated that

they are not adequately prepared to face children with special needs in real classroom situations. For example, they had not received special training on skills such as sign language to communicate with children with hearing loss, nor use of Braille for blind children. Teachers felt they should develop these skills through professional development programmes, such as in-service training.

#### **4.3.2.1 Lack of in-service training opportunities**

In-service training opportunities was one way teachers felt they could improve their skills and knowledge in order to become successful and confident inclusive teachers. Participants' comments in the focus groups provided rich insight into their lack of professional development opportunities, particularly through in-service programmes. They reiterated that there were no in-service programmes run for them to upgrade their skills and knowledge. PNGEI was the institution they thought would be the best place for them to attend in-service training courses.

SB/T4      We do not have in-service programmes on inclusive education. I think the government should fund the programmes through PNGEI like it does for OBE.

Participants' views were that there was support from the government to facilitate quality teacher in-service programmes. While "capital is the currency of the field, it fuels its operation" (Grenfell, 2009, p. 19) and economic capital connoted money or financial resources to support individuals present in the field to accrue status and power, it seemed there was a lack in this vital area (Emirbayer & Johnson, 2008; Berling, 2012). Participants articulated their view that a lack of sufficient financial support from the government compromised the provision of quality in-service trainings for inclusive education, which in turn left teachers less well equipped to play an inclusive teacher's role in the school. Participants' thought the government's lack of support for funding in-service programmes had left them with out-dated qualifications and in a compromised position relating to the inclusive education policy and their knowledge of inclusion and inclusive practices, as this teacher explains:

SB/T1 I think the government has lacked fulfilling its obligation to fund in-service training courses for teachers. There should be on-going in-service on inclusive education for person like me to acquire inclusion skills and enhance my qualification from certificate to diploma.

This response showed how teachers perceived on-going in-service training courses as vital for them to keep up with new demands in the education system. Training and improved qualifications were seen as crucial for adapting to those changes. Teachers with over ten years of teaching experience observed that there had been no in-service training specifically on inclusive education since they began teaching. One teacher who had taught in the same school for over twenty years offered this comment:

SA/T6 After teaching in the same school for 20 years, I can recall clearly that there were no in-service trainings on inclusive education from the annual in-service trainings we had.

It seems that a lack of overall quality in-service trainings on inclusive education is prevalent in the teaching profession in PNG (Le Fanu, 2010). Human capital means investment in training and education, and in-service training costs money. The response above implies that on-going training for teachers to develop their inclusion skills is lacking because there is little or no economic capital provided by PNG's government (DiGiorgio, 2009; Grenfell, 2009).

### **4.3.3 Lack of physical adaptation of the whole school environment**

Through the lens of Bourdieu, in the field of school the general school environment among other facilities and resources equates to the realm of economic capital (DiGiorgio, 2009). The teachers' comments revealed a lack of physical adaptation of the whole school environment which hindered implementation of inclusive education practices. Teachers' responses indicated that the general settings of the two schools did not have inclusion features to nurture inclusive education. They described difficulties with the architectural structure of the school, including classrooms, and school grounds were not

inclusion-friendly. Teachers also mentioned that, as all classrooms had stairs, they believed this would not allow wheelchair users and blind children to access the classrooms. As one teacher put it:

SA/T2        If we are to have children with wheelchairs in our school, I do not think they will move around in the school area safely because we have unlevelled school grounds and classrooms with stairs.

The social model of disability promotes adaptation of the school environment to welcome inclusion (Terzi, 2004): the above comment implies that the schools in PNG were not adapted for inclusion. Inclusive school environments require physical access for optimal learning, social experience and a nurturing environment for students with disabilities (Pivik, McComas & LaFlamme, 2002). Teachers emphasised the importance of the general school settings in their responses, stressing that their schools did not meet the special adaptation requirements, particularly in relation to the needs of students with physical disabilities.

#### **4.3.3.1 Lack of classroom space as a barrier**

Teachers also remarked that the lack of classroom space was a barrier. They thought unhelpful classroom layouts could impede mobility. One participant observed:

SA/T1        I think the classrooms are narrowly built and there is less room for flexible movement inside the classroom.

Spaced seating inside a classroom is important for pupils using wheelchairs because that layout allows easy access for them to move around and participate in all activities provided by the teacher, as well as minimising obstructions (Acedo, et al., 2009). The above comment raised a significant concern as classrooms should be comfortable places for children to learn in. All participants commented

that physical facilities in the schools were not conducive to fully implementing PNG's inclusive education policy.

#### **4.3.4 Teachers' attitude as a barrier**

Teachers' attitudes were another variable that emerged from the study as a factor that constrained the implementation of the inclusive education policy in PNG. Study participants maintained that when they attempted to practice inclusion in terms of teaching children with disability, their normal teaching programme would be disrupted. Teachers' views were based on the assumption that disabled children would take time away from the learning of (non-disabled) others in the classroom. Such a view can be seen in one participant's words:

SA/T4        I think when I have students with special needs in my class; they will disturb my normal programme.

While Bourdieu's concept of habitus denotes teachers' beliefs, attitudes and practices (Swartz, 2008), the above expression implies that habitus of teachers in PNG were unaltered from the medical model of disability whereby disabled children were viewed as a burden to regular teaching.

The data also showed that some teachers' negative attitudes were associated with strong feelings about whether children with disability could effectively take part in classroom activities. Teachers thought their pupils' disability would reduce their degree of full participation to school life. One teacher stated:

SB/T2        I think students with disability will not participate effectively in some of the lessons because of their disability.

It is apparent from this response that teachers in PNG were still viewing their pupils through a medical model lens, whereby the embodied capital that is each pupil's impairment leads each disabled pupil to perform less effectively than their abled bodied peers (DiGiorgio, 2009). Disabled children were seen as limited, and not able to gain from regular class attendance. These negative feelings suggest that cultural views about disabled children, that they cannot take part in

activities productively, still linger in PNG among teachers. In addition children with special needs in the class were considered as a nuisance for the teacher and other children. Here teachers in the study felt that it was often difficult for them to control children with special needs behaviour when they cause disruptions in the class. One teacher offered the following experience:

SA/T2 I have experienced in my class that when disabled students cannot take part in the lessons they disturb other students and even make me angry. I just do not have the time to plan lesson to control such behaviour of students.

The comments above, especially the degree of emotion expressed, suggest that some teachers have strong reservations about responding to the needs of difference and diversity of individual learners (Vlachou, 2004). This emotion may link to teachers' thoughts that there was not enough time to consider including the needs of children with disabilities into their lesson plans. This suggests that teachers' negative attitudes seem to be a major drawback for effective inclusive education (Jordon, et al., 2010).

However, some participants argued against inclusive practices from a different point of view, that disabled children could learn better in special set environment and that special schools can better accommodate children's varied learning needs. One teacher offered the following comment:

SAT5 Teaching of disabled children is done at institution such as the Cheshire Home and Hohola Special school. I think those schools can be comfortable for disabled children to school in.

This expression seemed to show that constructs of oppression and exclusive practices found in other countries still operate in PNG schools (Vlachou, 2004), such as the view that disabled children's education takes place in segregated institution. Teachers in PNG have not come out of the tradition of the medical view on disability that sees disabled children's education take place only in a

special schools (Fisher & Goodley, 2007), such as Cheshire Home and Hohola Specials in Port Moresby. Participants' views were that these institutions were ones that children with special needs could attend, reinforcing their negative attitudes towards inclusive education practices.

Teachers' comments revealed that the work pressure teachers experienced contributed to their negative feelings about disabled children's education. Teachers felt that large class sizes put heavy workloads on them; as a consequence, they became annoyed with teaching children with special needs in the class. As one teacher explained:

SA/T2        I have 8 subjects to teach each day to 32 pupils and often I am stressed out at the end of the day. When I continue to consider specific lessons for special needs' children, it is stressful and annoying.

The researcher prompted: "Why all of a sudden does your attitude change"? The participant responded:

SAT2        I mean frustration develop from work stress especially when there is too much for me to look into each pupil's special learning requirement. To ease our work tension and for disabled children's learning needs to be better met, they need to attend special schools.

The above response shows that Primary School teachers in PNG imposed negative attitudes on disabled children in their class because of the stress developing from their workload. It seemed that teachers' workload is associated with the number of pupils in their class as well the number of subjects they teach. Teachers indicated that they developed negative feelings towards inclusion because they cannot comply with the policy's goals in a large class taught by a single teacher. From this perspective, they thought disabled children can learn better at special schools.

#### **4.3.4.1 Special schools to cater for disabled students**

The data shows that some teachers thought special schools better accommodate disabled students, rather than regular schools. They thought some disabled children were not sent to regular public schools because some parents, too, think special schools have disability trained teachers who can better teach the student.

One of the participants made this comment:

SB/T2        I think parents send their special needs children to Hohola Special School because the children will be well taught there as teachers there are trained in specific disability areas.

This comment shows that parent's send their special needs children to special schools in the view that disability trained teachers are located there who can provide their children with optimum education. Participants thought that parents take their children away from regular schooling to special schools because of the children's vulnerability arising from their disability. Parents' perceptions on disabled children's vulnerability from disability are linked to the medical model of disability (Fisher & Goodley, 2007).

#### **4.4 Curriculum assessment and reporting on inclusive education**

The data revealed that the links in channels of communication between the teachers, Principals and the education system, in curriculum assessment and reporting on inclusive education, were broken. One of the perplexing issues facing education officials is to ensure that educational policies produced and announced at a central level actually shape practice in intended ways at the school and classroom level (Johnstone & Chapman, 2009). Teachers interviewed in the two schools in PNG revealed that there was no communication between the government, the school and them regarding curriculum assessment, such as tests and exams, of students with disabilities. Thus assessment and reporting of how inclusive education was taking shape in the school field was not done by any methods of feedback between the education officials.

#### **4.4.1 Lack of inclusive testing and assessment practices**

When teachers were asked how they had considered planning tests and assessment for children with special needs in their classrooms, all the participants remarked that they lacked inclusive curriculum assessment processes because of contextual constraints such as large classes (Le Fanu, 2013). The results showed that none of the participants tended to practise specific assessment and testing for children with special needs. One teacher's comment provides an example:

SB/T2        I use the same assessment procedure across the class.  
                  There is a boy with partial hearing loss in the class. He  
                  gets his support from his peers and now he is above  
                  average academically.

In this case the disabled child concerned was not disadvantaged. However, While the classroom is part of the structure at school level and part of the structure of the education system (Reed-Danahay, 2005), the above response indicated that teachers used assessment practices on the assumption that all children have the same learning conditions and capacity (Opperti & Belalcáza, 2008).

##### **4.4.1.1 Lack of reporting at school level**

All the participants acknowledged that there was no reporting on inclusive education at the school level apart from their regular teaching practice. All participants' views indicated that they do regular teaching and reporting on student assessment but not specifically on matters related to inclusive education. An example is taken from the words of teacher one from school B:

SBT1        I have students with partial hearing and sight problems  
                  but there is no one asking me to report on how I am  
                  teaching these children.

The participants have articulated that there was no strategy in place in the two schools to guide them to report on inclusive education at the school level. When teachers are not asked to report on the progress of disabled students,

accommodations that could be made to assist disabled children's learning are not identified.

#### **4.4.1.2 Lack of reporting to the Department of Education**

Participants confirmed that there was a lack of reporting and collaboration between the school and the Department of Education on the progress of inclusive education practices in their two schools. Most of the participants said that they were the ones to provide the report at the school level to the Department of Education but that was not seen as part of their role.

SA/T6      I think the Department of Education should ask us to report to them on the progress of implementing inclusive education but that is not happening.

Teachers felt they were not notified by the Department of Education on how to carry out their duties. Thus "the challenges of attaining inclusive education which are therefore also related to the provision of a comprehensive set of policies aimed ... with a vision that facilitates dialogue among various core actors of the education system" (Operti & Belalcáza, 2008, p. 117) could not be met. Teachers thought that if they were to expand their roles in reporting to superior persons in the school hierarchy, this would be helpful for their status and practice, but that never eventuated for them.

The participants also pointed out that the Department of Education should assign officers to assess the implementation of the inclusive education policy at the school level. The teachers viewed collaboration between them, their head of school and the education system as vital in planning for what needed to be improved (Grenfell, 2009). Such a view is illustrated below:

SAT4      I think reporting on inclusive education should be an on-going thing such as the OBE. The government should get report from us of the way we are implementing the policy.

The above response indicates that reporting on inclusive education should be continuous.

Other participants suggested that it was the lack of support from the Department of Education that made it hard for them to work together with the Principal to report on inclusive education. The participants felt that the policy on inclusion required a series of stakeholders with responsibility to oversee the implementation processes (Emirbayer & Johnson, 2008; Grenfell, 2009). Such a viewpoint is shown as:

SB/T3 I think we should work in collaboration to implement the inclusive education. When inclusive education policy is a government's educational policy, the key implementers such as me did not witness a collaborative spirit in the implementation processes.

Teachers saw no effect for them on implementation of inclusion policy taking place at the Primary Schools when they experienced a lack of collaboration among each other stakeholders. It was apparent from the response that lack of reporting and assessment on inclusion was not a recent phenomenon but an on-going problem. One participant offered her thoughts as:

SA/T6 I started teaching in the late 80s but I have not seen monitoring and evaluation of the implementation processes. I believe there must be a resistance somewhere in the channel of implementation.

Teachers viewed implementing the inclusive education policy as a task that needed time and commitment, with on-going dialogue from all the stakeholders along the 'channel of communication' lines of implementation. The teachers' views suggest that there is either stagnation or resistance in the implementation process and they felt that government could seek alternative ways of effective implementation.

#### **4.4.2 Lack of motivation and incentives**

Finally, teachers' comments expressed in interviews and focus groups reveal that there is little motivation, such as incentives to reward them as persons on the ground carrying out the government's policy intention, to enhance the nature and purpose of inclusive education in PNG. Teachers suggested that the current slow progress of inclusiveness could be enhanced with incentives to boost their morals to teach eagerly (Johnstone & Chapman, Pijl & Frissen, 2009). Participants articulated stated that there could be teachers trained with skills and knowledge among them but they could not exercise those skills because they are not motivated. One strong comment reflecting this view is presented below.

SB/T2        The government will depend on us to implement educational policies but they do not recognise the effort we put into make the existing policies work. The government has not motivated us with work conditions such as a pay rise.

This response indicate teachers' feelings when they said that they do a lot of work in implementing existing educational policies and their effort needed recognition and reinforcement, such as incentives like increases in teacher salaries. To aid staff to continue what they do (Johnstone & Chapman, 2009) and facilitate "educational expansion and improvements in the quality of teacher recruits" (Rogers & Vegas, 2010, p. 505), incentives can compensate for teachers' efforts. However, one participant said that the amount of effort and time they currently devote to implementing the OBE was enough inclusive education policy implementation would just be an additional workload on top of already exhausting duties:

SB/T3        Implementing the OBE requires a lot of time and effort. It takes me after hours to prepare lessons and correct student work book. The after hour work I do is something that I can be compensated for. The government lack to reward us for that commitment.

Comments by participants, such as the above, are confessions of their own thoughts, experiences and obligations related to the activities they carry out when they are being engaged in the field which is the school (Reed-Danahay, 2005). Teachers' expressions acknowledge personal beliefs, of how they think that their efforts in the schools are going unrecognised. This lack of recognition included no raise in their salary as a token of appreciation of the work they do. The participants stated that the amount of work they are doing at the moment to achieve the OBE goals could possibly exhaust and prevent them from carrying out inclusion practices at the schools.

#### **4.5 Summary of the chapter**

This chapter presented the findings of the research. Four major themes were located in the data. The first theme included comments about teachers' general knowledge of the existence of the inclusive education policy and their awareness of the concept of inclusive education. The second theme concerned teachers' comments about current implementation of inclusive education practices in their classrooms. The third theme from the data related to teachers' evaluations of the on-going professional development aspect of becoming an inclusive education teacher. The final theme covered aspects of reporting on curriculum assessment and feedback on inclusive education practices from the school to the Principal and the Department of Education.

## **CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS**

### **5.0 Introduction**

This chapter discusses the findings of the research carried out in two regular primary schools in the National Capital District of PNG. The findings are discussed in the light of Bourdieu's three conceptual tools discussed in Chapter Three and the literature reviewed in Chapter Two. I used Bourdieu's conceptual tools to help discuss the findings in the following manner. Habitus connotes teachers' experiences, roles, beliefs and practices regarding teaching disabled children in their classes while implementing the inclusive education policy. Field refers to the two schools and PNG's education system. Capital comes in four forms: economic, cultural, social and symbolic and represents resources and facilities, teachers' inclusion skills and knowledge that support inclusive education (Swartz, 2008; DiGiorgio, 2009; Grenfell, 2009, Hurtado, 2010). While Bourdieu's concepts were incorporated for the discussions, the purpose of the study was to identify factors that facilitated or constrained implementation of an inclusive education policy. Here I acknowledge that inclusive education policy have its origin in the discourses of the models of disabilities particularly the social model of disability that emphasises disabled children's right to education in a regular school setting (Chappell et al. 2001; Terzi, 2004). Four themes revealed from the data analysis are discussed in turn. Firstly, teachers' awareness of the inclusive education policy, the NSEPPG, and the concept of inclusive education are presented. Secondly, inclusion practices in schools are discussed. Thirdly, teacher preparation and professional development in inclusive education is highlighted. Finally assessment and reporting on inclusive education is provided.

### **5.1 Teachers' awareness of the NSEPPG and the concept of inclusive education.**

#### **5.1.1 Teachers' awareness of the NSEPPG**

The NSEPPG constitutes the official legislative document response to the education of disabled children in PNG (Liasidou, 2008, 2010). The study revealed that teachers lacked awareness of its existence. This finding was disturbing. Literature suggests that it is crucial for teachers to sight the inclusive education policy because it carries the message of what they are officially tasked to do (Kearney & Kane, 2006; Liasidou, 2007, 2008). It is important for teachers to see

the document because their role for inclusive practices in regular schools is outlined in the NSEPPG (Wearmouth et al., 2006; Florian, 2008). According to Bourdieu's framework, NSEPPG is conceptualised as symbolic capital that remains a legislative property of the education system and school network (Emirbayer & Johnson, 2008). Teachers' lack of awareness of the NSEPPG in part is the responsibility of those in power in the schools' and education system's hierarchy, who did not deliver it to them. Factors affecting the role of education system's hierarchy are in relation to lack of economic capital in the form of money in which developing, printing and delivering the NSEPPG depends on (DiGiorgio, 2009).

### **5.1.2 Knowledge of the concept of inclusive education**

The findings revealed teachers had a variety of opinions about the concept of inclusive education. Differences in opinions on inclusive education reflected the two categories of teacher who took part in the study. These included teachers who taught before the inception of the NSEPPG in 1993 and after. Teachers who attended Teachers' Colleges before the inception of NSEPPG in 1993 had minimal knowledge of inclusive education. They did not study a course in inclusive education and had only learned about the concept incidentally or during an in-service training programme. These teachers did not distinguish inclusive education from special education. They perceived inclusive education in the paradigm of special education, such as an education based on disability (Skrtic, 1991; Valeo, 2009). They did not see it as a reform that has taken a particular path that led to re-badging 'special education' as 'inclusive education' in policy and disability discourses (Slee, 2008). According to Bourdieu, cultural capital includes knowledge (Hurtado, 2010). Teachers in this group lacked the knowledge to define what constitutes inclusive education. However, the study showed that teachers' linguistic capital had enabled them to conceptualise embodied capital such as an education based on disability.

Teachers who attended Teachers' College after the NSEPPG was formulated had studied inclusive education papers; thus they had a clearer idea about inclusive education as a principle that included the education of children with disabilities in regular schools (Operti, 2011). They understood that inclusive education increased disabled children's participation in school life when teaching was

provided by a regular teacher and disabled children could learn alongside their able-bodied peers (Booth & Ainscow, 2002; O’Gorman & Drudy, 2011). Previous studies have shown that inclusive education remains a contested term (Ainscow, 2005, 2007; Florian, 2008) so the difference in the understandings of the two teacher groups was not surprising. However, despite the way inclusive education was defined by the teachers in this study, it was clear that the definition of inclusive education generally was viewed as a philosophy regarding children with disabilities’ educational ventures (Ainscow & Miles, 2008). This understanding will be helpful to future developments of inclusive practices in PNG schools as well as avenues for teachers to learn about inclusive education can be sought.

## **5.2 Inclusion practices in schools**

With regard to teachers’ experience in respect of inclusive practices in the schools in PNG, the study revealed that teachers experienced a number of substantial challenges in working with disabled children in their classes. The challenges included limitations in administration, skills and knowledge, and a lack of adaptability at the whole school level. These limitations correlate to ideologies that constitute Bourdieu’s habitus, that teachers in PNG experienced a resistance to the practice of inclusion within the schools (Paliokosta, & Blandford, 2010). Previous studies show that limitations related to the practice of inclusion have been a prevailing orthodoxy underpinning education for disabled children worldwide (Chhabra et al., 2010; Lohani et al, 2010).

### **5.2.1 Administration limitations**

As shown in Chapter Four, administration limitation impacted on teachers’ inclusion practices as the two schools’ administrations lacked the means to engage Callan Services, who provide preliminary screening and identifying of children with specific disabilities in schools and make recommendations on children’s specific learning needs. Callan Services identify children with special needs such as those with dyslexia, Down syndrome or impaired sight and hearing. When Callan Services identifies children’s special learning needs, it makes it easier for teachers to plan lessons for these pupils in their class. The study revealed that teachers were struggling to practice inclusion because having large classes made it difficult for them to identify individual children’s learning needs. These support

services are urgently needed as they will make it easier for teachers to practice inclusion in large classes.

### **5.2.2 Skills and knowledge limitations**

Using the concept of Bourdieu's cultural capital, teachers can be seen as human capital, equipped with certain skills and knowledge in order to be useful to their employer, the education department (Grenfell, 2009, 2010). Teachers' responses in Chapter Four showed that teachers' lack of capital in the area of inclusive education limited their habitus which in turn restricted their ability to effectively implement the policy through their inclusion practices. According to Bourdieu, capital is conceptualised as skills and knowledge. Without these two factors, it is hard for teachers to gain the status in the structure of the network they need in order to push for changes in the area of inclusive education in their school system (Hurtado, 2010).

The lack of skills and knowledge as a barrier to practise inclusion is also reflected and argued in the literature reviewed in Chapter Two (Ainscow & Miles, 2008; Florian, 2008; Jordan et al., 2009; Singal, 2008). In order, for inclusive education to be successful, it is important that teachers have adequate knowledge about its philosophy, principles, theories and practice (Deku & Ackah Jnr, 2012). The need for considerable learning of practical skills and knowledge development in inclusion is recognised in other countries by teachers who have pupils with specific disabilities in their class (Thorntorn, et al., 2007; Margolin, 2011). The catalyst for improved inclusion practices is for teachers to improve their skills and knowledge of the specific disability, and to align these with the curriculum so as to lead to inclusive practices for students with disabilities (Bourke, 2010). Skills and knowledge limitations place considerable constraints on the development of inclusion practices, in part because teachers do not have sufficient practical skills in this teaching area.

Bourdieu's conceptual tools of field and cultural capital help reveal the limitations and struggles experienced by teachers as they try to practice inclusion within the field that is the school and the Department of Education (Lizardo, 2004; Costa, 2006; Hurtado, 2010). This also means that the teachers experienced limitations in practising inclusion not only by their lack of cultural capital, which is their skills

and knowledge, but because in the pre-existing hierarchical power structure which is the school administration, their symbolic capital, their low position did not empower them (Swartz, 2008). For example, teachers are part of the school system as school system is part of the Department of Education. As such teachers are struggling to achieve inclusive practices because the systems that have power to enhance their symbolic capital have failed to fulfill their obligations. These results suggest that teachers experience limitations when their capacity to perform a skill in the line of duty is taken away by others (Grenfell, 2010).

Teachers' comments show that they are apprehensive about the radical reform regarding OBE in PNG because there was no reference to inclusive education. It was seen that OBE had constrained teachers' inclusion practices. Researchers have established that dominant policies dwarf inclusive education because implementers consider it something that brings additional responsibilities (e.g. Vlachou, 2004; Liasidou, 2008, 2010). In the current study, inclusive education policy has been considered as additional policies that have to fit in to the already existing educational policies and dominant discourses on OBE implementation restricts inclusion practices such as classroom arrangement, curriculum and pedagogy. This is an important finding because, if inclusive practices cannot fit within an OBE framework, disabled children's education may suffer.

Inclusive education demands teaching and learning in a context of diverse approaches (Acedo, 2008) and the study showed that practices of inclusion were not present in teachers' daily routines of classroom-based teaching. As elicited in Chapter Four, one might think that teachers were negative in all their responses about inclusion in the schools in PNG. Such was not the case. Teachers' considered that OBE had created tension between their pedagogical responsibilities to respond to diverse needs of learners in their classrooms and the workload responsibilities they carried. Teachers had a strong sense of accountability for their pupils with disabilities' learning. But they also felt their skills and knowledge were insufficient to implement inclusive learning when they also had to teach eight subjects to a large class.

### **5.2.3 Lack of adaptability**

A focus on generating inclusive settings, as noted in international literature, involving modification of content, approaches, strategies and architectural structures within schools, with a vision of providing a friendly school environment that covers all range of children's needs (Booth & Ainscow, 2002; Operti & Belalcáza, 2008; Parsons et al., 2011). In particular, according to Acedo (2008), the lack of adaptation of school structures both inside the classroom and outside in the general school environment systematically excludes disabled children from access to education in a regular school. This study showed that both schools lacked a whole school environment adaptation approach for implementing inclusive education. As a result the extent to which teachers were able to practise inclusion was compromised. Applying Bourdieu's perspective, this issue can be seen as a lack of economic capital that would compromise the implementation of any inclusive education policy (Grenfell, 2010). This point provides a helpful hint to policy makers the extent to which inclusive education can be further supported in PNG.

A former study in PNG by Le Fanu (2010) showed that the lack of adapted facilities in schools was a major barrier to implementing inclusive education in the country. Hence, limited adaptation of the school environment and curriculum practices has been highlighted in this study as a significant constraint on implementing inclusive education in both schools. As teachers' comments showed, classrooms, curriculum, stairs and playground were not adapted to accommodate children with disabilities in the school.

While the general school was not inclusion friendly, it has left teachers to practice inclusion on their own, adapting circumstances as best they could to find what worked best for them and the disabled pupils in their class. What seemed to work best was when teachers were able to identify their pupils in their class, and when they asked those students to speak out about the disabling factors that inhibited their learning. This point shows that more talking about disability in classes and in schools would be helpful in furthering the development of inclusive educational practices in PNG.

#### **5.2.4. Accommodation limitation**

The data gathered in this study revealed that teachers had limited skills for accommodating children with disabilities' individual learning needs. This was evident from the teachers' efforts to seat a child with disability with more able peers to assist them in the lessons. Using Bourdieu, it could be said that teachers' cultural capital did not conform to their habitus. In this situation teachers became highly dependent on the more able children in the room to support the disabled students' learning. Within this practice, integrative attempts were made, on applying the tenets of inclusion, but teachers were using their contextual approaches to provide the support for their pupils' learning. The teachers described the requirements of their habitus as teaching eight subjects to over thirty students in one classroom. Dealing with large class was a cumbersome workload while striving to meet the learning needs of both disabled students and those they were already used to teaching brought them substantial challenges. Under these circumstances it was not surprising the teachers felt that the government's demand for implementation of the inclusive education policy left them placed outside of their comfort zone.

#### **5.2.5 Attitudes towards inclusion**

The results of this study show that some of the teachers in the two primary schools in PNG interviewed did not have favourable and supportive attitudes towards inclusion. Some teachers displayed negative attitudes towards inclusion, saying that children with disabilities belonged in special schools. For example, they mentioned that disabled children could learn better in Hohola Special School. Such responses indicated teachers' preferences for the established segregated schools in PNG for disabled children to attend were linked to the medical model of disability.

Literature suggests that negative attitudes impact teachers when the new policy in inclusive education challenges teachers' existing belief systems (Ainscow & Miles, 2008; Jordan et al., 2009, 2010). Teachers' negative attitudes and views are influenced by the development of the rights' perspective that guarantees all disabled children the right to attend regular school, and when teachers themselves lack the opportunity to gain knowledge and understanding in this sometimes

difficult sphere of teaching. Teachers' unpreparedness to teach disabled children often leaves them with feelings of incompetence, panic, fear and anxiety when they attempt to execute a task beyond the norms of their practice (Armstrong et al., 2005; Chhabra et al., 2010; Unianu, 2012).

Negative attitudes persisted among the teachers who were unclear about their role in this area and their capacity to work with children with varying disabilities. In Bourdieu's terms, the teachers' habitus was associated in a negative way with the embodied capital of the disabled children's disability status. In this sense, teachers' reservations about children with disabilities' education was in the nature of embodied capital (Hurtado, 2010). When teachers have low expectations of their disabled children's learning in a regular school, it runs in conflict with the human rights' perspective that all disabled children are entitled to receive education.

### **5.2.6 Education as a human right**

PNG formulated the inclusive education policy through a human rights approach supported by a raft of national policies. The policy was conceived as a desirable way of making sure that all children in PNG who have been marginalised and excluded from education are included. However, teachers' responses show that commitment to the implementation of inclusive education was lacking. The study illuminates that inclusive education was not prioritised at the school level as the OBE had been. At a practical level, the support systems and power structures between policy makers and the implementers in the classrooms are characterised by alienation and disconnectedness (Ainscow, 2005).

International literature reviewed in Chapter Two points out that inclusive education must be based on the principle of human right (Acedo et al., 2009) and "that all children complete primary education ... with the world's biggest promise in the form of Millennium Development Goals" (Hume, 2007 cited in Ainscow & Miles, 2008, p. 16). However, studies around the world regarding these visions also indicate that actions to move the policy and practice forward in economically deprived countries remain confused (Acedo et al., 2008; Miles & Ainscow, 2008). This study revealed that, despite teachers in PNG schools lacking inclusion skills, they all had seen through the same lens that education was a human right and the

responsibility to provide education to disabled children was theirs. This was a perspective prevalent among all teachers.

However, the study also revealed the reservation some teachers had about applying the rights position to all disabled children through their consideration of disabled children's vulnerability in relation to their disability. In this regard, teachers' habitus correlated with their embodied capital when viewing Hohola Special Schools as the only place where many disabled children attend because of their disability (Fisher & Goodley, 2007). So teachers in the study concurred with the believe that children with disabilities can be absent for the regular schools (Ntombela, 2009). In the same vein, a study done in Nepal by Lohani et al, (2010) found that primary schools were reluctant to take up their responsibility to fulfill children's right to education because understanding of education as a human right has not sunk into them yet. For this reason, a more comprehensive understanding of inclusive education is essential for the attainment of EFA goals. As such, this study revealed that teachers in PNG only narrowly understood education as a human right concept and did not conceptualise it within the framework of the EFA agenda. Regrettably, in reality, teachers are a long way from achieving the EFA at Primary School level in PNG partly because the practice of inclusion is yet to be fully exercised by teachers.

### **5.3 Teacher preparation and professional development in inclusive education**

#### **5.3.1 Teacher preparation**

The study revealed that most teachers were under-trained in inclusive education while under-going pre-service training at Teachers' College. Teachers' responses indicated an issue that was stalling the successful implementation of inclusive education in PNG: the lack of specialist training in inclusive education during teacher preparation at pre-service Teachers' Colleges. Literature from other countries indicates that when teachers are inadequately prepared with the skills and knowledge necessary to work with children with special educational needs, they experience difficulty in teaching such children when present in their class (e.g. Armstrong et al., 2007; Operti & Belalcáza, 2008). Implementation of inclusive education is dependent, among other factors, on the necessary training to instill belief in this process in the next generation of teachers and to equip them to

fully support inclusion (Hodkinson, 2006). Teachers in the primary schools in PNG felt it was not reasonable for them to accept new responsibilities and to take on an expansion of their role without the provision of adequate training. Applying Bourdieu's conceptual tools of cultural capital, field and habitus to the findings has revealed that teachers' incompetence with inclusion skills and knowledge to practice inclusion in the field which they occupied was a major problem. It is cultural capital that gives a person the credentials to be identified in the field with their habitus (Calhoun et al., 1993; Grenfell, 2009). That means, from teachers' habitus (experience), there was a lack of cultural capital (skills and knowledge) to practice inclusion in their everyday teaching in field (school). Furthermore, their lack of capital meant it was hard for them to express their comments about these issues within their school, and to drive changes in classroom practices.

### **5.3.2 Professional development**

Professional development includes teachers learning new skills or modifying existing skills to achieve inclusive education goals (Supple & Abgenyega, 2011). It is the "approach to encouraging inclusive education by supporting courses in professional development which facilitate the embedding of change in teachers' practices and exemplifies its approach to policy through strategies to support real change in practice" (Wearmouth et al., 2006, p. 51). Teachers' comments in this study showed that their lack of professional development skills fed into a prevailing status quo of lack of implementation of inclusive education. This study's finding matched that of Ntombela, (2009) who found that professional development used to train teachers in the South African schools studied was ineffectual for the implementation of inclusive education policy and, as a result, what was intended to take root in the classroom did not occur.

This study highlighted that lack of professional development as a significant constraint regarding implementation of an inclusive education policy in PNG. It has shown that teachers' professional development needs have not been met adequately, not enough even for them to know what inclusive education was about. Teachers recognised the lack of available opportunities for them to enhance their skills and knowledge in inclusion. Greater effort to enable teachers to study inclusive education during in-service training programmes is essential for the success of the policy.

### **5.3.3 In-service training**

Consistent in-service training is vital for teachers as it reminds them of their roles in inclusive education (Ntombela, 2009). However, this was not the case for the teachers in PNG. Throughout the study, teachers identified the major challenge they face as lack of skills and knowledge and an in-service training that could possibly enhance their inclusion skills if it were provided. According to Singal (2008), when teachers lack in-service training, they are not aware of the new demands made on their role. On-going in-service training for teachers to adjust their teaching roles is also helpful because practices enhanced during pre-service training erode over time (Ferguson, 2008). Teachers require in-service training in order to be skilled to match upcoming needs in their profession (Florian, 2008).

So far, policy studies have shown that success in implementing a policy relies on the capacity of the implementers in the field (Bourke, 2010). The implementers' capacity includes their symbolic capital that is their qualification and knowledge on the policy on inclusion (Greenfell, 2009). However, in the case of inclusive practices, the lack of in-service training leaves teachers with limited knowledge about implementing inclusive education (Operti, & Belalcáza, 2008; Ntombela, 2009). The current study revealed that the teachers did not have an opportunity to pursue inclusive education training through in-service programmes. This finding is consistent with a study by Le Fanu (2010) who concluded that there was a resistance to in-service training for the inclusive education curriculum in PNG.

In the inclusive education realm, the teachers' regular curriculum practices are what their pupils with diverse learning needs depend upon. This responsibility leaves the teacher with a wide range of expectations (Ainscow, 2007). In Bourdieu's terms, the teachers in the two primary schools did not have the capacity of capital to perform a range of inclusion practices. Their lack of capital was further dwarfed by a workload imposed from trying to achieve OBE in a large class taught by a single teacher (DiDiorgio, 2009). Teachers felt that class size tended to be the factor that made it hard for them to see individual children's learning needs. Hence, using the notion of symbolic capital, it is possible to say that teachers in PNG perceived inclusive education as an added responsibility to their existing roles.

All teachers thought that they were unprepared for the responsibilities that inclusive education encompasses. Despite having many years of teaching experience, teachers in this study commented that they were too in-experienced in practical skills to address the complex issues of inclusive education especially teaching children with specific disability. Teachers' expressed sentiments revealed a nurturing attitude towards teaching children with special needs rather than seeing the need to develop new and innovative ways of working with disabled children. According to UNESCO (2003) such thoughts are an obstacle to adopting an inclusive education approach. It can be argued that teachers may be underestimating their potential to adjust their teaching practices but back-up support for them still needs to be in place.

#### **5.4 Curriculum assessment practices and reporting on inclusive education**

Literature suggests that policy makers are accountable to schools to maintain the quality of education and to influence conditions necessary for inclusive education, such as inclusive curriculum and assessment practices as well as receiving feedback from teachers (Liasidou, 2008; Bourke, 2010). Funding an inspectorate to provide consistent reporting on the implementation of the policy would further the accountability processes but that do not automatically occur within a reasonable time in PNG (Liasidou, 2007, 2008; Pijl & Frissen, 2009). What transpired from the study was that two schools in NCD had lacked inclusive curriculum assessment practices and reporting on inclusive education between them and their superiors. From this research it is possible to suggest that, as inclusive education implementation was not progressing well in these schools, the adoption of a greater role by the inspectorate has become necessary.

International studies also acknowledge the positive effect of reporting and networking between the stakeholders, especially teachers and those in the senior positions at the Primary School level as well as in the education system, on implementing an inclusive education policy (Johnstone & Chapman, 2009; Ainscow, 2012). Regular monitoring through assessment and reporting of inclusive education evens out the power relationships inherent in what happens in the classroom level and at administration level through to the Department of

Education and the government itself (Pijl & Frissen, 2009). However, lack of on-going collaboration and communication meant that reporting and assessment about how inclusive education was being implemented at the school level was not happening at the bureaucratic level. Nor were processes to make this happen being instigated by government officials. This finding is similar to findings from a study in another developing nation by Johnstone and Chapman (2009) who noted that “adequate funding, regular monitoring of teachers’ performance, on-going teacher training, considerations for special populations of students and systematic efforts to move to ever wider levels of implementation went largely unaddressed in Lesotho and from one’s perspective this reflects the realities of governance in the developing world” (p.143). In PNG, the two NCD schools’ practices of inclusive education were achieved through the teachers’ personal merits, stemming from an instinct of nurturing. Teachers in these schools were ‘authors of their own destiny’, identifying children with specific educational needs and with physical disabilities and teaching them at their own discretion without funding, regular monitoring or significant assessment considerations.

Bourdieu, in his concept of field, would argue that policy implementation takes place in a school environment and the education system, with teachers and the administration in the education system interplaying varying roles, with the common structural features of each person aimed towards achieving one goal (Robbins, 1991; Jenkins, 1992; Costa, 2006). From this perspective, in order to solve the problem noted above, teachers would inform Principals of occurrences within their classrooms, Principals in turn would organise for Callan Services to provide screening and identification of children with special needs to identify those children who need special consideration. Further, Principals would then inform the Department of Education who would, if necessary, fund Callan Services for their facilities and expertise. Bourdieu’s approach would say that both schools are conceived of as being at a micro level of social structure, obliged to, but significantly also obligated by, larger powerful structures such as the Department of Education and the government at large. Bourdieu’s approach affirms Costa’s (2006) point that policy implementation is a shared responsibility with on-going assessment and reporting between those who are responsible to achieve the goals of the policy. On this note, this study clearly shows that there is

a lack of shared responsibility within the educational structure as a whole which makes it difficult for teachers to work together in their schools. As a result, implementing inclusion in education is yet to gain sufficient momentum at the regular primary schools in PNG.

#### **5.4.1 Lack of inclusive testing and assessment**

Inclusion is a dominant yet elusive concept whose discourses are about educational responses to a diversity of learners who can benefit equally from teaching practices, pedagogies, approaches, strategies, exams and test procedures used by the teacher without bias ( Pijl & Frissen, 2009; Kurawa, 2010; Cole-Parsons et al., 2011; Runswick, 2011). However, this study found that testing and assessment procedures used by teachers in both schools reflected biased practices. International literature suggests that teachers “must incorporate the views of the learners themselves and the achievement is about the outcome of learning across the curriculum, not merely tests or results” (Ainscow, 2005, p. 119) so that it will best assess disabled children’s levels of achievement. This was not happening in the two regular schools in PNG. Teachers who applied the regular testing and exam procedures when giving tests and exams on the curriculum learned by the students at the schools said that children with special needs performed exceptionally well academically on the average range. But this does not give a clear picture of achieving inclusion. Some participants mentioned that there was no urgency regarding inclusive education practices and assessment. They felt that there were no systematic processes for testing, assessment and reporting in place at their level so they made their own effort and applied their regular assessment procedures. For different reasons both practices can be seen as a biased assessment approach, because neither measure in depth the extent of the disability-related and capacity of children with disabilities’ intelligence (Operti & Belalcáza, 2008).

#### **5.4.2 Lack of support for inclusion at school level**

Bourdieu proposes that social capital forms a binding social network that includes the form of support an individual requires to be added to the capital he or she already has to be in the field (Grenfell, 2009). Social capital influences the overall capital a person has to be part of the network and it comes in the nature of networking, communication and supporting inclusive practices so that the person

has a feel of worth to exercise the capital in the field (DiGiorgio, 2009). While looking through the lens of social capital, this study reveals that none of the teachers in the two schools felt inclusive education was supported and monitored at the School Level. As pointed out earlier, policy development and delegating responsibilities occur in a linear way, such as from the top-down or the bottom-up. For example, at the school level delegation of duties begins from the Principal, as top in the hierarchy, downwards to teachers in order of seniority. Reporting and feedback on the delegated duties is then reported upwards by the teachers to the Principal who has the responsibility to report to the inspectorate. This structure is described by Ainscow (2005, 2012) as an internal organisational arrangement entered into by the whole staff group to encourage each other and support coordination around the idea for inclusion to change outcomes for children with disabilities' education. Within this structure, the responsibility to monitor and report progress could also include the provision of advice. The lack of this system present in educational structures in these two PNG primary schools can be regarded as a constraining factor on their endeavours to implement inclusive education. This study showed this type of support did not exist among the teachers themselves or between them and their Principal.

#### **5.4.3 Lack of motivation and incentives.**

Literature has suggested that in order for policy and laws related to inclusive education to be implemented effectively they must be accompanied by adequate funding, including rewards and incentives to stimulate teachers to own the responsibility and also to attract future teachers to the profession (Operti & Belalcáza, 2008; Johnstone & Chapman, 2009; Pijl & Frissen, 2009). Teachers' comments during the interviews highlighted that they viewed their role in implementing the OBE together with the inclusive education policy as a dual-faceted task. Thus, they thought that their efforts needed recognition by the government through a salary raise. It was noted that PNG depends on teachers to implement new and existing policies. As such their role to implement inclusive education on top of the OBE workload should not have resulted in their having no time for relaxation; their efforts needed recognition with additional allowances to boost their morale and motivation for continuing their work.

### **5.5 A brief summary of the chapter.**

This chapter discussed the findings in relation to Bourdieu's three conceptual tools of habitus, field and capital discussed in Chapter Three and the literature reviewed in Chapter Two. Four themes were discussed using Bourdieu's concepts of habitus, field and capital for interpretive insight. Firstly, teachers' awareness of the inclusive education policy and the concept of inclusive education were discussed. Secondly, inclusion practices in schools. Thirdly teacher preparation and professional development in inclusive education were mentioned. Finally, curriculum assessment practices and reporting on inclusive education were highlighted.

## **CHAPTER SIX: CONCLUSIONS**

### **6.0 Introduction**

This chapter is in two parts presenting the conclusions of the study. The first section provides a brief summary of the findings. The second section presents the implications of the study and makes a number of recommendations for action in light to the findings. It also highlights suggestion for future research. The chapter ends with a concluding scenario.

### **Part One**

#### **6.1 Summary of the findings**

The PNG government focuses on promoting inclusive education for children with disability through the inclusive education policy. Primary school teachers are a significant professional group, charged with implementing the policy at the Primary School Level through integrating children with disabilities into their regular classrooms. This study has provided a snapshot of teachers' views and experiences on how they are currently implementing PNG's inclusive education policy at two urban regular primary schools in the National Capital District of PNG. While the study aimed to capture factors that facilitated or constrained inclusive education policy implementation in PNG, four themes emerged as findings. They are briefly summarised below as a recapitulation.

##### **6.1.1 Teachers' awareness of the NSEPPG and the concept of inclusive education**

With regard to teachers' awareness of the inclusive education policy document and the concept 'inclusive education', the study revealed a number of problems. Teachers required a hands-on experience of the policy document as a means of gaining in-depth understanding of the concept 'inclusive education'. The policy, seen as a symbolic capital that carries the embodied message of 'inclusion education', was yet to be grappled with by teachers themselves, the frontline implementers of this government innovation. This problem was not the fault of the teachers. They were compromised by a lack of access to this symbolic capital, something they require in order to be part of the field that negotiates educational activities for children with disabilities (see also Grenfell, 2010 ).

### **6.1.2 Practices of inclusion in schools**

The study found that practices of inclusion were carried out to some degree by teachers who really understood the concept of education as a human right for disabled children. Yet this was driven by a nurturing instinct, rather than an inclusive approach. Education for children with special needs was compromised by teachers experiencing limitations in certain areas. These included: administration limitation, skills and knowledge limitation and adaptability and accommodation limitations. Using Bourdieu's concepts of habitus, field and capital, this study found that teachers' habitus in their everyday teaching of children with special needs in the field was not supported by capital when they experienced limitations in these areas (DiGiorgio, 2009), yet they were negotiating their teaching with contextual approaches. This included issues such as resources in the classroom and architectural adaptation of the general school setting, inclusion skills and knowledge. The teachers' ability to effectively implement inclusive education was compromised by the field they were occupying. Because teachers lacked this critical aspect of capital, their perception on children with disabilities remained within the medical model of disability, that children with special needs belonged only in Special Schools (Crow, 1996). Furthermore, they did not see themselves as agents for any change in relation to the ideas that the inclusive education policy encompasses.

### **6.1.3 Teacher preparation and professional development**

The study revealed that teacher preparation in relation to professional development to accommodate changes in the merged education system was yet to be fully or even partially developed. Both pre-service and in-service components of teachers' professional development in relation to working with children with special needs in the class were lacking. Teachers experienced significant real-time challenges when they encountered children with specific learning disabilities in their regular classroom. The units on inclusive education that some had studied during their teacher training were not accompanied by a practicum. As a result teachers were not sufficiently equipped with skills in and knowledge of inclusion. Regrettably, this study showed that teachers in PNG are significantly underprepared to execute inclusive teaching skills effectively as part of the school and classroom structures that are an integral part of the larger education system.

#### **6.1.4 Curriculum assessment and reporting on inclusive education**

The results of the study revealed that reporting on curriculum development for inclusive education was compromised in a number of ways. A lack of inclusive curriculum assessment practices, the lack of reporting and collaboration between the schools and the Department of Education and the lack of motivation and incentives for teachers were found. Teachers did not practise curriculum assessment with inclusive strategies but applied a ‘one size fits all’ perspective, which suggested a lack of collaboration between the teachers, the administration and the policy makers to oversee the happenings in the classroom. The study revealed that practising inclusion coincided with a major educational reform, the Outcome Based Education. Teachers were therefore experiencing a considerable amount of work pressure and thus could not manage inclusive practices in curriculum assessment. Being overwhelmed with implementing the existing OBE with a single teacher responsible for teaching eight subjects to a large class size was a critical factor. Further, teachers’ efforts to implement the OBE and the inclusive education policy were going unrecognised by the government in terms of lack of incentives and rewards for their work, elements that could boost teachers’ morale to teach more keenly (Johnstone & Chapman, 2009; Pijl & Frissen, 2009). The teachers’ habitus to be part of a collaborative field required not only their capital to facilitate inclusive education but support from others within the structure of the field of which the teachers were a part. This vital factor, too, was missing. From what has been revealed in the study, implication of the study is presented in the next section.

### **Part Two**

#### **6.2 Implication of the study**

While the study was strictly limited to two urban primary schools in the National Capital District, the findings provide a clear picture that the implementation of the inclusive education policy in PNG is surrounded by a number of complex issues that require considered attention by those with responsibility to oversee implementation of the policy. Embodied messages derived from international declarations regarding an inclusion education within the Education For All philosophy have not, as yet, been turned into action; rather, factors impeding

processes of action remain. These included, the implementation processes lacking all forms of capital such as teachers lacking awareness of the symbolic capital which is the policy document; cultural capital which is the teachers' inclusion skills and knowledge; and economic capital, which includes a lack of resources and facilities needed to provide a whole school inclusion environment. When capital in these aspects was lacking, teachers' habitus of practising inclusion in the regular schools became complicated. Further, lack of collaboration between the teachers, Principals and the Department of Education has been seen as a factor setting back the development of inclusive education. Consequently, teachers' attempts to practise inclusion were dwarfed by the responsibilities of achieving OBE. As recognition of their efforts to implement existing and new educational policy, teachers wanted additional allowances paid as part of their salary, as a token of appreciation from the government.

Although this study only provides a snapshot of teachers' habitus in implementing inclusive education policy in the National Capital District, it gives a flavour of how inclusive education is also implemented in other countries. Nonetheless, in the context of a developing country, the nature of the results found in the current study aligned to a small degree to those of other countries. It can be seen that the educational exclusion of children with disabilities is often a norm of practice experienced in both developing and developed nations of the world. Likewise, when inclusive education is conceptualised as tool to further the education of citizens of a country, it has yet to make a full impact on the lives of children with disabilities in PNG.

It can be said that while international attention is focusing on achieving the Millennium Development Goals such as Universal Primary Education, PNG have a greater gap to catch up with implementing it through teachers' playing that key role at the School Level. It is hoped that, as a consequence of this research, attention will be re-directed to teacher educators, education department heads, special and inclusive education departments, and government to take significant steps towards improving the current stance towards implementation of PNG's inclusive education policy.

### **6.3 Recommendations**

Arising from the findings of the study, some recommendations can be made in the hope that these will help inclusive education in PNG to develop to the next level in the light of the EFA philosophy of integrating children with disabilities in regular school without practices of exclusion. Firstly, teachers' need to sight the NSEPPG as this document forms the basis for their understanding of inclusive education. The NSEPPG document is seen as a symbolic capital that carries the embodied message of inclusive education; teachers as frontline implementers of the policy need to have a copy of it. The document should be printed and delivered to teachers as part of other curricula documents. Secondly, teachers urgently need practical inclusion skills and knowledge to competently face the challenges of inclusive education. Merging special education with regular education requires skilled inclusive teachers to carry out the government innovation on an inclusion education. It is vital that teachers in our primary schools are equipped with the appropriate skills and knowledge so that our disabled children in PNG are not left behind by the exclusive practices of the regular school system. Skills and knowledge about inclusive education need to be taught to new teachers entering the profession. These skills must be taught at the level of pre-service teacher education. Creating in-service opportunities for teachers in the field is also a key requirement. It is an over-simplification to believe that, once teachers have acquired inclusive skills through the provision of both pre-service and in-service training, their 'capital' will sustain them in the field when they uncover problems. I would therefore recommend that teacher training institutions also provide the practical component of inclusive education so that teachers are well equipped with skills and knowledge when they come face-to-face with children with varying disabilities in their class. Thirdly, I suggest that collaboration between the teachers, administration of the schools, school inspectors and policy makers should begin.

An effective communication, evaluation and feedback loop on the implementation process that can better inform each other of their habitus and the capital that posits them in the education system is now warranted. Finally teacher grievances about incentives and rewards must be heard by the Department of Education as their current work pressures related to achieving the goals of the OBE are affecting the

development of inclusive practices. Teachers should be applauded through recognition of their work in furthering the human right of all disabled children to receiving the very education that is vital for all children's survival in the contemporary world. And as such through education the socio-economic problems experienced by PNG can be reduced.

#### **6.4 Future research**

This study has provided a snapshot view of the inclusive education experiences of primary school teachers in two urban schools especially in Port Moresby. This may suggest that not every primary school in Port Moresby is experiencing the same issues. For this reason, further studies are needed. One study can encompass all regular primary schools in Port Moresby, to see the overall picture of inclusive education in an urban setting. In addition, future research is also needed to examine the views and beliefs of school Principals and school inspectors as well as policy makers to uncover the issues they face regarding implementing the inclusive education policy.

#### **6.5 Concluding scenario**

As this thesis opened with a quote that set the scene for the study regarding practices of exclusion experienced by disabled children over time, it now closes with a quote that reflects the findings and the recommendations of this study. Hence forth, I quote an important observation made by Len Barton:

*Inclusive education is not an end in itself, but a means to end, that of the realization of an inclusive society. Thus, those who claim to a commitment to inclusive education are always implicated in challenging discriminatory, exclusionary barriers and contributing to the struggles for an inclusive society (Len Barton, 2001, cited in Armstrong et al., 2005 p. 84).*

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## LIST OF APPENDICES

### Appendix 1: Approval letter from ethics committee of Waikato University

Dean's Office  
Faculty of Education  
*Te Kura Toi Tangata*  
The University of Waikato  
Private Bag 3105  
Hamilton, New Zealand

Phone +64 7 838 4500  
[www.waikato.ac.nz](http://www.waikato.ac.nz)



THE UNIVERSITY OF  
**WAIKATO**  
*Te Whare Wānanga o Waikato*

#### MEMORANDUM

**To:** Rachael Torombe  
**cc:** Dr Carol Hamilton

**From:** Associate Professor Linda Mitchell  
Chairperson, Research Ethics Committee

**Date:** 17 April 2012

**Subject:** Supervised Postgraduate Research – Application for Ethical Approval (EDU024/12)

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Thank you for submitting the amendments to your application for ethical approval for the research project:

**Teachers' views and experiences of implementation of the Inclusive Education Policy  
in Papua New Guinea: A study of primary schools in the National Capital District**

I am pleased to advise that your application has received ethical approval.

Please note that researchers are asked to consult with the Faculty's Research Ethics Committee in the first instance if any changes to the approved research design are proposed.

The Committee wishes you all the best with your research.

**Associate Professor Linda Mitchell**  
Chairperson  
Faculty of Education Research Ethics Committee

## Appendix 2: Permission letter to the research, policy and communication division Director



Rachael Torombe  
3/5 Inverness Avenue  
Hillcrest  
HAMILTON 3216  
New Zealand

28<sup>th</sup> April, 2012.

The Director  
National Department of Education  
Research, Policy and Communication Division  
Research and Evaluation Section  
P.O.Box 446  
**WAIGANI**  
National Capital District  
Papua New Guinea

Dear Sir/Madam,

**SUBJECT: SEEKING CONSENT TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN TWO PRIMARY SCHOOLS IN THE NATIONAL CAPITAL DISTRICT.**

My name is Rachael Torombe and I am a Master of Education student at the University of Waikato in Hamilton, New Zealand. As part of my study program, I am required to undertake a home-based research that will constitute towards a 40,000 words thesis. I am planning to carry out the research in the National Capital District in Papua New Guinea around mid-May 2012. The topic of my research project is: *“Examining views and experiences of teachers implementing inclusive education policy in Papua New Guinea: A study of two urban primary schools in the National Capital District”*.

The need for this study has arisen out of my personal experiences as a primary school teacher who advocate for disabled children’s right to an education and working with people with disability in PNG. Through this study I hope that any problems associated with the implementation of inclusive education policy can be identified and that I can suggest possible ways to ensure that children with special needs are attending schools alongside with normal children as the inclusive education policy states.

I have attached a copy of the ethical approval letter from the Faculty of Education Ethics Committee at the University of Waikato. I would gratefully now ask a letter from you giving consent to gain access to participants for this research.

Please be assured that during the research process, the confidentiality of the schools and participants involved would be fully respected. The names of the schools and the participants will not be mentioned in any part in my thesis. Instead, a code name will be used. To fulfill requirements for being given permission to undertaken this study by the University of Waikato’s Faculty of

Education Ethics Committee, one finished copy of my thesis will be sent to your office for your information.

As I am currently in New Zealand, I would be grateful for a reply to this letter to be sent to me at the address above. For further verification of my researcher status, you can contact my principal supervisor using the contact details provided below.

Dr. Carol Hamilton  
Senior Lecturer: Department of Human Development and Counseling  
Faculty of Education  
The University of Waikato  
Private Bag 3105  
Hamilton 3240, New Zealand.

Telephone: (64)7 8562889 ext. 8587,  
Fax: (64)7 838 4434 and Email: [hamiltca@waikato.ac.nz](mailto:hamiltca@waikato.ac.nz)

Thank you for your consideration in this matter and I look forward to your reply.

Yours faithfully,

.....  
**Rachael Torombe** (Ms)  
Master of Education student

Phone: (642) 11694154  
E-mail: [rt122@waikato.ac.nz](mailto:rt122@waikato.ac.nz)

### Appendix 3: Approval letter from research, policy and communication Director



DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

WAIGANI

Telephone: 301 3342/3013343  
Fax: 325 4648/3251031  
Email: [Luke\\_Taita@education.gov.pg](mailto:Luke_Taita@education.gov.pg)

Fincorp Haus  
P.O Box 446  
N.C.D  
Papua New Guinea

Date: 17<sup>th</sup> May 2012  
File: PPR1-1-2

Ms Rachael Torombe  
3/5 Inverness Avenue  
Hilcrest  
HAMILTON  
New Zealand

Dear Ms Torombe

**Subject: APPROVAL OF RESEARCH PROPOSAL AND PERMISSION TO CONDUCT STUDY**

Your research proposal title "*Teachers Views and Experiences about the Implementation of Inclusive Education Policy in Papua New Guinea: A study of two primary schools in the National Capital District*" has been approved in principle prior to the Monitoring, Evaluation Research Steering Committee (MERSC) meeting next month.

The approval in principle is given due to the importance of your study. Use this letter as an approval for your data collection in your appointed province, district and institution in Papua New Guinea.

While your research is approved in principle to collect data in educational institutions/s, it is also subject to approval by Provincial Research Committee (where applicable) and/or the Provincial Education Advisor or the principals or head teachers of your nominated schools and institutions. It is your responsibility to ensure such is obtained prior to the field work.

In serious case of breach of ethical issues and Department of Education (DoE) research guidelines the DoE reserves the right to inform your home institution or sponsors directly and take necessary actions as deemed necessary. Failure to observe the above conditions may lead to the withdrawal of research approval.

I thank you and the Committee wishes you all the best with your research.

Yours sincerely

LUKE TAITA

Deputy Secretary-Policy & Corporate Services  
Chairman-Monitoring Evaluation & Research Steering Committee

## Appendix 4: Permission letter to the Education Advisor of National Capital District



Rachael Torombe  
3/5 Inverness Avenue  
Hillcrest  
HAMILTON 3216  
New Zealand

28<sup>th</sup> April, 2012

The Provincial Education Advisor  
National Capital District  
P.O/ Box 68  
Port Moresby  
N.C.D.  
Papua New Guinea.

Dear Sir/Madam,

**SUBJECT: SEEKING CONSENT TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN TWO PRIMARY SCHOOLS IN THE NATIONAL CAPITAL DISTRICT.**

My name is Rachael Torombe and I am a Master of Education student at the University of Waikato in Hamilton, New Zealand. As part of my study program, I am required to undertake a home-based research that will constitute towards a 40,000 words thesis. I am planning to carry out the research in the National Capital District in Papua New Guinea around mid-May 2012. The research topic I have chosen is: The topic of my research project is: *“Examining views and experiences of teachers implementing inclusive education policy in Papua New Guinea: A study of two urban primary schools in the National Capital District”*.

The need for this study has arisen out of my personal experiences as a primary school teacher who advocate for disabled children’s right to an education and working with people with disability in PNG. Through this study I hope that any problems associated with the implementation of inclusive education policy can be identified and that I can suggest possible ways to ensure that children with special needs are attending schools alongside with normal children as the inclusive education policy states.

I have attached a copy of the ethical approval letter from the Faculty of Education Ethics Committee at the University of Waikato. I would gratefully now ask a letter from you giving consent to gain access to participants for this research.

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Education Ethics Committee, one finished copy of my thesis will be sent to your office for your information.

As I am currently in New Zealand, I would be grateful for a reply to this letter to be sent to me at the address above. For further verification of my researcher status, you can contact my principal supervisor using the contact details provided below.

Dr. Carol Hamilton  
Senior Lecturer: Department of Human Development and Counseling  
Faculty of Education  
The University of Waikato  
Private Bag 3105  
Hamilton 3240, New Zealand.

Telephone: (64)7 8562889 ext. 8587,  
Fax: (64)7 838 4434 and Email: [hamiltca@waikato.ac.nz](mailto:hamiltca@waikato.ac.nz)

Thank you for your consideration in this matter and I look forward to your reply.

Yours faithfully,

.....  
**Rachael Torombe** (Ms)  
Master of Education student

Phone: (642) 11694154  
E-mail: [rt122@waikato.ac.nz](mailto:rt122@waikato.ac.nz)

## Appendix 5 : Approval from Education Advisor of National Capital District



### DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION NCD DIVISION OF EDUCATION SERVICES

Telephone: (675) 325 2344  
(675) 325 2345  
(675) 325 2358  
Facsimile: (675) 325 2366

P.O. Box 446  
WAIGANI  
National Capital District  
Papua New Guinea

Date: 23.05.12  
Ref: CM2-5-1

The Principal  
[Redacted] Primary School  
P.O. Box  
**BOROKO**  
National Capital District

Dear [Redacted]:

**SUBJECT: APPROVAL TO CONDUCT RESEARCH AT YOUR SCHOOL BY MS RACHEAL TOROMBE (Med) STUDENT OF UNIFERSITY OF HAMILTON, NZ.**

Approved has been given for Ms Racheal Torombe ( Med) student to conduct her reseach at your school.

I kindly request for your co-operation and support to assist Ms Racheal Torombe in her research study.

Thank you for your understanding and support in this regard.



**HENAO TAU NAUNA (ML)**  
Assistant Secretary  
NCD Education Services

cc: Ms Racheal Torombe (Med) Student  
cc: Senior Standard Officer (Primary)  
cc: File

## Appendix 6: Principal's sample letter



Rachael Torombe  
3/5 Inverness Avenue  
Hillcrest,  
HAMILTON 3216  
New Zealand

28<sup>th</sup> April, 2012.

The Principal  
..... Primary School  
P.O.Box....  
Boroko  
National Capital District  
Papua New Guinea

Dear Sir/Madam,

### **SUBJECT: INVITATION TO PARTICIPANTS TO AN EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH AT YOUR SCHOOL**

My name is Rachael Torombe and I am a Master of Education student at the University of Waikato in Hamilton, New Zealand. As part of my study program I am required to write a research based thesis and hope to begin the research in May, 2012. The topic of my intended research is: *“Examining views and experiences of teachers implementing inclusive education policy in Papua New Guinea: A study of two urban primary schools in the National Capital District”*. The PNG government had developed an inclusive education policy supporting children with disabilities’ to attend regular schools and receive education. My study aims to gather teachers’ views and experiences about implementing this policy in the primary schools. I have chosen your school to participant in this study and this letter is a form of invitation to your teachers to take part in my study.

The need for this study has arisen out of my personal experience as a primary school teacher who advocates for disabled children’s education and working with people with disability in PNG. Through this study I hope that any problems associated with the implementation of the inclusive education policy can be identified. The study can show possible ways to ensure that children with disabilities are attending schools alongside with normal children as the policy states. I have also attached an information sheet about the study with this letter.

Please be assured that during the research process, your school and the research participants would be fully respected. That means the name of your school or participants from your school will not be mentioned in any part of my thesis. Instead, a code name will be used. As a proof of completion of study, one finished copy of my MEd thesis can be sent to your school at your request.

As I am currently in New Zealand, I would be grateful if you reply to this letter to the address above. Please let me know at your earliest if you are willing to give me permission to conduct this study in your school so I can contact you by phone to discuss further arrangement with you. If you require further verification regarding this research, you can contact my principal supervisor on her contact details below.

Dr. Carol Hamilton  
Senior Lecturer  
Department of Human Development and Counseling  
Faculty of Education  
The University of Waikato  
Private Bag 3105  
Hamilton 3240, New Zealand.

Telephone: (64)7 8562889 ext. 8587,  
Fax: (64)7 838 4434 and Email: [hamiltca@waikato.ac.nz](mailto:hamiltca@waikato.ac.nz).

I look forward to hearing from you.

Yours faithfully,

.....

**Rachael Torombe** (Ms)  
Master of Education student

Phone: (642) 11694154  
E-mail: [rt122@waikato.ac.nz](mailto:rt122@waikato.ac.nz)

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## **Appendix 7: Participant information sheet**

### **My background**

Hi, my name is Rachael Torombe. I am currently enrolled for the Master of Education program at the Faculty of Education at Waikato University in Hamilton, New Zealand.

Prior to this current study, I have graduated from the University of Goroka with a Bachelor of Education in 2007. I have three years teaching experience at the Upper Primary Schools and one year working as an advocacy officer in a national disabled people's organization. My own experiences as a working with children with special needs in the regular schools and the paper "Contemporary Issues in Disability and Inclusion Studies at the University of Waikato has motivated me to undertake research on the "implementation of inclusive education (IE) policy at the primary school level" for my master's degree thesis.

The intended study is designed to explore your views and experiences as teachers who are implementing the IE policy at our schools. It is anticipated that this research will show how the IE policy has impacted your profession as a teacher and how you execute your duties and responsibilities. It is also intended that this research is important in ways: First, it will add new knowledge from what gained in this study through teachers experiences in PNG to what already exist in the literature about inclusive education known in other parts of the world. Second, this study will inform the stakeholders in our education system to be aware of the status of inclusive education policy implementation particularly at the Primary School level in the National Capital District (N.C.D).

The research is guided by the following questions

1. What are teachers' understandings of IE policy?
2. How are teachers implementing the IE policy?
3. What are teachers' views and experiences about teacher preparation and professional development opportunities in relation to developing inclusive education practices in line with the policy?
4. How are teachers doing curriculum assessment procedures and reporting on inclusive education practices?

### *Your part in this study*

This is an opportunity for you to share your views and experiences as being a teacher implementing our government's policy on inclusive education. You will be asked to give your views in a focus group discussion, with a possible follow-up individual interview. Your commitment to this study will be scheduled so that your teaching sessions are not disrupted. The time for the focus group discussion can be mutually agreed by what time best suits all the participants.

### *Confidentiality and ethical considerations*

With your permission the focus group discussion and any follow-up interview will be recorded in a digital audio radio. Your participation is voluntarily and permission is gained prior by you signing a consent form. You will be kindly asked not to disclose the identity or names of other members in the focus groups or to disclose any information discussed. Instead all shared information should be kept strictly confidential.

### *Publication*

The final written report for this research will be submitted to the University of Waikato as a requirement for the completion of my Masters of Education program. The findings may also be shared through academic presentations and seminars and publications in academic journals. I am likely to present the research findings to the PNG National Research Institute for them to further

make recommendations to the policy. At your request, a copy of the finished thesis will be sent to the Head Teacher of your school to be made available to you.

*Supervisor*

My supervisor for my research project is Dr. Carol Hamilton at the University Of Waikato, Faculty of Education. You are free to contact her if you have any concerns about this project. Her contact details are: Telephone: (64)7 8562889 ext. 8587, Fax: (64)7 838 4434 and Email: [hamiltca@waikato.ac.nz](mailto:hamiltca@waikato.ac.nz)

## **Appendix 8: Participant invitation letter**

Date: 7<sup>th</sup> May, 2012

Dear \_\_\_\_\_

*Subject: An invitation for your participation in a research project.*

I wish to cordially invite you to participate in a research project that I am currently undertaking as part of my thesis in Masters of Education program at the University of Waikato, Hamilton, New Zealand. The research project is titled "*Examining views and experiences of teachers implementing inclusive education policy in Papua New Guinea: A study of two urban primary schools in the National Capital District*".

The research is designed to explore teachers' views and experiences in implementing PNG's inclusive education policy in schools. I hope that by capturing your views and experiences through this research will shed new light on the current experiences of primary school teachers implementing this essential government policy. I believe that this research project is one way to enhance our understanding of what teachers need in order to achieve best practice in integration and inclusion of students in the regular schools in our education system in the future.

I have further elaborated this research project on the attached participant information sheet, including what your roles and rights are if you wish to participate. You will be asked to sign the attached Informed Consent Form to indicate your consent to participating in this study.

I hope you will join me and become part of this research initiative.

Yours faithfully

\_\_\_\_\_  
Rachael Torombe  
(Student Researcher)

## Appendix 9: Participant consent form

### Participant consent form

I have read the participant's information sheet and had all questions about the research project answered.

I understand that the researcher will not identify me personally in any way in presentation or publication while reporting the research.

I understand that the researcher will delete all electronic files after full transcriptions have been made.

I understand that the researcher will only keep textual data (transcripts) for the required period of five years.

I understand that I have the right to:

- withdraw from the research at any time before transcriptions are made
- remove or add to interview transcripts if I am included in a follow-up interview

I understand who I can contact if I have any concerns and doubts about this research.

I consent to:

- Participation in the focus group
- Having the researcher collect and analyze my views and experiences as a teacher as part of the participation process.

I consent to being asked to participate in a follow-up interview if I wish to elaborate individually.

Name: \_\_\_\_\_

Signature: \_\_\_\_\_

Date: \_\_\_\_\_

## **Appendix 10: Focus group interview questions**

School: .....

Date: .....

Time:.....

### **Inclusive Education Policy and the concept of inclusive education**

1. Explain how much you know about the NSEPPG or the inclusive education policy in PNG.
2. Explain what you know about the concept “inclusive education”.

### **Implementation of inclusive education**

3. Tell me about how you implement the inclusive education policy in your school.
4. Explain how you enroll students with disabilities in your school?
5. Tell me about school policies that support you to implement the IE policy?
6. How does the school as a whole consider the needs of all the students when planning the school curriculum and programs?
7. How does the overall school/classroom environment allow students with disabilities to attend school?
8. Explain how you encourage children with disability to come to the regular school?

### **Teacher preparation and professional development opportunities for inclusive education**

9. Tell me about your professional development opportunities to be an inclusive teacher.
10. Tell me about things you do in the school/ classroom to include children with disability?
11. What do you think about the allocation of responsibility of a teacher to the number of children with disability in the classroom?
12. Tell me about your confidence to teach/enroll students with disabilities in your school?
13. Can you tell me the kind of teaching strategies that are available to support students with disabilities in your school?

### **Curriculum assessment practice and reporting on inclusive education**

14. Tell me how you consider and practice testing and assessment procedures during tests and exams for children with disabilities.
15. How does the school use the assessment strategies to meet the needs of all the students in the school?
16. Tell me how often you report on inclusive education from your school.

### **Probing question types**

Tell me more about....?

Why did you say that....?

Can you explain...? Or can you clarify...?

What did you mean by that...?

What is an example of ...?

Individual follow-up interview is optional and will arise for a participant who has a burning issue and wish to express his or her views alone to the researcher. However, only one participant will be allowed for this session.

**Questions.**

1. What did you want to say that you did not want others to hear?
2. Why do you support that view?
3. Why do you disagree with that view?

End of interview session and thank you very much for your time.

**Rachael Torombe** ( student researcher)

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## Appendix 11: Research schedule

Dates	Activities	Comments
17/04/2012	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Gain permission for research through University of Waikato, Faculty of Education Ethics committee</li> </ul>	
17-23/05/2012	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Gain permission to conduct research in PNG</li> </ul>	
24/05/2012	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Gain access to participants</li> </ul>	
28/05/2012	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Information session with teachers about the research</li> <li>Completion of consent forms</li> <li>Negotiations with participants for focus group interview</li> </ul>	
30/05/2012	Focus group interviews	
30/05/2012	Individual follow up interviews	
06-17/06/2012	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Transcriptions of focus group interviews</li> </ul>	
6-17/06/2012	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Transcription of follow-up individual interview</li> </ul>	
19/06/2012	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>All selective transcription for focus group is summarized and given in one single sheet for their viewing.</li> <li>Only individual interviewees cross check and modify the transcribed data</li> </ul>	
21/06/2012	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Attend to participants queries on transcribed data</li> <li>Discuss any issue concerning data with participants</li> </ul>	
22/06/2012 - 22/07/2012	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Organization and analysis of data</li> <li>Preparing and organizing the data phase</li> <li>Data exploration and reduction phase</li> </ul>	

This timeline is likely to change during the research process to cater for any unexpected changes that may occur before, during or after the research.