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INCLUSION:
A CHALLENGE TO TODAY'S SCHOOLS



A thesis
submitted in fulfilment
of the requirements for the Degree
of
Doctor of Philosophy in Education
at the
University of Waikato

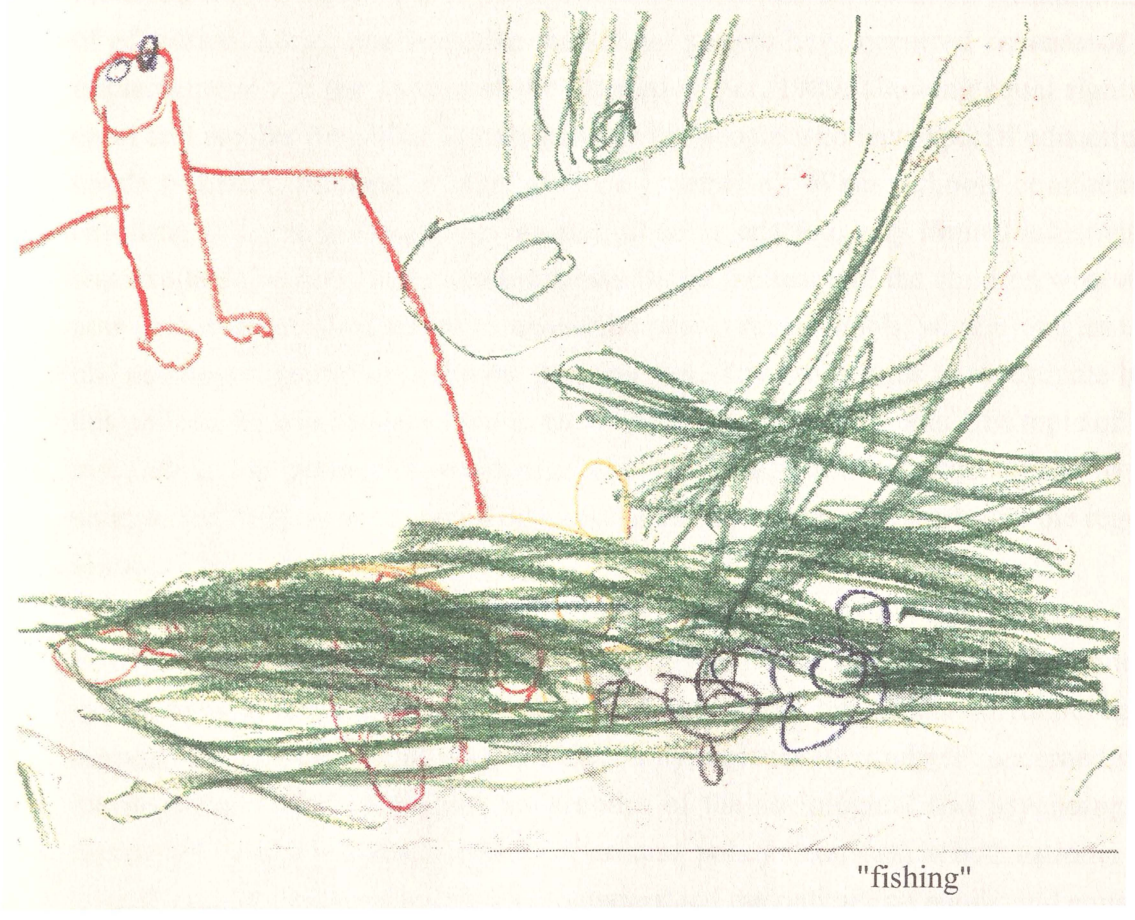
by

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University of Waikato
1995



For the children



"fishing"

ABSTRACT

The mandate given in the Education Act, 1989 opened the doors for students with special educational and developmental needs to enrol in any state school. As with the Draft Review of Special Education (Department of Education, 1987) and the policy announced in the Education Gazette (Department of Education, 1988), there was no explicit commitment to the inclusion of all children with educational or developmental needs into the classrooms with their peers. The terms mainstreaming, integration or inclusion are not mentioned in the legislation which was to reform the administration of education. Major challenges to the school system have occurred because of the implementation of the section of the Education Act, 1989, allowing equal rights to enrol and receive education at state schools for people who have special educational needs (whether because of disability or otherwise). When schools commenced enrolling children following this legislation being enacted, very limited information was available on how they intended to handle the inclusion of the children who were now able to be enrolled and to receive education at state schools, what strategies they had developed and what problems they foresaw. This study aims to investigate how this philosophy was implemented in the everyday life of five schools. The topic of this research is the perception of change and the change process with regard to the inclusion of children with special educational and developmental needs into the regular school.

Firstly, to place the study in context, an analysis of the theoretical background to inclusion is given, together with a critical account of the debate surrounding its introduction, both here and overseas. Secondly, because the study is concerned with the implementation of change, an account of the sociological and psychological theories of change is given. A review of existing policy statements at both national and school level has been made in order to understand the policies on equity and equality with regard to children with special educational needs.

Information on the implementation of inclusion practices in the everyday life of five schools was gained using an ethnographic method, which was the major approach of this enquiry. Observational practices, followed by interviews, have provided in depth information and clarification of points of concern which arose during fieldwork.

The results indicate that inclusion is occurring in these schools and has been reasonably successful, except for one major group of children, those with emotional and behavioural disorders. The success has been indicated by:

- the whole school approach to children with special educational and developmental needs, evident in the school culture and the leadership of the principal;
- the pleasure expressed by professional staff and parents at the academic and social progress made by individual children in the schools;
- the supportive and caring attitudes demonstrated by the peers;
- the individual feedback to the teachers and teachers aides, from the children concerned with inclusion who show thanks, friendship, involvement and responsiveness;
- the knowledge of the staff that they are being successful in influencing the lives of these children;
- the collegiality of professional staff which has developed in the schools with regard to all children, but especially the children with special educational and developmental needs;
- the feedback to the principals, teachers and teachers aides from parents, as a result of teacher support and their children's progress in the school community.

There are problems and unsolved issues, though, and these are:

- contextual difficulties associated with large classes and demands on time, with no allowance made for managing incidents or release time to prepare programmes or resources;
- the lack of teacher aide assistance in some of the classrooms, made worse by withdrawal or reduction of discretionary hours, added to a sense of disillusionment over inclusion. Therefore the allocation of resources to schools proved to be a contentious issue;
- the irritation caused when frequent Ministry of Education directives indicating the changing policy failed to change the basic difficulties the schools felt they faced;
- the perceived inadequacy of staff development and the limited training available for teachers and teachers aides;
- environmental factors which included historic architecture with small rooms, and a lack of appropriate furniture or equipment;

- behavioural incidents, student confrontations, lack of discipline and attendance problems on the part of some students;
- lack of parental support in association with this last group of children.

The fact that inclusion succeeds to the degree it does, in the schools in the study, is because the school culture supports the change, there is decision-making occurring at the school level which energizes this educational change and the professional staff have taken responsibility on a personal basis. However, this is causing stress and strain in some areas and readjustment is occurring at staff level to maintain the equilibrium of the mechanism of inclusion. There is no answer as to how long the school staff, parents and students in these schools can reconcile the difficulties which have been presented in this present research.

This study has demonstrated that educational change occurs on many levels and involves decision-making in different arenas of the social system. The complexity of the change process has been examined in the light of the people who have been involved and affected by inclusion, where indeed it has proved to be a very personal experience. The state of educational change which has led to the implementation of inclusion has been tested by the strategies used by the government. A plan outlined by Chin and Benne (1964) indicates that the 'power-coercive strategy' which has required inclusion to occur, has not been followed by a financial commitment to the change. Because of the leadership style and values associated with the schools in the study, inclusion has been implemented with varying success, but it is the use of 'normative-re-educative' and 'empirical-rational strategies' by the principals that have ensured that inclusion has been attained. In the terms of C. Wright Mills, the schools indicated a powerlessness because there were only limited options that could be used in the personal milieu of the staff, boards of trustees and parents. This occurred because those factors which would affect their outlook concerning educational changes and specifically inclusion, were outside their ability to control. For C. Wright Mills, decision-making characterises power, and power implies that there are possibilities of choice in determining which priorities are assigned to certain individuals or groups within a social system. In the course of this research it became evident that the real power of decision-making over limited resources lay with the Minister and the Ministry of Education, while the school community made decisions affecting the professional staff and children at a local level. Bertrand Russell defined power as "the production of intended effects" and distinguished three forms of influence: the use of incentives, deterrents, and coercion (Russell, in Clark, 1974, p.66). Using these approaches the government has followed with ambiguity the world wide trend to

inclusion. The schools now find they have the responsibility for a group of children with special educational and developmental needs, without the power to have any but the most basic and personal choices. This thesis details how five schools have taken up this challenge.

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Chapter One

Introduction

1.0. Introduction

With the passing of the Education Act, 1989, major reforms of education in New Zealand came into force. The result was that change occurred at two levels. Firstly, education was restructured in such a way as to increase the choice and decision-making status of parents. Secondly, by addressing the rights of all children to enrolment and education, the doors were opened for students with special educational and developmental needs to enrol in any state school. Although mainstreaming, integration or inclusion were not mentioned in the legislation, this ideology was the accepted ideal for New Zealand education. The mandate given in the Education Act, 1989 has a direct impact on the children and the parents who enter the system, as well as on the professionals and the boards of trustees associated with the schools. The implementation of the philosophy of inclusion poses major challenges for the school system. While there was considerable information available on specific aspects of inclusion in particular environments, very limited information existed on how schools intended to handle inclusion, what strategies they had developed and what problems they foresaw. This study aims to investigate how this philosophy was implemented in everyday life of several schools. Interest was also directed at perceived changes in the school from the viewpoint of the parents, students, professional staff and boards of trustee members. The topic of this research is the perception of change and the change process with regard to the inclusion of children with special educational and developmental needs into the regular school.

1.1 Background Influences to Inclusion

Inclusion has been influenced, firstly by the legislation which supports it, and secondly by those people whose lives have also been affected by the introduction of the process. The theorists on social and educational change provide various interpretations on the events which occur when reorganisation occurs in a societal structure like a school. To place inclusion in perspective and as an introduction to the research, these three areas will be considered.

1.1.1 Legislation. Although New Zealand has historically had an acceptance of the value of educating children with special educational needs in regular schools, a dual system of special and regular education was in practice at the time of the passage of the Education Act, 1989. By the 1980s, the world wide trend to meet the social and educational needs of all persons considered to be disabled in the mainstream education system had started to be assimilated into the social conscience of

New Zealand. Accepting that the value system of a society is reflected in the legislation enacted by a representative assembly or parliament, one would assume that there would have been specific reference in the Education Act to inclusion as an ideology. It was not so, but the administrative reforms had major implications for those children who were to be included in the classrooms of state schools. The most critical aspects were decision-making and resource allocation. Since the Education Act, 1989, was passed, decision making has not passed completely from the Ministry of Education to boards of trustees but has been divided with certain "critical powers being vested in the centre and others only conditionally being devolved to the school" (Mitchell et al., 1993, p.112). These authors consider the resulting structure to be more a form of decentralisation rather than devolution. The administrative reforms changed the balance of decision making. Decentralisation of decision making in general education became very pertinent for management of children with special educational needs in the classrooms by schools. As shall be demonstrated in the course of this study, schools considered that critical decisions regarding the allocation of resources and especially discretionary hours, were made by the government through the Ministry of Education, while the delivery of support services as well as decisions and responsibilities with regard to educational programmes, were being placed firmly with boards of trustees and principals in local schools. As the government continued to consult, review and propose new policies on children with special educational needs in schools, these same schools were enrolling and providing individual educational programmes for their children. These constantly changing policy approaches were intermeshed with the administrative restructuring which resulted from the Education Act, 1989.

The transference of responsibility to schools from central government had considerable effect on the implementation of inclusion. At a time when newly appointed boards of trustees were coming to terms with their new administrative roles and responsibilities, there were further demands made on them with respect to a group of children enrolled in their schools, those with special educational needs. While under considerable pressure, the charter was required to be written, policy writing commenced and budgeting knowledge was quickly gained. Principals carried a heavy load during this period of setting up self managing schools, as they provided a leadership role and generally set the foundations for the development of the school culture. The complexity of the introduction of inclusion into the schools has been compounded by the meshing together of the administrative reforms and the gradual development and changes in special needs education. Against this constantly moving backdrop, inclusion has become fact in many schools. We know little of the effect of

these changes on schools. It is probable that these uncertainties have had some negative effect, either on the staff or on the children.

Consideration will now be given to the theory of educational change, and the more personal strategies that have been required to implement the legislation formulated by persons removed from the results of that decision making. Whereas *Tomorrow's Schools* (Lange, 1988) was intended to rectify such a gap in implementation, there were criticisms made regarding such assertions (Codd and Gordon, 1991; Nash, 1989). These authors contend that by the use of the contractual agreements inherent in the school charters, the government has been able to decentralise the responsibility for the allocation of resources while at the same time maintaining control over the total economic supply.

1.1.2 Persons involved in the educational change which is inclusion.

Recognition must be given to educational change as an ongoing process involving many people with differing backgrounds and personal values. Educational change includes the total school culture, the leadership provided by the principal, the promotion of friendships and social interaction, and possibly changing timetables, teaching methods and curricula to use available staff to advantage. There are several groups of people who are directly affected by policy changes leading to the inclusion of all children into the regular education system. These include the principals, the teachers and ancillary staff, the parents, the specialist advisers and the children, regardless of their ability or disability. The school has a need to adapt its educational programme to cater for a wider range of differences amongst pupils. This requires flexibility in providing a variety of programmes, the provision of special techniques which those in the school may have to learn, or the use of adapted material to suit the needs of individual learners. There is more to the inclusion of a child into the regular school system than simply changing from a special school or 'just being there'. Inclusion as a concept is defined here as the maximum advancement of a child with developmental or educational needs in the same learning environment as their peers, with adequate support provided in their own community. Integration in general terms implies the provision of equal access or the removal of barriers to some event or action. Integration as simple placement is not inclusion. Schools must back up their policy of including children with special educational needs by concerted action. Integration in the context of this thesis means the removal of barriers which can exist in the ethos of a school, the curricula and timetabling procedures, patterns of interactions and relationships, and pedagogy (Bailey, 1992; Giorcelli, 1992; Hegarty, 1982).

Following the passing of the Education Act, 1989, the traditional role of the principal changed as school management was added to professional and educational leadership (Barrington, 1992). At the same time as administrative reform required the principals to extend their roles, they became aware of the need for funds to support the services they were required to put in place in the school and to nurture the aims and goals written into charter documents. Boards of trustees were required in their governance role to write the aims and goals in the charter which would later underpin school policy statements. For the majority of trustees, the area of disability was a new experience which they learned with the support of their principal.

Possibly teachers were the group most affected by the change occurring in special education. They frequently found themselves with children in their classrooms for whom they had no previous knowledge or experience in managing, teaching or relating to. There had been limited, or in many cases no preparation for this change, so as well as coming to terms with their new situation, teachers were also required to be a catalyst for change. With the arrival of *Tomorrow's Schools*, teachers' management of time became crucial as there were increased pressures from the extra meetings required to counter the demands of charter writing, policy development and a massive increase in paperwork (Mansell, 1992; Wylie, 1989). The increased workloads led to stress and dissatisfaction which was associated with activities which competed with hands-on teaching (Wylie, 1994, p.71). The writing of Individual Educational Programmes (IEPs) which were necessary, firstly, for the application for support services for children with special educational needs in schools and, secondly, for the appropriate teaching plans for these children in the classrooms, was an additional task required of teachers. Therefore, at a stage when there were already increased demands on teachers' time, further additional demands were made for teachers to plan for this group of children.

To assist the classroom teacher with these extra demands on time and person, the appointment of teachers aides was the accepted action. Although teachers aides had previously been on the staffs of many schools throughout the country, their use has expanded considerably since the passage of the Education Act, 1989. This is because the teacher aide has become a crucial part of the inclusion process, but in the early stages of the change when schools were welcoming newly enrolled children with disabilities, the acceptance of untrained staff was muted. Many parents wanted their children to have the expertise of trained and certificated teachers. Training in outside institutions was considered expensive and in the early stages of *Tomorrow's Schools*

the use of school based teacher development was considered a more efficient use of funds (Calder, 1992). The schools were in the situation of having to hastily train newly appointed teachers aides to very specific roles. It fell to the lot of many teachers to train and inculcate the skills they desired in the teachers aides they were to work with. Complicating this scheme, however, was the insecurity of the teacher aide position, as it depended in many cases on the schools being successful in gaining discretionary hours from the Ministry of Education. As these hours were applied for, term by term, for individual children and the number requiring these hours was increasing at a faster rate than the hours available, the future for people in these positions was tenuous (Parent Teacher Association, 1991, p.31). Also, in some schools where there were few children or maybe just one child requiring teacher aide support, it became a challenge to the school to make the teacher aide position a viable one.

The parents of all children in schools are involved in some way in the inclusion process. This involvement may be indirect, by being a parent of a peer supporting a child in the classroom, or direct, by being the parent of a child with special educational needs. In the schools, there were new paths to tread for parents and their newly enrolled children. Over the many months following the passage of the Education Act, 1989 there was a fermentation of feelings as parents, government representatives and educational professionals consulted, negotiated, and made decisions over proposed closures of special schools and classes (Dominion, June 17, 1990; Taranaki Daily News, June 12, 1991; Dominion, June 7, 1992). The result was that there was considerable apprehension, informed and uninformed debate and media coverage providing the general public with the positive aspects of both sides of a dual education system (Education Times, Dominion, April 22, 1990; Dominion, July 6 , 1990). A dual education system is defined here as the presence of both inclusive and special education facilities, such as special schools and units, sharing the resources available for all children with special educational needs. As inclusion has continued and expected resources and support have either not been forthcoming or directly denied, the debate has continued with the use of the media as an avenue of pressure to gain results (Future Indicative, National Programme, December 18, 1994). Of importance for some parents was the Parent Advocacy Council, which had been established to provide information and to assist parents with various problems associated with education. It was abolished a year after its formation. This left the Ombudsman and the Human Rights Commission as the only avenues of parental assistance at a high level of authority.

Finally, in this group of persons with personal involvement in inclusion, are the children who have become involved in the change process. There have been vast social learning experiences occurring in schools as children have come to terms with differences amongst themselves. Various programmes have been put in place in the school curriculum to teach understanding and skills to interact with classmates who are different. The approach has not emphasised disability but individuality, uniqueness and acceptance that it is acceptable to be different, and that it is necessary to respect that quality. The degree to which this has happened in schools depends on the school culture, leadership and professional staff. These skills and approaches have developed through decision making at local level and as a result of social change.

The next section will consider the theoretical implications of change which are relevant to inclusion. The theorists referred to provide an understanding of the relationship between disability and the socio-economic base, values, ideas and belief systems, as well as models for investigating change processes.

1.1.3 Theoretical implications. The sociology of disability has arisen out of a need to reassess the traditional ways in which policy making for a section of the population deemed disabled, impaired or handicapped has been realised. The historical theorists have, in their theories of change, offered their explanations of the organisation of sections of society commonly viewed as being in the minority and lacking in power. The Marxist theory of change included ideas concerning the 'oppressed' and related this to the socio-economic base and the means of production in the greater society. Weber considered social change from the same stance, but considered it to be associated with cultural values and beliefs, rather than with eventual confrontation in the form of social revolution. Both Marx and Weber provide an understanding of why past services to those deemed disabled have demanded funding and support to maintain a position in society which lacks a power base, and frequently meant segregation and isolation from the means of economic production. Values and ideas were also the basis for Durkheim's theory of social change, as was also the importance of economic production, but he associated this change with integration in society and those who were outside the group solidarity of the society were in a state of anomie. It was the constant movement towards integration, which resulted from societal ideas and values, that resulted in change.

Change means the recognition of values, ideas, and belief systems so that a consolidation of all that is meaningful to the social group occurs, and participation and community involvement results. If there is a rift between the culturally defined

inclinations and the social structures through which these may be realised, then disorganisation or anomie occurs. Inclusion challenges a widely held view that disability as a role is inherently unequal. Society has historically seen disability as a negative trait with a social status which implies need which can be relieved by resources and the actions of certain persons. When inclusive practices are put in place, the value systems of those in positions of authority and decision making are called to question. If inclusion is seen as a moral issue, then deeply held beliefs are challenged with possibly some discomfort to some people in society. This was the position the state schools were placed in following the Education Act, 1989, when they were legally required to enrol and provide equal education to all regardless of 'ability or disability'. The governance and management sectors of the school were required, because of this legislation, to look at the values and beliefs systems of their school communities. Following that appraisal, there had to be a move to consolidate the belief systems of all those people who were involved in any capacity in the school. The school culture and the leadership of the schools needed to directly address the issue of their stance on disability and special educational needs, and consider what it meant for the school. Starting from the recognition of difference, the whole school had to undergo a series of changes to meet the terms of inclusion. The result was a series of educational changes which included aspects of documentation, pedagogical, curricula, social and personal features. There were two factors to be considered in these changes; the first was the reaction to the meaning of the legislation which allowed inclusion to occur, and the second involved people in a professional and personal capacity. How did they perceive the changes which inclusion caused?

In order to answer this question, it became necessary to understand the position held by those persons involved in the inclusion process and to comprehend how they viewed disability in the context of the school community. To this end, the social system as described by the structuralist-functionalists, as for example Parsons (in Lauer, 1982), was used. It demonstrated a system in equilibrium with cohesiveness being maintained by shared ideas and values. The social system they describe, made up of units whose smallest part is a role, provided a model for studying the school. By defining the patterns of behaviour of all the role incumbents in relationship to each other, it was possible to comprehend the norms and values of the school. These set patterns of behaviour or typifications which formed during face to face encounters of the role incumbents, formed the social structures which were the school. As it was necessary to understand as much as possible of the interactions, feelings and relationships of all those involved in the schools the reality construct approach of the advocates of the sociology of knowledge was used to understand and define

situations. (Berger and Luckman, 1967, Schutz, in Cohen and Manion, 1994). From this approach, it is possible to come closer to the complexity of inclusion and an understanding that the change which is occurring is basically the change in reality constructs; the subjective realities on one hand, and the objective realities of policies and programmes on the other.

Recognition was also required of the reaction to legislative decisions and the effect on those who were to implement the changes. At this point, the work of Etzioni (in Lauer, 1982), and Chin and Benne (1964) have proved useful. The strategies of change devised by these theorists have direct implications for educational change and particularly this study, and shall be discussed further in chapter 4. All three strategies: empirical-rational, normative-re-educative and power-coercive were found to have been used by those wishing to introduce changes related to inclusion. The first two strategies were frequently used by the principals, while the latter strategy was favoured by the Minister and Ministry of Education.

Policy decisions were made on the basis of research findings from overseas and in New Zealand. General dissatisfaction still exists in some sections of society, in spite of considerable consultation with parties directly involved in the educational changes of special education. This is partly because the driving force for changes in special education have come from government policies, guidelines, and legislation enacted beyond the classrooms and the school. Therein possibly lies the problem. However, well intentioned the policies are, to those who provide the impetus for their development or for those who initiate them, there are consequences to the lives of those who must implement or be influenced by those changes. The gap that exists between policy initiatives and the reality of school life is summed up by Hall and Loucks (in Lieberman and McLaughlin, 1982) in their statement, "neither policy makers nor practitioners have sufficient cognizance of the others and their worlds" (p.134). Taking this idea as a starting point for a research programme on the process of change involved in the integration of children with special educational needs, an attempt has been made to look at how policies were implemented in the schools and what expectations were held by all parties concerned. In this way it has been possible to record the realities of daily school routine in association with the inclusion of children and to discover what promotes 'ownership' of this ideology.

As a researcher, my personal direction and past experience influenced both my role in the schools and the way I organised the study, and this should be recorded.

1.2 Personal Direction

My life experiences have been central to the directions I have taken in the course of this research project. They have the longitudinal approach which comes with maturity, and include a diversity which arises out of practical involvement with people. The participant observer status was chosen over and above all other forms of research methodology because it allowed me to be directly involved with the subjects of my research and to know them on a personal footing. In this way I could learn to recognise their concerns, watch how they adapted their style of teaching, organisation, supervision, and discipline as it happened. It also allowed me to witness moments which were stressful or painful and to listen to the explanations of what happened. In listening I may have been helpful. Many of these episodes would never have been reported in a written questionnaire, or even a formal interview, because it took the rapport and trust which came into the relationships to allow these times to occur without censorship or control. Sharing the positive parts of classroom activity, along with the more difficult moments was immensely satisfying but also extremely tiring at times. This in itself allowed me to fully understand the feelings of the teachers who had the responsibility and accountability for up to 37 pupils, including their two to three children with special educational needs. This is how I justify using this form of research methodology, but there is also a personal need for my having this approach. The methodology used in this thesis is discussed in Chapter 5.

My background in the early days of my career was medically based and I was very idealistic in those days. My post-graduate studies took me to Stoke Mandeville Hospital in England for a year. During this time, although I did not know it, I set up the background to my knowledge of disability and all it meant, to those who are so labelled. During my time at this hospital, by observation and participation I became involved in dramatic parts of many lives. Many of these patients remain in my thoughts today. I learned about the value of life from an 18 year old, who through his friends' skylarking had a horrendous fire in a car in which he was a passenger. For three months we dressed his burns daily and throughout this time he was a cheerful, constantly wise-cracking guy we enjoyed being with. We caused him considerable pain during his dressings but he never made us feel responsible, and we admired his fortitude and his outlook on life. One day prior to his discharge he asked me a direct question, "Tell me, what use am I? Who would want me? I am a burden. I won't be able to work with these"? "These", were his hands which were like claws and almost immobile, his face was gone, and he had massive plastic surgery to look forward to in the future. He had left school with no qualifications at age 15, and his future was in

unskilled work. In that moment I was faced with a reply that I knew was vitally important to him. After weeks of platitudes and half truths, he was seeking honesty with reassurance. I can't remember how I did in the test of personal skills but I do remember that I learned about individuality, the value of life and how much we can learn from other people in a face to face relationship.

Why was this important to me? Up until that stage of my career I had lived and worked in the world of medicine where the medical profession were supreme and the patients obliged, received, accepted and were grateful. The professions held the knowledge and the power. I had been present as the 'staff support' in the maternity ward while the obstetrician and paediatrician recommended to parents that they have their newly born baby institutionalised because he was born with Down's Syndrome. I had resuscitated babies because the ethics of my position stated that you saved life at any cost. In hindsight, was that cost too great for those who bore the brunt of lifetime care? I had farewelled parents from hospital in the knowledge that they faced an uphill battle with children who would possibly have cerebral palsy following difficult deliveries. I had followed instructions and kept grossly deformed babies warm and comfortable until they died. Once I moved from obstetrics and child welfare into psychopaedics, I witnessed the dehumanising effect of institutional life. A demographic survey done in the 1970s as part of my Master's degree course work for demography, demonstrated how the life career of an individual could be recorded on one page of a chart. The descriptive reason for 'hospitalisation' was given as moron, imbecile or idiot. During this time I had the freedom of the hospital, the records and interaction with the staff and 'patients' and I realised how much could be learned by just being there. This time at a psychiatric institution led to working with parents on a voluntary basis and listening to their frustrations. One overwhelming need they had was to get the professionals that they were in constant contact with to listen to them. They felt they were the experts as far as their own children were concerned and they wanted to tell their story of disability from the parents viewpoint. Bringing this to the professionals' notice was a challenge, and the journey along this path progressed to recording the sociology of families who experienced the constant care of severely-profoundly 'retarded' children. This material was added to growing parental pressure for relief and financial assistance to help with the home care of children with multiple disabilities. Throughout the years of involvement with families, children and professionals in many fields the contact has always been on a very personal basis, with observation and listening as the means of gaining knowledge.

Working overseas, in an establishment from which we sent extremely physically disabled young adults off to college every day, was an experience. This was in the early 1980s and on arriving back in this country, the first suggestions of moving those institutionalised out into the community were occurring. Also during this trip away, an open invitation to spend time attending lectures and seminars in early intervention programmes and developmental disorders at the University of Washington, Seattle, Wa., occurred. This opportunity turned me from the medical to the educational aspects of disability.

These life experiences directed my professional involvement and attitudes to disability and how society manages those categorised by this state. I believe the dignity and pride of individual persons are important as also are human rights. You may demand rights but you may not achieve acceptance or respect, and both are important in inclusion. Until we truly value difference or uniqueness in the classroom situation, our education system will remain wanting. I believe in social rights for all, as well as legal rights. There are many parts to an equation and for a conclusion to be reached: all parts must be treated with equal consideration. Parents and teachers have said: "What is the use of winning a legal battle if no one wants the child?". George Bernard Shaw stated that "Reformers have the idea that change can be achieved by brute sanity" (in Fullan, 1991, p. 96). In this present educational change there is a need for sensitivity in the area of rights for all people, otherwise the children suffer.

I consider there has been too much talking, too much expertise, too much direction and not enough reflection, thinking and looking at the pain or triumph of individual children. The present study was initiated because when the Education Act, 1989 was passed, I wondered what had happened during these changes to the children who were my interest. How had they fared? What support had they? How were their parents managing in the mainstream? What did the schools think about integration? How were the teachers managing with large classes and the challenge of differential ability? Lots of basic questions reeled around in my mind. For me there was only one approach and that was to get to the children's level, see it from their perspective and start from there. I am a pragmatist and this is their story.

With inclusion, the value systems of many schools in New Zealand have been forced to change their perspective and it is the apparent modifications and resolution of problems that are of concern in this study. Very little information was available on how schools were managing these changes, how they were dealing with the children they had 'mainstreamed' and what unforeseen problems were arising. This research

aimed to repair those omissions. The first step in this study was to understand the changes which had occurred world-wide, as different legislation and policies were developed on children with special educational needs, as governments attempted to meet a variety of educational and social values. In Chapter 2 a review of literature on integration from the United Kingdom, the United States and Australia is made as a background to the present study. To place the study in the New Zealand context, Chapter 3 contains a detailed account and analysis of New Zealand documents including Acts of Parliament, reports from consultation processes, and policy statements along with an account of their importance to inclusion. A historical account of relevant legislation, government reports and surveys of the United Kingdom, the U.S.A. and Australia is included. Chapter 4 contains the theoretical background used in this study. It covers sociological and psychological theories of change, including notions of power, authority and legitimation. In Chapter 5 the research methodology is discussed. The major substance of this enquiry will be answered using questions raised in Chapter 6 and will occupy the remainder of this thesis. Each section of interest will conclude with a discussion and at the end of the thesis a conclusion on the findings will be presented.

Chapter Two

Literature Review

2.0 Literature Review

In this chapter, literature relevant to this thesis is reviewed in order to gain an understanding of the background to changes which have occurred with the advent of inclusion. Topics which will be considered include definitions of terms associated with disability and a discussion on the implications of their use. A review of some of the literature which is available on the involvement with inclusion of parents, principals, teachers and pupils is provided.

2.1 Introduction

The question of inclusion is extremely complex and stimulates considerable controversy as various groups of people assess the effect the philosophy will have on themselves and their institutions. There is a considerable amount of literature on inclusion (Gartner and Lipsky, 1987; Hegarty, 1982 and 1985; Hundert, 1982; Johnson and Cartwright, 1979; Leyser, 1988; Madden and Slavin, 1983; Moses et al., 1987; Stainbeck et al., 1985; Thomas, 1985a and b). The literature which has been reviewed in this thesis and by others in the field of special education, generally indicates that the research on the results of inclusion has not been keeping up with the policy changes and that there is a need for the former to catch up, so it may become the basic guide to sound social change (Hahn, 1985; Heward and Lloyd-Smith, 1990; Kauffman, 1993; Smith, 1989; and Storey, 1993). To this end, it is important to understand the historical perspective which forms the foundation of policy and social changes, and this is recorded in detail for New Zealand, the United States, the United Kingdom and Australia in Chapter 3. It is also important to survey recent research in relation to important trends in special education because as major events occur, as for example PL94-142 in the U.S.A. or the Education Reform Act, 1981 in the U.K., there is a corresponding sequence of events which influence research and advocacy outcomes. In both countries, these educational milestones have been overtaken by more recent legislation, the consequences of which are still to be presented in current research.

2.2 Inclusive Literature

A review of literature on the education of children with special needs inevitably leads into a multi-dimensional labyrinth of historical, political, economic, legal and sociologically value-laden paths. The massive amount of literature and research can thematically be placed in a time dimension. Towards the end of the 1960s there

developed an awareness of the human aspect of handicap and the idea of normalisation in certain countries. The principle of the acceptance of all persons with disabilities as valued and respected persons grew out of the recognition of the minority status of people with handicaps that developed alongside the civil rights movements in the United States (Danby and Cullen, 1988; Fulcher, 1989; Kirp, 1982). At the same time the educational changes which occurred in the United Kingdom as a result of the recognition of the learning problems faced by children of low socio-economic status caused further interest to be taken in children with special needs (Plowden Report, 1967; Warnock Report, 1978). As government policies and legislation redefined special education, the era of educational reform began in many countries. Of relevance to this study the devolving of responsibility for many educational issues to the community in the United Kingdom, Australia and New Zealand has had profound effects on special education. The gap that is evident between the legislation enabling inclusion to occur and the practical reality in the context of educational reforms, has been discussed by many authors including Bowe et al. (1992), Hall and Loucks in Lieberman and McLaughlin, (1982), Keogh (1990), Mitchell, (1994), Parmenter, (1991) and Russell (1990).

As countries worldwide faced the policy changes which were to cause their education systems to alter their approaches towards persons with disabilities, so the literature reflected the pressures that were arising. Firstly, there was widespread discussion on the philosophy of integration. This included the recognition of the rights of individuals and the desirability of including persons with disabilities into the regular school society (Ballard, 1990; Gartner and Lipsky, 1987; Johnson and Johnson, 1980; Madden and Slavin, 1983; Mitchell and Mitchell, 1985; Reynolds et al., 1987; Stainback and Stainback, 1984). Secondly, the literature began to demonstrate research programmes being developed to illustrate the effects of an integration policy. The research was an outcome of the policy of the investigators' respective countries and therefore provided a variety of definitional and methodological difficulties when attempts were made to compare results (Donaldson, 1980; Hegarty et al., 1981; Danby and Cullen, 1988). The research was mainly concerned with those people closely associated with the integration process: the teachers, the pupils and the parents (Alexander and Strain, 1978; Danby and Cullen, 1988; Thomas, 1985a; Dessent, 1987-88). Thirdly, as the children were seen as 'outside' the regular lifestyle and with negative values, they were placed in a minority position. As the emphasis in the literature was on the effect that the placement of children with special educational needs had on the regular school, rather than on the viewpoint of these children and their parents, the minority status of this group was highlighted. The research

demonstrated this approach as a wide variety of attitudinal and sociometric scales were developed describing the attitudes and results of integrating students with disabilities into the mainstream. The research from the U.S.A was heavily weighted towards experimental investigation, whereas the literature from the U.K. indicated a different research direction, that of the case study approach (Danby and Cullen, 1988). Finally, a quantity of research has started to appear based on the reporting of successful integration occurrences and an analytic approach to the process (Giangreco et al., 1993; York et al., 1992).

Research on integration and the effects of this process has frequently taken on a moral argument of the rightness or wrongness of this philosophy (Ballard, 1989; Biklen, 1985; Gallagher, 1990; Gallent, 1981; Vernon, 1981; Will, 1986). Although this review will consider these concerns as indicated by publications of recent years, the emphasis is on the mechanism of the change and the persons who are involved in the change process, as the move from the segregation of certain children in the education system to their integration into the regular school system occurs.

The following review of the literature will follow two general themes. Firstly, the sociology of disability will be discussed and this will include how disability is defined, how language is used as a political and social tool, and finally the definitions of the terms which will be used in this study. Secondly, the literature which has relevance to inclusion will be presented with reference to those people who are directly involved in the process. These include the board members who provide governance, the principals, teachers and teachers aides who form the professional staff, the students and the parents of the children with special educational needs.

2.3 The Sociology of Disability

The sociological study of disability has arisen from a need to reassess the traditional approaches of policy making for a section of the community designated as having a disability, impairment, or handicap. Attention has moved from the provision of services in education, vocational and independent living resources to integration, participation, community involvement and independence. There are three aspects of disability which must be referred to as background to educational changes and the process of integration. These are, firstly, the defining of disability; secondly, the way in which people manage their knowledge on disability and construct their reality of the situations they find themselves in with persons who are disabled; and thirdly, the

definition of the terms which are generally used in discussions on integration or as a result of recent semantic changes, inclusion.

2.3.1 Defining disability. The main question is why do we have the term disability and what is the importance of its definition? It is necessary to understand this approach because, according to some sociologists, the existence of the term disability has marginalised those who have an impairment. The qualifications to be included in the category of disabled have become more detailed over time and the medical and social welfare systems have legitimised the role of 'disabled person'. Events have shown that once accepted into this classification system, incumbents find it difficult to get out. Disability is referred to as a 'political construct' by Fulcher (1989, 1990), as those dominant in society use definitions in terms of their own reality. As a result the label has been used as a departure point for gaining and delivering services by voluntary agencies and institutions as well as to legitimise segregation (Kirp, 1982; Stakes, 1988). However, the use of some form of classification in daily routine has become acceptable as a "behaviour we engage in to bring order into our lives" (Algozzine and Mercer, 1980, p.288). Similarly, Berger and Luckman (1967) suggest we could not get through our lives without the ability to place people and practices of our everyday existence into categories. Therefore, the purpose of defining disability is to assist with the provision of services and to make our lives orderly. It is useful at this point to examine how people construct their classificatory system in order to comprehend disability, and to this end a framework of disability discourse constructed by Fulcher (1989) has been used.

Fulcher (1989) recognised that groups of people thematically base knowledge on what they know of the situation of disability. This knowledge helps them meet and manage interactions with persons with disability and it allows them to know the limitations of their interaction. Each of these areas of discussion allows those people who are participating to form a typical set of routines which allows them to integrate information from various sources and to structure it according to relevance. Some people may move in two or more of these areas of discourse or arenas, and this may lead to inner conflict, an alteration to routines and a change to the structuring of relevant information.

According to Fulcher, the word 'disability' when used in discussion, may refer to five layers of discourse. These are medical, charity, rights, a corporate approach and a lay discourse.

1. The *medical discourse* is the "source of the dominant and misleading image of disability as physical incapacity.... medicine is the main institutionalised site for its discursive practices and professions that deal with disability" (Fulcher, p.26). This medical definition, according to Hahn (1985), is the one most commonly recognised by the general public and emphasises limitations of physical functioning.

2. In contrast, the *rights discourse* on disability is overtly political; it calls for reliance, independence and consumer wants and it speaks of discrimination, exclusion and oppression. According to Fulcher, its "themes are equality of citizenship and its strategy is one of confrontation" (p.31).

3. The *charity* discourse allows for the definition of people called disabled as being in need of help. This ethic is expressed in fund- raising experiences where the media shows the disabled as either "heroic...[or]....pathetic..rather than as human beings with a range of characteristics" (Gartner and Lipsky, 1987, p.381). Such a concentrated effort of public concern and empathy raises considerable amounts of money, but at the expense of keeping alive the idea that persons with disabilities are 'special' rather than like the rest of the community, and the difference receives the emphasis. The aspect of public awareness that is fostered by this approach is that disability means that help and support is required.

4. The *corporate discourse* has as its main theme the management of disability and is formed by professionals who have gathered in government agencies and the private sector.

5. The *lay discourse* on disability is based on medical information, media reports and the views of charity, prejudice and patronising activities.

This framework shows that language can be used as an 'instrument of power', in that the words have different meanings which are dependent on the context in which they were used. A principal in a school where the policy of inclusion is being implemented may use the term 'special educational needs' in the course of routine communication. In conversation with the Ministry of Education it will provide a stimulus for funding or resources, but to the teacher in the classroom it may create a picture of physical need or of the recent television programme on a disability in preparation for a fundraising activity. To a parent it may mean a child's right to have additional support to achieve a degree of normalcy. It is therefore important to define the terms which are the semantic tools of those who are putting in place the educational changes that are

basic to the human rights issues of equity and equality. The results of the legislation and the terminology relevant to the situation have drawn many and varied comments as researchers, educators and authors acknowledge the complexity of language as a tool in the disability discourse. But, if it is accepted that definitions are important, as society must identify and classify occurrences to make them manageable and useable in our stock of knowledge, then the next step is to look at what we do with these tools. How do we use these definitions beyond identification, classification and keeping our lives tidy?

According to Oliver (1990), the identification and classification of disability has provided the incumbents with a legitimate social status. Society has then considered this group of people to have needs which can be relieved by appropriate social policies. Until relatively recently, the definition of the term has influenced the writing of policy, largely because disability has been seen as a tragedy and those involved as victims. The term social oppression has been used to describe this occurrence where "the individual and tragic view of disability dominates both social interactions and social policy" (Oliver, 1990, p.3). The result is that with integration occurring in schools, the economic aspects of decision-making and policy have been highlighted and this has placed a greater emphasis on the definition of disability. The importance of this is apparent, when the allocation of limited resources becomes dependent on that definition. Hahn (1985) sees this as a policy problem, because different implications arise as solutions to difficulties which are associated with disability. He gives as an example, a medical definition, which emphasises limitations and implies that the person concerned must adapt and adjust to the environment without a similar obligation on the part of the policy makers to make the surroundings more user friendly. Hahn discusses the new socio-political definition of disability which implies the failure of the social environment to adjust to and accommodate those with disabilities in their society. Under these conditions those with disabilities have been required to meet the demands of society. A change of direction with regard to definition by category of disability has commenced within the educational framework, with the emphasis moving away from the category of disability to viewing educational support needs which enable children to participate in regular school activity (Mitchell and Ryba, 1994). This supposes that the new approach will see an equitable and accountable distribution of resources.

If, as Oliver (1990) suggests, the identification and classification of those with disabilities has given them a legitimate social status, then it is of value to the

discussion to examine the effect this has had on the lives of those who are implicated. The next section will review literature on the effects of labelling.

2.3.2 Labelling: a convenience for whom? In the area of disability, a label deems a person as being different within the community. This label is usually given a negative value because the personal characteristic becomes a stigma. It is a feared status and frequently seen as a tragedy by those people constructing their objective reality. The result is that reactions result from the use of a disability label, when societal attitudes are challenged which are based on accepted norms and values (Gottlieb and Leyser, 1981). The positive and negative effects of labelling were studied by Algozzine and Mercer (1980) and Reynolds (1984). The positive aspects gave justification to the use of labelling because it facilitated treatment, improved communication amongst professionals and increased public awareness which in turn assisted with funding, research and service delivery. The negative aspects were considered to be comprehensive and far reaching in effect and included the damaging self perception, the attachment of stigmata and affecting interpersonal relationships. Considerable research has been carried out on both the effect of labelling and on how to reverse the negative aspects of this occurrence. Most researchers started with the premise that there are two ways of looking at the effect of the labelling process: firstly, from the impact it has on the child and secondly, the effect it has on the way other people interact with the child. A brief overview of this research shall now be given.

Research on labelling as it effects people other than the 'labelled' has been carried out in the occupations of 'diagnostic personnel' (Singer et al., 1989; Ysseldyke and Algozzine, 1982); teachers (Algozzine and Stoller, 1981); parents (Goodman, 1987); children (Feldman et al., 1984; Goodman, 1989; Gottleib, 1974), as well as in newspapers (Yoshida et al., 1990). Special educational needs associated with ethnic minority groups have been studied by Shapiro (1980) and research on this topic has been reviewed by Fulcher (1989). The results have shown that the labels assigned to children do make a considerable impact on the decisions made on the behalf of those individuals. Gottlieb (1974) recorded associated influencing factors, as for example, that in children's eyes the social competence of labelled children is more influential than the label assigned to them. The complexity of the labelling process is apparent when consideration is given to the way children labelled their peers with disability according to the where their special educational needs were met. Educational placement in resource rooms or special units alone "can act as a de facto label", according to Bak et al. (1987, p.151).

Suggestions for reversing some of the negative aspects of labelling were presented by Algozzine and Mercer (1990) and Donaldson (1980). These included providing additional information and experiences of a positive nature and thereby changing the person's perspective and increasing the social contact between the 'labelled' person and other persons in the environment. It therefore becomes important to appreciate these aspects of categorisation of disability which are crucial to integration, peer acceptance, classroom management. Similarly, it becomes imperative to understand the relationship between categorisation and the allocation of resources.

Perhaps it is relevant here to provide a definition which places the cause of disability within society and social organisations in preference to the individual and medical basis of previous classifications. This definition has been proposed by disabled persons and is provided by Oliver (1990, p.11):

> Impairment is lacking part of or all of a limb, or having a defective limb, organism or mechanism of the body.
>
> Disability is the disadvantage or restriction of activity caused by a contemporary social organisation which takes no or little account of people who have physical impairments and thus excludes them from the mainstream of social activities.

This approach to disability attempts to separate the concept of disability from being an individual problem to being a public issue. The theoretical work which underpins this thesis shall be presented in Chapter 4 but it seems pertinent to mention the reference of C.Wright Mills to the individual state as one which can only be understood in terms of the collective whole.

> Try to understand men not as an isolated fragment.....Try to understand men and women as historical and social actors and the ways in which the variety of men and women are intricately selected and intricately formed by the variety of human societies (C.Wright Mills, 1963, p.1).

In this section the reasoning behind the use and importance of definitions of disability has been discussed, together with why people develop a system of classification and how they use it. The positive and negative aspects of the labelling which develops out of the classification system have been considered, with a conclusion being proffered that there is a collective issue at stake, which can only be understood in individual terms. At this stage of the research it is essential to define the terminology to be used in the course of the study.

2.3.3 Definition of mainstreaming, normalisation, integration, and inclusion. "Hardly anything provokes heated controversy as surely as the use of

the new catchwords: mainstreaming [and] normalisation" (Dybwad, (1980, p.85). The reasons for this happening are in general associated with people's demonstration of attitudes as they construct their reality of disability. The heart of the matter is that mainstreaming is "essentially a matter of values" (Ballard, 1989, p.56) or "a moral issue" (Sarason and Doris, 1979, p.392). Sarason and Doris also refer to mainstreaming as a concept, a value and public policy. The historical development and the manner in which these terms have been included in government policy shall now be explored.

'Mainstreaming' has provoked opposition because to accept the concept many people have had to review their values, and this has not been an easy step to take. The difficulties become clearer when it is realised that a lifetime of experience and training is being questioned. Those incumbents of the disability status away from the mainstream were 'special' and required different teaching, techniques and facilities. The result was the separation of the education system into regular and special components with political, administrative and social backing. Because of the trend to meet the social and educational needs of all children in the regular school system many people have been required to look at some basic moral issues. There is, however, one subtle aspect of mainstreaming to be understood by all persons in society. As regular education takes place in the mainstream, and because of the minority status being inherent in the disability role, mainstreaming has implied that persons with disabilities are taken into the regular stream of society. In the opinion of the researcher, this leaves the perception of mainstreaming as being from the viewpoint of the non-disabled individual. There is however, another facet to be considered with regard to mainstreaming in policy in New Zealand and that is the acceptance of the classification used by the Warnock Report:

Mainstreaming was considered to have three interrelated components. These were:

- locational mainstreaming - where a student is educated in a separate unit or in a separate class located within a regular school.
- social mainstreaming - where a student who is locationally mainstreamed can enjoy social interaction with the peer group in a variety of ways within a school setting.
- functional mainstreaming - where a student spends some or all of the time in a regular classroom on the same programme as the class or on an adaptation of that programme. (Department of Education and Science, 1978).

Mainstreaming has been described as an "educational practice" which took place "in a regular school setting, but not necessarily in a regular classroom" (Department of Education, 1988, p.2). The result was that "segregated provisions [were] being

presented as [though they] were a mainstreaming policy" (Ballard, 1989, p. 54). To move the viewpoint beyond the stage where the focus is on the individual with the disability being taken into the mainstream, however it is defined, it is necessary to understand the concept of normalisation.

Normalisation is the basic principle behind integration and inclusion, and as a concept requires definition. The widely recognised definition of Nirje (1985) states:

> The normalisation principle means making available to all persons with disabilities or other handicaps, patterns of life and conditions of everyday living which are as close as possible to or indeed the same as regular circumstances and way of life of society (p.67).

This principle was considered useful in every society, able to be adapted to social changes, and recognised individual development. It also showed respect for human life and indicates an egalitarian principle that all human beings have equal rights. Such a philosophy is essential for integration of children with disabilities into the regular education system (Nirje, 1985; Perrin and Nirje, 1985). The focus on normalisation has been extended by Wolfensberger (1991) to the construction of social roles. He emphasised that simply placing those with disabilities to mirror the activities of the community group is not enough to gain acceptance into that group. If individuals with disability are to be valued, and through value gain community membership, then there is a need for advocates to create opportunities and provide experiences that cause community members to recognise that those with disabilities have something of value on offer (Wolfensberger, 1991, in Kozleski and Sands 1992). This approach to normalisation establishes social validity for those with a disability from a valued individual basis and not from a disability role. This approach places education in the situation of having a direct responsibility for changing children's quality of life (Ashman, 1989; Conway, 1991 and 1992; Kozleski and Sands, 1992).

Integration is a complex phenomena and in education it has become associated with placement. The concept of normalisation as proposed by Wolfensberger (1991) is relevant here, where it is reiterated by Hegarty, who commented that "it is not a matter of transferring pupils from special to ordinary school, but of remodelling ordinary schools" (1982, p.19). This view was taken by Ballard (1989) who stated that "social and locational arrangements will not work as mainstreaming", the reason according to Biklen (1985) is that they are "islands in the mainstream" (p.60). The supposition is that as long as some children are kept within their 'island' in the special class or unit "the rest of the classes in the school do not have to change in order to include them" (Ballard, 1989, p.54). Integration is referred to by Hegarty (1982b) as a "convenient

shorthand term" to refer to what is a "major change within the education system" (p.19). The school system must become more differentiated and include specialist techniques depending on the children's needs. It means a flexible range of provisions which incorporate many different approaches to meeting the needs of a wide variety of pupils. The emphasis is on the quality of the education that is provided and other factors such as the curriculum, timetabling arrangements, the school culture and the ways interaction is encouraged are important. With ongoing changes in educational practice the terminology has altered with use and integration has become inclusion. This, as a term, has been proposed as the opposite of exclusion, or the historical synonym, segregation.

Inclusion, as defined by the SES places more emphasis on the person, as compared to the discussion in Chapter 1 which emphasises the conditions under which it is developed:

> Promoting the optimal development of every child and young person with special developmental/ educational needs within the context of their family and whanau, and advocating that they share the same learning environment as their age mates within the local community and supporting them in doing so (SES Manual, 1989, p.18).

The definitions for mainstreaming, normalisation, integration, or inclusion are, in the final analysis, whatever the "laws and implementing regulations say [they are]" (Scotch, 1988, p.168). "Disability policy operates at many different levels and terminology must reflect the level being addressed", according to Batavia and DeJong (1990, p.86). Hence, at school level, one last definition is required, as children with physical, sensory, intellectual disabilities, emotional and behaviour difficulties and learning problems are all being placed in the same category and being referred to as children with special educational needs or as special needs learners.

> A learner whose development or educational needs are different from age-mates and whose teaching needs require significant individualised planning and/ or major environmental changes. (SES Manual, 1989, p.18).

The next section is concerned with those who have the responsibility of caring for, relating to, interacting and working with children with special educational needs.

2.4 The Roles of Significant Others

The people who make up the regular education setting or social structure in which inclusion will occur include members of boards of trustees, principals, teachers,

parents and pupils. The major issues referred to in the literature with respect to these persons shall now be considered. These include: parental rights to choose and their involvement in their children's schools; support and acceptance provided by peers; the attitudes of the teachers and their response to inclusion; and the role of the principal and special advisers in the inclusion process.

2.4.1 Parents' rights, choice and involvement. Involvement of the parents in the education of their child with special educational needs takes place on several levels. Firstly, there is the right of the parents to enrol their child at the school of their choice. Secondly, there is the concept of parental partnership by which parents become an integral part of the decision-making process regarding their child's future. This involves the perception that parents have of inclusion, their association with the school and their participation in Individual Educational Programme (IEP) preparation. Thirdly, there are the parents' groups and networks who disseminate knowledge, assist with advocatory roles and assist the professionals in the change process within the school.

Policy changes in New Zealand caused by the administrative reforms in education have led to more choice and power for parents in the present educational climate. Changing social values should provide the catalyst for educational change in the area of disability because education is responsible for reflecting and renewing the norms and mores of society, and inclusion is a human rights issue. But it does not mean that all schools or all classrooms adhere to this ideal yet. There is limited acknowledgment of the likely impact of the legislation on all parties involved in the change. Jonathan (1989) considers it "inappropriate to think of education entirely in individual terms, when individual experience affects the social group" (p.332). The result, according to Jonathan, is that in the future where legislation empowers the users of educational facilities, there is likely to arise a "conflict between individual liberty and social justice" (Jonathan, 1989, p.336). This will occur when, by meeting the needs of certain children, other children's activities may be curtailed.

If legislation has given parents the right and responsibility of being involved in their children's educational planning, parents should be free to make a choice (Goodison, 1987). For this to happen, there needs to be a variety of options. Those options include the right of parents to integrate their children in a regular school, or to select a special education unit. This presence of a dual system of education is important in the discussion on parental rights and choice. There are essential prerequisites for parental choice to occur. These are, firstly, that parents need to be consulted. They expect to be

involved in the decisions made regarding their children, and for this to occur good parent-school relationships are necessary, combined with adequate parent-professional contact (Dembinski and Mauser, 1977; Gorham, 1975; Yoshida et al., 1990). Without the parents' support, any educational change has little chance of success (Brady et al., 1988; Myles and Simpson, 1990; Shevin, 1983). Secondly, parents expect to experience good communication in giving and receiving information with truth and honesty associated with a non-threatening situation.

The literature which has been reviewed indicates a lack of material on how the new relationship between parents receiving information and being informed decision makers, and professionals encouraging and supporting parents, is working. Legislation is the mechanism which gave parents the means to help themselves to achieve and maintain their child's entry into the mainstream (Manning, 1987), and informing parents is an ethical or societal responsibility and not simply a bureaucratic response to related legislation (Harder, 1988). Attention was drawn in the literature to the limited knowledge some parents had on the appropriate legislation, and the effect it had on parents gaining support and services for their children (Carpenter and Robson, 1979; Sandow and Stafford, 1986). To prevent a system which can "discriminate in favour of certain social classes, racial groups, geographical areas and types of ability or disability" (Widlake, 1987, p.29), certain factors have been considered important. These include recognising parents' limitations on the time necessary for advocating rights and making satisfactory school contacts, and the use of readable and not too complex material to assist parents to make an informed decision (Brantlinger, 1987; Roit and Pfohl, 1984). Parents' reactions to inclusion have some dependency on the ease or difficulty they experience in introducing their child to the integration process (Mlynek et al., 1982). The concerns that have emerged from these studies indicate that there are still aspects of parent-professional contact which require working through. Ways to break down these barriers were suggested by Widlake (1987) and Seed (1988) and involved schools becoming neighbourhood centres, with parents taking over leadership roles and professionals learning new skills associated with disability.

This approach indicates a commitment to integration from both the school and the professional staff. Hanline and Halvorsen (1989) considered continued parental communication with the school important as was the need for parents to feel that their involvement was an individual experience. These authors identified positive and negative features of integration. Positive features were expressed as "enhanced learning opportunities, friendships with non-disabled peers and increased parental expectations", while negative aspects included the children's safety, the attitudes of

the teachers and non-disabled students and the success and quality of the students' educational programmes (Hanline and Halvorsen, 1989, p.491). Parental service on school committees by parents with children with disabilities, as well as whom these parents approach for support and information, has been studied in a pre-school setting (Blacher and Turnbull, 1983). Their results indicated that although parents were considered well integrated in their interactions and involvement at school, when it came to specific information on integration concerns they turned to other parents in similar situations to themselves.

The research reported in this literature review shows that parental response to legislation and policy changes supports their desire to be informed and involved in their child's education. This parental contribution of knowledge and the aims they have concerning their child is most required during IEP development. The main areas of interest in research have been the exploration of parental roles and the frequency of attendance and their involvement at IEP meetings. Various methods of gaining parental co-operation and participation have also been explored (Goldstein and Turnbull, 1982; Scanlon et al., 1981; Smith, 1990). For parents to experience their parental rights, they must be placed in a position where they can determine their child's future. In this research, an emphasis was placed on ways to move participants away from minimal compliance to legal demands when developing an IEP, to forming a specially designed, useful document.

Many parents have now experienced both segregated and integrated education. The parental response in the U.K. and the U.S.A., to the different integration processes and the desire of parents to gain admission for their child to the local regular school has been recorded (Dessent, 1987-88; McDonnell, 1987; O'Hagan et al., 1984; Wilgosh et al., 1988). However, some parents who have experienced the mainstream of education, have emerged with perceptions that call for the maintenance of the dual system of special and regular education (Butler, 1988; Goodison, 1987). For some parents who are in the mainstream of education, the use of support groups, advocacy and an active approach to policy changes by involvement in educational committees has become the accepted way to make progress.

As parents are the key people in planning their child's education, it is valuable to recognise to whom they turn for support, how they use advocates and their understanding of resource networks. While parents desire to have policy and legal knowledge so they can understand the recent educational changes, their role involves conflict and stress (Masenzio, 1983; Wolf, 1982). Firstly, many parents do not see

themselves as part of a pressure group and therefore have not learned to make demands on behalf of a category of persons with a disability. Rather, "they are grateful for what they can get" (Kirp, 1982, p.153). Kirp notes that some parents have learned the accepted procedure for demanding assistance for their children, but it is a solitary approach. That parents have not done so well as a group is referred to by Fulcher (1989) who considers, like Kirp, that parents tend to negotiate as individuals in their attempt to overcome bureaucratic strategies. Fulcher also considers that parents do not have the total information on disability available to enable them to have a complete discussion on educational needs. A further consideration is that parents have few supporters as compared with the professionals and therefore "are a 'weak' institution to engage in bureaucratic engagements" (Fulcher, 1989, p.229). The response to this situation has been the development of parents groups where parents have the opportunity to learn new techniques, methods of successfully challenging authority and how to mobilize groups of parents for action. A negative experience with a professional may cause parents to look beyond their existing social network for support, and realise that they are the experts on their own child.

Meaningful parent involvement is achieved only "when the school creates an environment that makes parents feel welcome, reaches out to parents in new ways and connects them to resources and provides numerous opportunities for participation" (Score, 1993, p.14). This succinctly summarises the parental position on integration of children into the regular school system. It is, however, the peers of children with disabilities who are responsible for the immediate support and acceptance.

2.4.2 Peer support and acceptance. Social acceptance of children with differences is a vast and complex area of concern. The advent of inclusion has caused many of those in contact with children with special educational needs to study its meaning for both the children with a disability and their peers. Conflicting views have been expressed as to the effect integration has had on both disabled children and their non-disabled peers (Woodward, 1980; Goumez, 1982; Lynas, 1986). The issues highlighted are the attitudes expressed by peers towards their classmates with disabilities, the attitudes expressed by children with special educational needs to their fellow students, the place of self concept in acceptance, peer perceptions of behaviour and the social adaptation which occurs with integration. A degree of concern has been expressed by educationists and researchers over the methodology used in many research projects, which means making comparisons between projects very difficult.

A substantial amount of research has been carried out concerning the attitudes children with special educational needs meet when they are introduced into a regular school system and interact with other children. Identification of factors which group disability characteristics in ways other than the traditional one of assignation according to a discrete category, for example, sensory, physical, intellectual, learning and emotional impairment, were identified by Ward and Center (1987). Their classification grouped the children according to a "functional skill assessment" (p.82) which gave some indication of the demands that would be made on caregivers and professional staff with regard to additional skills, time or assistance. Such an identification of functional characteristics enabled professionals to avoid the use of labels and the continuance of stereotyped approaches to impairments, handicaps, and disability. Inclusion does not necessarily cause children to see a child in a positive light and stereotypical concepts may remain (Lehrer, 1983; Ravaud et al., 1987). A large volume of literature has developed associated with changing negative attitudes towards handicapped persons, and this is reviewed by Donaldson (1980). She is in agreement with Ward and Center (1987) concerning the need to identify and analyse the factors which lead to positive attitudes being developed. Little research has been done on the effect of the process of integration on the peers in the school environment. According to Lynas (1986) and Danby and Cullen (1988) this is an omission.

The importance of self concept or the esteem of children with special educational needs on their social acceptance has been the subject of investigation in several research programmes. Peer rejection or acceptance, academic failure and personality variables are strongly associated with measures of self concept in these children (Semmel and Cheney, 1979). These variables are frequently under the control of the classroom teacher, and by focusing on them there is the potential for improving self concept among children with special educational needs. However, the results of the research of Rich et al. (1984) suggest that there are unique reactions to school integration experienced by children in separate categories of disability. These reactions tend to be related to the disability and not the particular child. A relationship exists between the individual child's feelings, the need for additional skills, time and reactions to integration and assistance (Ward and Center, 1987). Two studies which have looked at the self concept of physically disabled and learning disabled students indicated that the self concept scores were lower for this group of children than for non-handicapped children (Harvey and Greenaway, 1984; Bruininks, 1978). A lack of social acceptance and limited contacts outside the home are two factors which are considered to account for this result.

There has been a large number of studies carried out on the attitudes of non-handicapped children towards their disabled peers, but the research on the attitudes of the child with a disability to other children, be they with a disability or not, appears to be very limited. This situation received some attention with research on children with mild intellectual disability by Lewis and Altman (1987). Results indicate that students with intellectual disability generally do not express negative attitudes towards their peers who are similarly disabled or to their non-disabled peers. What the students say to their peers and how they actually behave and relate to them requires further study.

Because numerous reports have indicated that social adaptation to integration was not always positive, researchers began to look for the reasons behind the lack of success. In his review of literature on the process of adaptability of children to integration, Mosley (1978) referred to three elements of concern: modelling of the social behaviours of the disabled child on the non-disabled child, the harmful effects of labelling, and the attitudes of teachers based on this event. Studies on integration and the regular classroom environment highlight the effect of labelling as being at the root of prejudice and rejection (Thurman and Lewis, 1979), which is related to social status and acceptance (Semmel and Cheney, 1979). Two points of interest were that social status was higher for the disabled child when there was cohesiveness among peers in the classroom, and rejection was minimised when children spent time in large group situations rather than in small groups. "Little evidence exists that suggest an improvement occurs in social status of mentally handicapped children among normal peers by simply placing them in a classroom" (ibid, p.66). The attitude among many educationists is that non-disabled children must be 'prepared' for integration and if teachers are 'preparation comfortable' in this role, the process will be more successful (Melton, 1980).

Integration of the children with disabilities has assisted in dispelling ignorance, myths and creating tolerance, and the next step is to increase the social skills of the children being integrated. Because of the assumed complexity of the integration process, a variety of methodological tools have been developed to measure the acceptability of children with special educational needs. Although there has now been a swing to the individual educational needs of the child with a disability, this period of research was important in the early stages of integration. The result was an enormous amount of research being produced on peer acceptance. Sociometric measurements have been used as baselines in intervention programmes and associated with other techniques in research programmes by Fox (1989), Gottleib, (1980), Johnson and Johnson (1981), Sasso and Rude (1988), and Scranton and Ryckman (1979). Research on acceptance

patterns of children with disabilities by their peers continues, and recent reports show self perception and friendship facilitation by teachers as being new fields of interest (Bear et al., 1991; Forlin and Cole, 1994; Hamre-Nietupski et al., 1993 and 1994; Roberts et al., 1991; Roberts and Zubrick, 1992). This recent direction of research appears to support the comment of Gottlieb that it is not enough to provide contact between children with disabilities and their peers and believe significant social interaction will occur. There must be recognition that advocacy and carefully planned opportunities must occur on the part of professionals to encourage acceptance and integration by peers on equal terms with themselves.

The difficulty of generalising results, problems with experimental design, and cross cultural comparisons of studies in this area of social acceptance and peer relationships are discussed by Donaldson (1980) and Danby and Cullen (1988). To adequately select a sample of subjects, when every individual is the product of a unique set of environmental circumstances, is a challenge for the social scientist and the reason a combination of methodological approaches must be used.

The acceptance of children with disabilities by their peers has received considerable attention and investigation from educationists and researchers in education. The idea of acceptance has always been from the viewpoint of a minority group being accepted by the regular mainstream of society. This trend is expressed in the literature as the review indicates a wealth of material on attitudes towards students with special needs, personal self esteem and the importance of social adaptation on the part of these students. The importance of the professional staff in facilitating interaction and acceptance has been noted and will be discussed in the next section.

2.4.3 Teachers and their response to integration. Because the teacher's position is considered to be pivotal to the success and progress of mainstreaming, factors which influence a teacher's attitude towards integration have received intensive investigation (Alexander and Strain, 1978). The classroom has been designated the core environment where integration will either succeed or fail. "Nothing of any consequence will ever change in education without the assistance and support of the classroom teacher" (Roubinek, 1978, p.411). With this in mind, the factors which influence the teacher's attitude to integration will be discussed. These include environmental and physical factors, the personal and professional aspects teachers bring to their role, together with the stress and conflict they may experience. Recent legislative changes reported in much of the literature has brought additional duties to many classrooms.

Various studies have attempted to identify factors, which serve as predictors of teachers' attitudes towards a child with a disability. The factors considered important in a teacher choosing to support or oppose integration may be analysed at three levels of perception: the general, physical and the personal. Firstly, the general level of perception which influences a teacher's attitude towards integration refers to social norms, group attitudes within the community as opposed to societal traditions and a knowledge of the past history of special education. The formal adoption of integration by the school is considered important as this legitimises the idea in the teacher's mind. The style of leadership in the school is vital and the principal's attitude to integration is especially important. Secondly, teachers have referred to a lack of reassurance for the efforts they have made and a lack of appreciation being extended to them. Equally important was the quality of the reassurance and support being proffered. A misunderstanding of many of these subjective approaches to integration has led Alexander and Strain (1978) to comment that "today many educators are making a mad dash towards mainstreaming and are failing to recognise the barriers which must first be overcome" (p.390). One barrier highlighted in the research of Ward et al. (1987) in Australia and not referred to in any other literature in this review, was that "principals and teachers express positive attitudes [to integration], only when they feel no additional teaching competencies or extracurricular duties (e.g. toileting or medical supervision) are required on the part of the regular teacher" (p.80). This indicates the need for adequate facilities and additional classroom support if a teacher is to assuredly deal with all situations. The physical aspects of the school were considered important in successful integration and relevant in the prediction of teacher attitudes. These included the number of pupils in the classrooms and the layout of the school, including traditional and open plan design. Of importance was whether the mainstreaming was locational, functional or social, because the position of the separate units for children with disabilities in relation to the rest of the school was an influential factor in acceptance (ibid, p. 83).

One area of integration to which research has given little attention is the environment considered most beneficial for children to receive their individual instruction. The resource room or the regular class setting are the two places generally suggested. Research has demonstrated that both environments have a place in the integration of children with disabilities, but there are specific reasons behind the decisions of when to use which place (Howard-Rose and Rose, 1994). A combination of both meets academic needs as well as social functions (Rich and Ross, 1991).

On a personal level, the factors that have received attention in research included the experience and personal interaction which teachers had been involved in with relation to students with disabilities, in private life and the classroom setting (Gans, 1987; Sesow and Adams, 1982). The importance of gaining knowledge and skills as a means of increasing teachers' willingness to teach children with special educational needs was "over-emphasised", according to Gans. What was vital, was for teachers to have made contact with a wide variety of student abilities with many disabling conditions. The number of disabilities teachers felt confident about being in contact with was more important as a prediction of willingness to teach, than the strength of feeling regarding teaching of children with a disability. Personal and career characteristics included the length of teaching experience, the academic level the teacher taught at in the school, how much inservice training they had experienced, and their own assessment of their competence as a teacher. The teachers' perception of their degree of success, level of administrative support, availability of support services and the grade level they taught at, made a significant impact on their attitudes (Larrivee and Cook, 1979). The experience of contact with special educationists and principals in connection with children with disabilities was also influential (Thomas, 1985a).

In order to overcome the negative aspects of integration, research has focussed on the factors which promote acceptance of the child with disabilities and facilitate social interaction in the regular classroom. Areas which have received attention in research include providing knowledge and information about the process of integration, the provision of supervised experiences and contact with students with disabilities in situations where their adequacies and capabilities can be demonstrated (Leyser and Abrams, 1983). Additional classroom and behaviour management techniques to assist and increase responsive academic time and a reduction in inappropriate behaviour of all students, was suggested to be a requisite by Leyser (1988). This emphasis on gaining extra skills has been reflected in three investigations which include Bender (1986-7), Patton and Braithwaite (1990) and Fradd et al. (1986-7). This group of researchers stated, that unless teachers could see themselves as capable of teaching both handicapped and non-handicapped children and able to meet the specific needs of the former group, integration will not benefit all who are involved in the process.

There may be a difference between how teachers feel they should respond for professional reasons and their actual feelings, according to Gans (1987). Teachers who have worked with a sense of isolation and a lack of support may have developed negative feelings from previous experiences, and faced with mainstreaming, are apprehensive about their inability to deal effectively with situations which may arise.

According to Thomas, these feelings of uncertainty and lack of assurance become generalised to all forms of disability and result in the attitude that all integration is impracticable. There may be an actual dislike of persons who are disabled, with an accompanying prejudice towards all disabilities, in all settings, if a teacher has experienced a negative outcome (Thomas 1985a; White and Phair, 1986). A cluster of research is coming through which endorses the value of integration from personal and detailed accounts of professionals involved in the process (York et al., 1992; Giangreco et al., 1993).

Teachers have made reference to a lack of reassurance for their efforts, and a lack of appreciation for their work. But equally important to the teachers was the quality of the reassurance and support being proffered. Misunderstanding of many of these subjective approaches to integration has led Alexander and Strain (1978) to comment that "today many educators are making a mad dash towards mainstreaming and are failing to recognise the barriers which must first be overcome" (p.390). One barrier that was highlighted in the research of Ward et al. (1987) in Australia, and not referred to in any other literature in this review was that "principals and teachers express positive attitudes [to integration] only when they feel no additional teaching competencies or extracurricular duties (e.g. toileting or medical supervision) are required on the part of the regular teacher" (p.80). This indicates the need for adequate resource facilities and additional classroom support, if a teacher is to deal with all situations with assurance.

In many of these studies reference has been made by teachers to a time factor as a perceived difficulty arises of taking on further duties, with the inclusion of children with special educational needs in the classroom. The crucial point appears to be the amount of time such children will spend with the teacher. Children with special educational needs are said to spend more time alone with a teacher in an integrated programme (Brophy and Hancock, 1988). In this research, teachers tended to provide prompts, reinforcements, and spend more time physically assisting children with multiple disabilities in play activities. However, this did facilitate integration. While the teachers provided few conversational type interactions, they asked questions and initiated interactions more frequently with disabled children than with non-disabled children. Although all this type of teacher interaction was noted in a wide variety of research programmes, there appears to be little analysis of the implications of these actions on future development and activities of non-disabled and disabled children. Many teachers' techniques are good for all children, not necessarily only those with

special needs and this is the value of the teacher who can facilitate social interaction in children.

The child's progression through a school system provides another influencing factor on teachers' attitudes. As role differentiation occurs at secondary school and there is more interest in success rates and a divergent curriculum, as compared to primary and intermediate schools, so more resistance to integration is noted. An attitude of reluctance to integrate students in the upper grades has been demonstrated (Larrivee and Cook, 1979; Salend and Salend, 1986; Schmelkin, 1981; Stephen and Braun, 1980). These authors suggested that teachers felt that certain skills were lacking in students with special educational needs which were essential for integration. These were the presence of social skills, the exhibiting of appropriate work habits, respecting their own and others' property and finally the ability to follow school rules (Salend and Salend, 1986). Stephen and Braun indicated that primary and intermediate grade teachers were more willing to integrate students with disabilities than were teachers in high school.

There is limited research available concerning the perceptions of special educators regarding regular teachers' attitudes. This has implications for any educational system where integration will be total and regular and special education services are to unite, with the special educators taking on the role of consultants and resource persons (Semmel et al., 1991). The results of a study by Diebold (1986), who investigated the attitudes of special educators who had worked with persons with a variety of handicapping conditions, indicated that special educators need to be more aware of the willingness of regular class teachers to accept placement of students with special educational needs in their regular classes.

The environmental and social aspects of classroom and playground management provide competent teachers with challenges, as they attempt to meet the needs of a wide variety of learning and performance characteristics in *all* students. In this section the acceptability of the children is discussed when it is associated with discipline, behaviour and teacher skills in this area. Studies have been carried out which show the reliance placed on the teacher in developing management strategies to gain co-operation, gaining information on behaviour change and the need for the use of reinforcement within the teacher-student classroom (Brady et al., 1988; Freiberg et al., 1989; Hawkins et al., 1988; Munson, 1986-7; Siperstein and Goding, 1985; Thompson et al., 1982). Differential levels of acceptance have been demonstrated by teachers taking into their classrooms some children with specific disabilities, and not

others. Children with severe impairments and particularly the behaviourally disordered child are not as acceptable (Clunies-Ross, 1986; Pieterse and Center, 1984). There are additional concerns of acceptability associated with the level of schooling the child is at, as appropriate work habits become essential for discipline maintenance (Larrivee and Cook, 1979; Salend and Salend, 1986). Discipline procedures cause concern to teachers and affect their perceptions of children with special educational needs, according to Ritter (1989). The rating of problem behaviour variables associated with the teacher's gender and the referral of children with high levels of disruptive behaviour did not demonstrate positive attitudes towards integration of children with disciplinary problems. In a study by Campbell et al. (1985), behaviour problems of intellectually disabled children were regarded as less serious than the same behaviour demonstrated by a physically or non-disabled child. This topic has importance for teacher training, as teachers need to develop skills so as to be able to deal with behaviour problems of 'handicapped' and 'non-handicapped children' in an equitable manner (Hudson and Clunies-Ross, 1984). This conclusion is also reached by Bartlett (1989) who reviewed court decisions and confirmed that most forms of minor disciplining remedies remain available to educators "as long as handicapped students are disciplined like non-handicapped students, and they [understand] they are not entitled to any special or unique exemptions or privileges" (p.364). The legal aspects of exclusion and disciplining students with disabilities are discussed by Raiser and Van Nagel (1980). Limited literature on the place of discipline and punishment is available for review. The role of the teacher in determining the type of action to be taken is vital and the results of the use of suspension and expulsion as a form of punishment should be carefully considered (Heron, 1978; Yell, 1989 and 1995). The relationship between the use of time out procedures and academic progress requires recognition (Skiba and Raison, 1990).

These considerations have great importance for the principal who has the dilemma of selecting the most competent staff to integrate students with special needs. There is a weight of responsibility in providing a service which is in the students' best interests, while at the same time meeting all the factors which promote positive attitudes towards integration. Evidence shows that attitudes towards inclusion are indeed "complex and multifaceted" (Schmelkin, 1981). The need for a competent teacher with a variety of skills to teach in an integrated setting has been recognised but the attitudes and perceptions of regular teachers are at the centre of this successful transition to inclusion.

2.4.4 The principal and inclusion. There few research studies reporting on the role of the principal and inclusion. The literature available indicates that the attitude of the principal- administrator as a leader is vitally important in any consideration of inclusion of children with disability. The attitudes of teachers and principals to integration in Australia was studied by Pieterse and Center (1984), who states that "the integration process appeared to be most successful whenever the school executive was firmly convinced of its ultimate benefit to both the disabled and the regular peer" (p.19). Of particular interest is a study by Center and Ward (1987) who demonstrate differences in thinking between the principal and the regular teacher in that, what the principal may have seen as positive, teachers frequently considered as uncertain. This was in accordance with an earlier study in which investigation showed that while the principals' attitudes did not differ from their staffs', they consistently underestimated the amount of anxiety caused by the integration policy (Ward et al., 1987, p.82). As principals made decisions regarding enrolment of children with special needs, there existed a dependency between a positive attitude towards integration and the provision of adequate support services. The principal was also in a position of responsibility, when the itinerant teacher relationship was being developed, and his role was clearly seen as one of providing leadership and support.

The leadership role is particularly vital in the introduction of any new philosophy into a societal structure as enclosed as a school. The principal must accept the concept of integration, convince others of its worth, provide resources to action the change and beyond that accept and enrol the students with special needs. In the U.S.A where most of the research has been done on this topic, these processes have been investigated with regard to conflict and stress in administrators and principals. With the passage of PL 94-142, the administrator-principal has become responsible for all phases of the implementation of its statutes. This included the writing of IEPs, the equal protection stance involved with student discipline, enrolment of emotionally disturbed children and the difficulty of finding appropriate instruction programmes. This has led to "an uneasy alliance", according to Chandler and Utz (1982, p.54), between the administrator and special education. Principals have shown resistance to special education laws because of these issues. Attention was drawn to the fact that the responsibility of implementing PL94-142, fell on principals who had not had the training designed to meet those responsibilities and they often could not provide all the services teachers and parents expected of them. Thus, integration provided a challenge to principals who had been shaken by a change in the traditional power base and were being given responsibility for preparing teachers who had no expertise in integration policies. Administrators were feeling nervous, according to Chandler and Utz,

because they considered they would be criticized if the new programs did not work, were too expensive or challenged the community to the point of discomfort. The principals' use of professionals with specialised knowledge in special education, can make the change to integrated education easier and possibly more successful.

2.4.5 Inclusion and special education professionals. The attitudes and performance of professionals, who are moving into regular schools from special education, are of utmost importance for the success of inclusion. These include the teacher who has specialised in special education and is now considered a resource teacher or itinerant teacher. Special education referred to by Chandler and Utz (1982) as an "individualised, competency based form of education" (p.56) has depended on teachers in this field to take responsibility for children with a wide variety of educational needs. Their decisions have far reaching effects on all members of the school and community.

The value of special education or resource teachers and their changing role in the integration process, has been recorded by Pieterse and Center (1984), Thomas (1985b), and Center and Ward (1987). These authors drew attention to the special relationship that can develop between resource teachers and regular classroom teachers, as they integrate pupils with special needs. If regular teachers have access to support and assistance from resource teachers, they have a more positive attitude to integration (Center and Ward, 1987). According to Pieterse and Center, when a teacher had the support of "a committed executive and an experienced itinerant teacher, she was able to acquire the skills and strategies to effectively implement the integration process" (p.19). While the attitude of the resource teacher was of considerable importance, Thomas (1985b) considered there was a need for these teachers to "sensitise themselves to the problems facing schools where opposition to integrate remains high" (ibid, p.262). Therefore, according to Thomas, the role of the resource teacher has areas of conflict which still require investigation. Special education advisers or resource teachers at the local school level would appear to be key people in bridging a communication gap and could "serve a vital role in laying the foundation for a greater acceptance of integration among the teaching profession" (ibid, p.262). However, in the study of Pieterse and Center (1986) not all regular classroom teachers were able or willing to accept the itinerant resource teacher in their classrooms. They concluded that if the principal was not committed to the use of the resource person, difficulties arose for all personnel involved in the inclusion process. Still further difficulties were noted when a lack of recognition existed over the need for specialist

support and, according to these authors, "the integration process was in jeopardy" (Pieterse and Center, 1986, p.19).

Although the principle of normalisation is accepted by most teachers the term 'mainstreaming' produces a wide set of reactions. Because of a number of complex issues, including lack of knowledge, support, and understanding, feelings of anxiety and fear develop. This topic will be discussed in the next section.

2.4.6 Conflict, stress and other feelings. Integration of children with special needs into the school community has caused a wide variety of responses, thereby indicating how anxious those concerned are about the process. This tentative approach is illustrated by Roles (1987) who commented "we have a long way to go, with many tasks before us. We are travelling in a sensitive minefield [and] the task is worthwhile, but let's do it slowly and with care" (p.5). This concern will be discussed in terms of role conflict and stress arising from role performance. Although limited research has been carried out on conflict and stress associated with inclusive practices, there are many indirect references to these occurrences.

A limited amount of research has focussed on role conflict, a situation where the manner in which a person carries out the requirements of a position is not attuned to expectations. This concept is important where teachers' attitudes show anxiety towards the mechanism of inclusion. Differences in role expectations and the ability of different role incumbents to manage their duties was highlighted by Bensky et al. (1980) and Beck and Gargiulo (1983). There are, however, some research reports being published on teacher stress associated with recent educational reforms and inclusion is within the context of these changes (O'Connor and Clarke, (1990).

Stress is dependent not only on environmental stressors but the reaction of the individual to stress. Thus, stressful situations cannot be seen in isolation but "only in relation to the teacher's capabilities, personality and perceptions" (Leyser and Abrams, 1983, p.41). The environmental stressors which were noted in the review of literature included: firstly, the 'special' aspects of the role of the teacher; secondly, the contextual difficulties found in the classroom; thirdly, the influence of legal requirements; and fourthly, managing student behaviour.

There has been speculation that special educators may show less susceptibility to stress in the area of integration, because of a common personality trait which drew them to a career in special education in the beginning. This approach has been referred

to as the 'special' approach or the 'mystique' of special educators (Beck and Gargiulo, 1983; Biklen 1985). As all teachers are now expected to take on this mantle of expertise, there is a high probability that role conflict and stress will occur. The contextual difficulties are highlighted in the increasing staff-pupil ratios and to illustrate this Beck and Gargiulo (1983) described how classrooms in special education units have smaller pupil-teacher ratios, as well as additional ancillary and teacher aide assistance. This arrangement is not always available to the regular classroom teacher in the U.S.A., where these authors did their research. But in the U.K., Karagianis and Nesbit (1981) consider the introduction of teachers aides as a necessity in a classroom where a teacher has direct responsibility for children with special educational needs. The research of Bensky et al. (1980) showed that as the legal requirements increased so did the stress, as expected paperwork and writing of IEPs was carried out. These researchers ranked the stress producing activities in the teacher's role. Stress was related to the number of pupils on the roll associated with the preparation and delivery of teaching. But as paperwork and IEP writing were considered a part of integration, they were considered low in stress production. In contrast, activities like managing student behaviour was considered most stressful by teachers. IEPs, although promoting low stress, become representative of the problems the teachers feel they face. Bensky et al. state that without support services, the IEP "becomes little more than additional paper work and integration is a misnomer" (p.19). This situation is referred to by Joiner and Sabatino (1981) in a policy study of PL 94-142, as 'process sabotage', which occurs if "compliance with a law, policy or regulation is superficial if it occurs at all" (p.25). This, according to Joiner and Sabatino, is a reaction against stress and is one way that resistance to change can be demonstrated within an organisation.

Prevention is important in this area of role conflict and stress. Acquiring teaching skills and knowledge, and the application of those skills in the classroom situation, including learning strategies to deal with the rising teacher-pupil ratios was vital (Karagianis and Nesbit, 1983; Beck and Gargiulo, 1983).

2.5 Conclusion

Knowledge is empowering and therefore the crucial point of inclusion is to provide teachers with the necessary skills to feel confident about any changes they may experience (Beck and Gargiulo, 1983; Bensky et al., 1980; Pieterse and Center, 1984). The review of the research has indicated that knowledge, skills and confidence are important to teachers' attitudes to inclusion. Numerous studies have referred to the

fact that "there can be no significant innovation in education that does not have at its centre the attitude of teachers" (Postman and Weingartner, 1969 in Longo, 1982, p.177). To change attitudes, it is advisable to let those most involved assist in making "key decisions about events which will influence these attitudes" (ibid, p.177). This then becomes an important consideration when legislation and policy directs the implementation of inclusion. It is important to understand the roles of all those persons concerned in the process of inclusion and to comprehend the factors which promote positive outcomes, as well as understand those areas of negative reaction.

In this literature review two themes have been explored. The first was to demonstrate, through an understanding of the sociology of disability, how those in society gain their understanding of disability. This enables people to create for their own use a system of classification which they will use in their everyday interaction with those they consider to be different. The second theme involved a consideration of the physical, personal and professional aspects of inclusion. The research studies which have been reviewed have been specific to certain situations and roles. What is not known is the whole process of inclusion which includes the interactions, the support networks and the day by day classroom dynamics when children with special educational needs are integrated into the regular school. This study aims to redress this omission. As a starting point it proved useful to seek an understanding of the theorists of social change as inclusion is a form of social and educational change. Chapter 4 explores the literature from which the framework for this thesis will be drawn.

Chapter Three

Historical Base

3.0 Historical Base for Inclusion in New Zealand Schools

To understand the implications of the legislation that was delivered in the Education Act, 1989 for children with special educational needs, it is necessary to place the process of inclusion in historical context. Traditionally, New Zealand has in a variety of ways experienced some inclusion for a great part of the period of time in which the education system has been evolving. This situation occurred because of geographical location or personal circumstance and was not a deliberate government action. The trend to meet social and educational obligations to a group of children who have been in special education classes or units, in regular educational facilities, has seen a change in attitudes. This has progressed to changes in policy and legislation. As law is one agent of social change, so the legislation with regard to those persons with disabilities must be set in the historical context of the period in which it was developed and implemented. To understand the present system of meeting the educational needs of children with disabilities, it was necessary to trace the development of special education in New Zealand in recent times.

3.1 The Development of Special Education

The value system of a society is reflected in the legislation enacted by its representative assembly or parliament. By the turn of this century legislation was determining the educational futures of children who were regarded as being "incapable of receiving proper benefit from instruction in an ordinary school" (Mitchell and Mitchell, 1985, p.14). The Education Act, 1877, although introducing a "system of free, secular and compulsory education" made no mention of special education but included an exemption clause on attendance for certain children. The School Attendance Act, 1901 and the Education Amendment Act, 1910 both addressed the needs of children with specific difficulties such as blindness, deafness, epilepsy or "feeble mindedness" (ibid, p.15). This legislation placed the responsibility of providing "efficient and suitable education" on the parents and if they were unable to meet the legal demands, children were directed to the relevant institutions which society had by now provided. Over the next fifty years further legislation was introduced, frequently based on reports from Britain, which classified degrees of disability and reaffirmed the responsibility of certain people to notify, provide education, or exempt children from school attendance (ibid, p.19).

3.1.1 The Education Act, 1964. The Education Act, 1964 consolidated the legislation from all previous Education Acts and their amendments (Mitchell and Mitchell, p.49). It defined special education as:

> Education for children who, because of physical or mental handicap or of some educational difficulty, require educational treatment beyond that normally obtained in an ordinary class in a school providing primary [or] secondary education.

The relevance of this Act to inclusion is that; firstly, it provided for the definition of categories of children requiring special education; secondly, it recognised the 'special' attributes of teachers in special education by the provision of training in this area; thirdly, it provided an exemption clause for those children of school age who were not able "to attend school regularly, or were unable to be educated by reason of physical or mental handicaps" (section 111). A fourth consideration was that parents were required to enrol their child at a special education facility if their child was 'deemed' to require special tuition. If that child was sent to a special school or institution under the direction of the Director General, because the parents were unable to provide "efficient and suitable education", then they may have been required to contribute to the costs of the "maintenance and education" of the child (section 115). The Minister of Education had the power to "establish or disestablish any special class, clinic or service", as well as to audit the "efficient and suitable" education that children of school age, whose disability was such that they required special education, were receiving. The relevance of this Act to inclusion was considerable because it set the seal of approval on a separate education for those children who could be defined as requiring an education different to mainstream children, provided by specially trained teachers and delivered in separate facilities. As well as these considerations, parents were given very little power to exercise their opinions. There were ambiguities in this legislation which allowed for exemptions to operate and thereby limit the educational experiences of certain children, most frequently those with severe or profound disabilities, who were placed in day care situations rather than educational facilities (Webb-Hendy, 1979).

By 1964, special education was a firmly established section of New Zealand Education Department with special residential institutions providing for the needs of many deaf, blind, intellectually and physically disabled persons, as well as special schools, classes and clinics.

By the mid 1980s, the world wide trend to meet the social and educational needs of those persons considered to be disabled had started to be assimilated into the social conscience of New Zealand. Pressure from involved parents, educational specialists and teaching professionals had been reflected in several reports (Department of Education, 1987; Taskforce to Review Education Administration, 1988; Lange, 1988) which called for the education of all children whose needs had not been met within the mainstream of education, and for this to occur with age related peers in the regular schools. As people with disabilities form a minority group in society and therefore have little collective power, there was a need for their rights to be recognised by providing full and equal opportunity of involvement in every aspect of society. Traditional approaches to those with disabilities have led to a presumed need for support and services which are usually provided separately from mainstream society. Up until the 1980s those responsible for devising policy frequently maintained this situation. However, attention was drawn to meeting the educational needs of a section of New Zealand children with the publication of the Draft Review of Special Education (Department of Education, 1987a).

3.1.2 The Draft Review of Special Education, 1987. The Draft Review of Special Education (Department of Education, 1987a) was intended as a proposed plan of action for the next ten years and beyond. This review was important for inclusion because it was considered the "educational component" of an objective "to enable all New Zealand's handicapped citizens to live as fully as they can in their ordinary community" (Department of Education, 1987b, p.1). The review team outlined three directions the education of children with special educational needs should take. Firstly, the review team agreed with the continuation of the policy of educating those students whose needs could be met within the mainstream of regular education. Secondly, the review team considered that for these students the resources needed to provide tuition should be based on the individual assessment of a child's teaching needs, and not on the particular membership in a specific handicap. Thirdly, the review team put forward the idea that education for children with special educational needs should become a co-operative enterprise, with the community, teachers, parents and students as the co-operating partners. "Education decisions would be a co-operative exercise between parents and those professionals most closely involved with the students' teaching programmes" (Department of Education, 1987b, p.1). The review team constantly placed the student in the context of the family, the culture and the community. Those involved considered the ethnic and cultural aspects of the student's background an essential element in the assessment of an individual child's needs and the teaching programme devised to meet those needs.

A "soundly based" administrative structure at local, regional and national levels was considered essential if there was to be progress in developing universally available provisions for children with special educational needs. Working in this organisation would be adequately trained special education officers "who would direct, support and monitor changes of development....in a system that ensure[d] planning [was] efficient and realistic" (Department of Education, 1987a, p.6). Responsibility was to be placed jointly with the officers, school staff and community services, to assess whether the programmes were appropriate, the resources adequate for the delivery of such programmes and that the administrative structure functioned efficiently to support these activities. "This would reinforce the policy that special education is really a part of the whole education system and not an adjunct to it. It is not students who must be mainstreamed but special education itself" (ibid, p.6). The direction indicated by the review committee saw a dismantling of much of the special education framework which paralleled the regular education system, and at the same time the inclusion of children from these facilities into the mainstream. Staff who had been involved in special education would support regular staff who had children with special educational needs in their classrooms. The result would be that a more efficient team would develop as programmes could be tailored for individual students. Emphasis was placed on the role of the principal in implementing changes and the need for full support of regular teachers, so change could occur. In the Review, priority was given to the need for inservice training, appropriate guidance and support for teachers.

The comment was made that care should be taken to avoid ordering these changes to occur and to gradually introduce them into the schools. This view is accentuated when consideration is given to a further statement which refers to the need for "a major public education campaign [as] an essential prerequisite for this development, [because] without the support of society as a whole, the necessary resources will not be provided" (Department of Education, 1987a, p.93). The suggestion was made for a sequential development which would permit some action to be started. Much depended on the provision of resources, and the government decisions on this action were made "in the light of priorities to be accorded a range of competing demands" (Department of Education, 1987c).

3.2 Journey to Inclusion: Reports, Reviews and Educational Legislation

The stage appeared to be set for inclusion to be the accepted mode of delivering education to the group of children regarded as 'special', but at this point in time the taskforce to review education administration (Taskforce to Review Education Administration, 1988) was announced and the proposed recommendations of the Draft Review of Special Education faltered. The members of the taskforce considered that national objectives and responsibilities would be met if effective administration was in place with decision making as close as possible to where those decisions would be actioned. This would ensure control over available resources and accountability for achievements. The model proposed was released in the *Picot Report* (Taskforce to Review Education Administration, 1988).

3.2.1 The Picot Report: Administering for Excellence, 1988. The Draft Review was set aside and inclusion sidelined as the Taskforce addressed issues related to the entire education system. The Taskforce was requested to "endeavour to ensure that the systems and structures proposed [were] flexible and responsive to changes in the educational needs of the community and the objectives of the government" (Taskforce to Review Education Administration, 1988, p. ix). Although the taskforce "chose to ground its proposals firmly in issues of equality and equity" (Ramsay and Oliver, 1992, p.3) the text of the report refers to education being "fair and just for every learner" with specific reference to gender, and social, cultural and geographic circumstances (Taskforce to Review Educational Administration, 1988, p.3). Although disability is not referred to the *Picot Report* did make recommendations regarding special education. The first recommendation concerned the "special education advisers" who would be essential in the implementation of inclusion, and for whom the taskforce suggested a 40 per cent payment by the state, a contract with the Department of Education and the balance of income to be gained from fees from schools. To cover these fees, the remaining 60 per cent of the payment of special education advisers would come from moneys included in the bulk grants paid to the schools. The delivery and funding of special programmes and facilities for students with disabilities remained the responsibility of the Ministry of Education. But if institutions were unable to provide the special programmes or facilities for individual students, applications were to be made for a special grant from the Ministry. After assessment of the student's needs and receiving the necessary special funding, the school would be able to purchase whatever services it required to meet the individual circumstance (Taskforce to Review Education Administration, 1988, pp.73-74;

Moltzen and Mitchell, 1992, p. 2). Although the taskforce considered the needs of the schools involved with inclusion, it also made provision for those children in special schools, units and classes, thereby reaffirming a dual approach to this aspect of education.

3.2.2 Tomorrow's Schools, 1988. The *Tomorrow's Schools* Report (Lange, 1988), which outlined the administrative reform for education in New Zealand, provided the framework for the Education Act, 1989. It set out the policy decisions the government had reached following consideration of the *Picot Report.* There were administrative and financial changes in the reform that had particular relevance for children with special educational needs and their future integration into the regular school system.

In *Tomorrow's Schools* the administrative reforms which were to have an impact on inclusion were being put in place. These included a recognition of the partnership between professionals and the community in which the school is located. A board of trustees would be the mechanism for the school- community partnership. The schools would be in control of many of their educational resources, to use as they determined within certain guidelines. Each school would have its own set of goals and objectives within the overall guidelines set by the state. The needs of the community would be expressed in these guidelines, which would be set out in a charter drawn up by the school. The charter was to be regarded as a contract between the community and the school, as well as the school and the state. Schools were to be accountable for meeting the objectives they had set out in their charters and for the government funds spent on education. Regular reviews of schools by the Education Review Office would check that the schools had met their obligations to their community. A Ministry of Education office would be set up in each educational district to administer property, to assist with operational activities and to handle finances between the government and the school. An independent Parent Advocacy Council would be established to promote the interests of parents and to provide assistance and support for those who found dissatisfaction with the system (Lange, 1988, pp.1-2).

Some recommendations had direct implications for the schools and the children with special educational needs enrolled there. These included the establishment of the Special Education Service which would be contracted by the Ministry to provide services to the schools. The special education advisers would include psychologists, visiting teachers, speech-language therapists and advisers for the education of handicapped, deaf and visually impaired students. A further recommendation was that

the "funding of special programmes and facilities for students with handicapping conditions will be the responsibility of the Ministry" (Lange, 1988, p.13). All these policy decisions held important connotations for the schools who were in the future to undertake responsibility for integrating children with all manner of different educational needs into their midst. For example, for the first time decisions would be made by trustee members who were without specialist knowledge in either disabilities or education. The considerations of the community, with regard to children with special educational needs, would be written up in the school charter and enlarged upon in school policy.

When the Education Act 1989 passed into law each of these features had particular meaning for the schools who were enrolling children with special educational needs.

3.2.3 Education Act, 1989. The world-wide trend to meet social and educational rights of persons considered to be disabled was reflected in New Zealand's Education Act, 1989. This Act spelled out the changes in the education system which would affect the student with special needs within the education system. The Act stated the right of "every person [being] entitled to free enrolment and free education at any state school" (section 3) and stated further the equal rights which were to exist for "people who have special educational needs (whether because of disability or not) to enrol and to receive education at state schools" (section 8).

This legislation allowed all children to be integrated into the school of their parents' choice and to become participants in everyday school activity like their peers. But other sections in the Act were important for parents and their children. One of these saw that decision-making regarding the future educational placement of some children remained with the Secretary of Education. Complex arrangements were provided for parents to challenge this decision and to request reconsideration of the placement considered by the minister. The Minister, through his secretary, therefore had the power to either refuse placement at a special school, unit or class or in a regular school, if he considered it in the best interests of the child. The right of parents to enrol their children at an educational facility they considered appropriate for their child was therefore able to be reviewed.

The Special Education Service (SES) was set up under the Act with the function to "provide advice, guidance, and support for the benefit of people under 21 with difficulties in learning or development" (Section 39). By this action the SES supported the schools in meeting their obligations to this group of people as designated by the

Act. Following the passing of the Education Act, 1989, the SES provided consultation, training and assessment services under contract to the Ministry of Education. The Ministry of Education was responsible for the allocation of resources in the form of discretionary hours or facilities but before this was done an assessment of the children was required. This assessment was the responsibility of the SES and as a result there was considerable contact between this organisation, the schools and the Ministry of Education. Central administration was therefore able to keep a control on the amount of finance directed to the district Ministry of Education offices to provide discretionary hours to specific children and funding to the schools for facilities.

Another aspect of the Education Act, 1989 was that children with special educational needs were to be subject to the same requirements as others, in relation to attendance at school and exclusion, suspension and expulsion from school.

Two further factors which emerged from the Education Act, 1989 and of relevance to children with special educational needs were those of equity and the Treaty of Waitangi. These shall now be considered.

The contract defined in legal terms in the charter framework indicated "the precise relationship between the state and the school trustees, the boundaries between the two and the nature and power relations between them" (Codd and Gordon, 1991, p.12). One of the guiding principles included in this document, as a compulsory measure, was the issue of equity.

> The Board of Trustees will ensure that [the] school's policies and practices seek to achieve equitable outcomes for students of both sexes, for rural and urban students; for students from all religions, ethnic, cultural, social, family and class backgrounds, and for all students *irrespective of their ability or disability* (Ministry of Education, 1989, p.5). [italics the researcher's]

This compulsory section on equity was placed in the charter to pre-empt discrimination occurring in these areas. On signing their charters schools were accepting the principles of these equity issues. This clause was taken into the charters of all schools, but its true acceptance was ascertained when the schools began to write their policies. During policy writing the schools looked at the equitable outcomes which they could achieve for their pupils in these areas and gave the details of how they were going to meet their responsibilities.

These were the documents relevant to inclusion at the commencement of this study. Since that time, further legislation, reports and policy have been presented and implemented, and their relevance to inclusion will now be discussed.

3.2.4 Lough Report, 1990. A review of the methods and outcomes of the reforms of the administrative aspects of education was initiated by the government and reported in the *Lough Report* (Ministry of Education, 1990). The inclusion or mainstreaming of children with special needs into the regular education system came under scrutiny.

The *Lough Report* referred to the "many 'pockets' of special education resources throughout the education system" (ibid, p.45). The report considered that the funding which provided support to children with special educational and developmental needs was "allocated in an inefficient and inequitable" manner. The result was that the children placed in the mainstream were being inadequately supported, while the bulk of the resources were being directed to non-residential and residential special schools, attached units and teachers in regular schools (ibid, p.45). The *Lough Report* drew attention to the problems associated with the allocation of funding, a difficulty still awaiting resolution four years later. The review team called for a "targeted special education provision" determined by the child's specific and regularly assessed needs. For effective allocation and distribution of funds, the key elements were that they be equitable, responsive to changes in the needs of the children, efficient, accountable, targeted to the needs of the child and those with responsibility for the child through an IEP, and, finally, in line with government policy. The review team also considered that if special education resources were to be co-ordinated within the education budget, then there was a need for a single source of control accountable to the Ministry of Education, and thereby to the Minister. To implement the Government's policy on mainstreaming, a gradual closure of selected non-residential, residential and special classes and units would need to occur. The resources obtained as a result of these closures would be redirected and redistributed to assist with the implementation of the mainstreaming policy.

Following the *Lough Report* there were obviously difficulties to be addressed in allocation of resources to support inclusion and the result was the publication of the *Statement of Intent* in 1991 (Ministry of Education, 1991).

3.2.5 Statement of Intent, 1991. This document outlines the "framework for the Government's intentions for special educational policy". It was the result of a

survey of research results and international material on special education policy, complemented by very limited consultation, discussions and submissions from interested parties. According to this document the "key element of the policy was to retain a range of fairly resourced options to provide choice for parents of students with disabilities" (Ministry of Education, 1991, p.4).

According to the team who prepared the policy framework, anomalies had developed in the education system with respect to children with special educational needs because of "historical development" and lobbying by "practitioners and theorists on behalf of various groups of students" (ibid, p. 10). The irregularities which were perceived to have had particular relevance to inclusion included: firstly, the unfair allocation and distribution of services which were based more on categorisation and the various assessment procedures used, rather than educational needs; secondly, a complex system which was overly bureaucratic and slow to respond to needs identified by parents or teachers; finally, the lack of co-ordination amongst providers of the services often resulting in parents having to identify and frequently co-ordinate services for their children. These were the problems the team who prepared the *Statement of Intent* recognised and they provided the following formula to solve these difficulties. Parental choice was protected by special schools and attached units, as well as regular schools, being available for consideration in school selection. Wherever the children were enrolled, targeted funding would be available "to enhance educational provisions" (Ministry of Education, 1991, p.5). The provision of resource centres throughout the country would mean that specialist services would be available to schools, and they would assist with the co-ordination of services to children with special educational needs. At the local level it was suggested that this would make for a more efficient delivery of resources. Of special interest to schools was the suggestion of a planned programme of teacher development. A plan which would enable children to move from school to school, and to other educational settings, was proposed.

One area of concern to inclusion which the *Statement of Intent* once again drew attention to was the area of targeted individual resources. It identified two different groups of children who had related special educational needs. These were the small group of students with "reliably identifiable physical, intellectual and/or sensory disabilities" and other children with "some form of learning or social difficulties who require assistance to access quality education" (ibid, p.12). This classification directly reflected the mode of resource provision available to the school. For those children with learning or social difficulties schools will be "given resources to use as they feel

most appropriate to meet needs" while those with identifiable disabilities "will continue to receive individually targeted resources through resource centres or special schools and units" (Ministry of Education, 1991, p.13). This classification was a contentious issue which aroused considerable debate in schools, because it once again used categories to identify certain children for resource allocation, a situation professional staff had become very sensitive towards. The view generally held by schools, was that the government was backing away from its responsibilities to a large group of children, because during this time schools were experiencing the cutting back of their discretionary hours. Another explanation could perhaps be that the schools had not yet come to terms with their responsibilities to provide education as a 'right', without firstly balancing the enrolment versus resources equation.

A second area of concern debated throughout education circles countrywide was the identification of the role of the SES in providing "contestable support and development advice" to the schools (Ministry of Education, 1991, p.15). The relevance of the ongoing argument on contestability to inclusion was: firstly, that the categorisation of students and their possible labelling may cause conflict for students and their caregivers, as schools attempt to gain services and resources; secondly, there was concern over the fragmentation of services which may result from contestability, and schools were not feeling confident over the ongoing support they felt they required from specialist agencies to enable them to maintain inclusion. Although the impact of contestability was not felt by schools, there was growing concern expressed over the constantly changing policy decisions which led to the credibility of the government being brought into question over issues of inclusion.

As it was considered important that the development and implementation of the policy framework proposed in the *Statement of Intent* be made with "those people involved at the operational level", it would need to "take place at a pace which allows for adequate time for those processes of consultation and co-ordination, and for local decision making" (Ministry of Education, 1992, p.17). The result was the first of the Special Education Policy Implementation Team cycles, with a focus on resourcing special educational needs, commenced early in 1992.

3.2.6 SEPIT Report, 1992-1994. The five schools in this study participated in these consultation rounds, generally as observers but in one instance as a participant. Usually the principal attended the meetings, sometimes in the company of a board of trustees' representative. The message that was taken back to the schools was that the resources available for special education were considered finite, the

government wanted to use these in the "best and fairest way" and therefore choices had to be made. Professional staff found it was difficult to reconcile the information gathering process of SEPIT with the loss of teacher aide hours from a classroom, where the teacher was managing 36 to 37 children daily. Another outcome of these consultation rounds was that there was little support for the categories defining disability as outlined in the *Statement of Intent.* The concerns which surrounded the equitable distribution of resources remained. The SEPIT team devised a model on which the organisation of resource allocation would be based, however the concerns which surround the equitable distribution of resources remain. No effective solution has yet evolved for a problem which has enormous connotations for inclusion and schools. However, schools are required to meet the national goals in education for *all* children. Therefore the final document to be reviewed in this section is the *National Education Guidelines* which provides the stated goals for education in New Zealand (Ministry of Education, 1993). This last document has considerable impact on boards of trustees and their schools, with reference to the responsibility of meeting the educational goals of all children enrolled in their schools.

3.2.7 National Education Guidelines. Each state and integrated school board of trustees in New Zealand must have an approved and written charter of aims, purposes and objectives. Each charter "shall be deemed to contain the aim of achieving, meeting and following (as the case may be) the *National Education Guidelines*" (Education Act, 1989, section 61). The revised *National Education Guidelines* have relevance to inclusion in that they re-emphasise the issue of equality of educational opportunity for all children "by identifying and removing barriers to achievement" (Ministry of Education, 1993, p.3). A second clause refers to the identification of these children and their receiving "appropriate support" so they can achieve success in their education.

While boards of trustees must "foster [all] student achievement" they have special responsibility to their children with special educational needs, to ensure that professional staff have the support to meet the criteria of assessment, development and implementation of programmes and the removal of any impediment to an "equitable and potentially fulfilling education" (ibid, p.3). These requirements place principals and boards of trustees in some very complex situations, with regard to various aspects of meeting these expectations within the letter of the law.

To this point the legislation and reports which have direct relevance to education and especially inclusion have been reviewed. There is other legislation which does not

come into the category of educational documents, but which is just as important in determining the path taken by inclusion in schools.

3.3 Journey to Inclusion: Related Legislation

Legislation which has relevance to persons with disabilities and particularly to the process of integration include: firstly, the Human Rights Act, 1993; secondly, the Disabled Persons Community Welfare Act, 1975; thirdly, the Building Act, 1991; and fourthly, the Health and Safety in Employment Act, 1992. These shall now be described, together with a reference to their relevance to inclusion.

3.3.1 The Human Rights Act, 1993. The Human Rights Act, 1993, promotes the advancement of human rights in New Zealand and designates unlawful areas of discrimination. The right of entry to school for *any* child is safeguarded in this act, which in section 57 states the following:

> It shall be unlawful for an educational establishment, or the authority responsible for the control of an educational establishment, or any person concerned in the management of an educational establishment or in teaching at an educational establishment,
>
> (1) (a) To refuse or fail to admit a person as a pupil or student; or
> (b) To admit a person as a pupil or a student on less favourable terms and conditions than would otherwise be made available; or
> (c) To deny or restrict access to any benefits or services provided by the establishment; or
> (d) To exclude a person as a pupil or a student or subject him or her to any other detriment, -by reason of any of the prohibited grounds of discrimination.
>
> (2) In this section 'educational establishment' includes an establishment offering any form of training or instruction and an educational establishment under the control of an organisation or association referred to in section 40 of this Act.

However, section 60 presents the exceptions which may occur in relation to disability and admission to educational establishments. It is not unlawful to refuse admission to a child to a school if that child requires special facilities or resources that cannot be 'reasonably' made available. Again, the definition of 'reasonably' is not clearly defined. Clause (2) applies to instances where the child's disability may be of harm to others and place other persons at risk. This has direct connotations for some of the children with emotional and behavioural problems. These exceptions become invalid if 'reasonable' measures can be taken without 'unreasonable disruption', by those in charge of the institution. Until the terms 'reasonable' and 'unreasonable disruption'

become tested in a court of law the true weight of this legislation is unknown. The details of the Act are as follows:

> (1) Nothing in section 57 of this Act makes it unlawful to refuse admission to an educational establishment to a person whose disability is such that that person requires special services or facilities that in the circumstances cannot reasonably be made available (being services or facilities that are required to enable the person to participate in the educational programme of that establishment or to enable the person to derive substantial benefits from that programme).
> (2) Subject to subsection (3) of this section, nothing in section 57 of this Act shall apply where the person's disability is such that there would be a risk of harm to that person or to others, including risk of infecting others with an illness, if that person were to be admitted to an educational establishment and it is not reasonable to take that risk.
> (3) Nothing in subsection (2) of this section shall apply if the person in charge of the educational establishment could, without unreasonable disruption take reasonable measures to reduce the risk to a normal level.

3.3.2 The Disabled Person's Community Welfare Act, 1975. This Act is concerned with the access to and facilities at premises open to the public, and educational and cultural institutions including schools. This Act was important because it ensured that all buildings constructed or reconstructed after 1977 provided 'reasonable and adequate' access and provision of sanitary and parking facilities for disabled persons.

Section 25 of the Disabled Person's Community Welfare Act, 1975 states:

> In any case where provision is being made for the construction on any land of any new building or premises to which the public are to be admitted, whether on payment or otherwise, or for the major reconstruction of any building or premises to which the public are to be admitted, whether on payment or otherwise, if the initial work related to the construction or major construction commences on the land on or after the first day of January 1977, the person liable for the cost of the construction or major reconstruction (whether the Crown or any local authority, or public body, or corporation, or person) shall, in the means of access both to and within the building or premises, and in the parking facilities and sanitary conveniences to be available (if any), *ensure that reasonable and adequate provision is made for the disabled persons who may be expected to visit or work in the building or premises to enter and carry out normal activities and processes therein.* [italics the researcher's]

Any provision that was made in accordance with the code of practice of design for access by disabled persons was deemed to be a reasonable and adequate provision. As many of the premises, like schools, are now being renovated there are designated alterations which are required for building consent to be obtained. In order to meet this need to update buildings, further changes applicable to those persons with disabilities occurred in the Building Act, 1991.

3.3.3 The Building Act, 1991. Until this act was passed any buildings constructed prior to 1975 were not required by law to meet the demands of access and facilities stated in the Disabled Person's Community Welfare Act, 1975. Many of these public buildings were owned by the Crown and are undergoing refurbishment and renovation. This legislation ensures that these public buildings are updated to meet present legal standards of access and facility provision.

The Building Act, 1991, Section 38, subsection (1) states:

> No building consent would be granted for the alteration of an existing building unless the territorial authority is satisfied that after alteration the building will comply with the provisions of the building code *for access and facilities for use by people with disability* (where this is a requirement in terms of section 25 of the Disabled Person's Community Welfare Act, 1975). [italics the researcher's]

3.3.4 The Health and Safety in Employment Act, 1992. This outlines the terms of safe employment standards and the maintenance of a safe environment for employees and those affected by the work of other people. In the context of the National Administrative Guidelines, boards of trustees are expected to provide a "safe physical and emotional environment" for students and "comply in full with any legislation currently in force or that may be developed to ensure the safety of students and employees" (Ministry of Education, 1993, p.4). In the course of this study, the activity or circumstances of a limited group of students with severe behavioural problems did appear to constitute a hazard to other students and staff when, on three occasions, physical harm was caused. It is suggested that as boards of trustees are required to provide a safe environment, several sections of this Act are applicable.

The Act states that accepting the definition of hazard to be:

> an activity, arrangement, circumstance, event, occurrence, phenomenon, process situation or substance (whether arising or caused within or outside a place of work) that is an actual or potential cause or source of harm.

then under section 10 (2) the employer shall take the steps set out,

> (a) To take all practicable steps to minimise the likelihood that the hazard will be a cause or source of harm to the employees.

Again, the true meaning of this Act will need to be tested in a court of law because given the legal situation regarding discipline, suspension and expulsion, boards of trustees on the recommendations of principals are responsible for the enrolment of

these students in their schools. However, the final decisions rests with the Secretary of Education. In the course of this study, principals referred to their concerns about their responsibility to the safety of children and staff when they were 'encouraged' or pressured into readmitting children they had expelled. They also expressed trepidation concerning readmitting some children they had suspended. The ultimate responsibility to identify, record, adequately notify difficulties and supervise and train staff to ensure that students and staff are safe, rests with boards of trustees. While the Act "provides penalties for those employers who do not comply with its requirements....it does not tell them how they are to carry out their responsibility" (NZEI, 1992, 3 (19), p.2).

These Acts of parliament provide the legislation which has the most direct implications for persons with disabilities in New Zealand. While these changes have been taking place in this country, international developments in rights issues relevant to the disabled have been occurring concurrently. As New Zealand has been influenced by international reviews and legislation concerning special education, it is important to understand the historical background which has given rise to their development. These changes will now be reviewed with reference to the United Kingdom, United States and Australia.

3.4 International Developments in Special Education

The principle which is slowly developing in certain countries of the world, of the acceptance of all persons with disabilities as valued and respected persons, has been forged from several moral convictions. Firstly, it grew out of the recognition of the minority status of people with disabilities that developed alongside the civil rights movements in the United States. Secondly, it was influenced by the normalisation approach of Nirje (1985), who considered it right for those with disabilities to experience the same conditions of living as everyone else in society. Thirdly, the legislation which was in turn influenced by the normalisation principle, directly affected educational and community care in the United Kingdom following the presentation of the *Warnock Report* (H.M.S.O., 1978). That different historical backgrounds in special education can give rise to very different sets of legislation, has been noted by Danby and Cullen (1988). As the educational changes in New Zealand mirror a world wide movement of policy changes, with respect to persons with disabilities, it was necessary to understand the major themes. Themes relevant to this thesis are:

- the difficulty of defining the population and of labelling children in order to direct resources;

- an acknowledgment of the role of parents in special education;
- the place where children with special educational needs will receive their education in relation to the rest of the population;
- the equitable allocation of limited resources;
- the rights of the individual child to an appropriate education.

The relevance of these themes to inclusion shall be discussed in relation to their countries of origin.

The use of labelling was considered useful in the delivery of services, communication and increasing public awareness (section 2.2.3). Its use will now be placed in a historical context of educational legislation.

3.4.1 Classification. At a time when an attempt was being made to bring additional resources to more children with educational needs, the use of categories of handicap and of labelling served to keep children within the boundaries of special education. The *Warnock Report* (H.M.S.O, 1978) in the United Kingdom attempted to move the language of description for special education, as used in law and regulations, away from a deficit model based on medical definition to one that defined the educational needs of the child. The stigma attached to labelling children according to categories of disability was recognised and the Warnock committee urged that this practice cease. These semantic changes were not related to assessment or the provision of resources.

While the United Kingdom had become sensitive to the negative aspects of labelling, in the United States federal support is provided according to the category of disability with certain handicaps receiving a greater weighting. Students who were placed in special education programmes received more financial support than students integrated into regular education, and this situation has led to anomalies. The administrative aspects of the law included the maintenance of categories of disability and the continuance of labelling, so that financial support could be gained at both state and local level. Labelling is of financial importance in the decision making concerning placement, and this arrangement is not conducive to inclusion (section 2.3.2.). Legislation was passed to legitimise the philosophy of 'mainstreaming' and the pressures that resulted could be seen reflected in the massive production of literature and research at that time.

3.4.2 Education in the mainstream. In the United Kingdom the Education Act, 1981, which was influenced by the *Warnock Report*, recognised 'mainstreaming'.

This Act drew attention to three conditions which required fulfilment for the education of children with special educational needs in the mainstream. These conditions were:

- that the school was required to meet the child's special needs;
- there was compatibility between the child's educational needs and the instruction required by the other children in the class;
- and there was efficient use of resources to provide for that child.

These will be elaborated in the following sections. The professionals who had the responsibility for providing for children with special needs in the schools were charged with ensuring the child, as far as it was practicable, engaged in similar activities to their peers. It was expected that, following the Education Act, 1981 the majority of children with special needs would be educated within the ordinary resources of their own school. However, without the specific support and advisory services, and overall authoritative policy to drive the cause of integration, children with special educational needs were not deemed important enough for schools to make special provision for. As a result inclusion faltered.

One notable outcome of the *Warnock Report* was the classification of integration into three categories: locational, social and functional (section 2.3.3). Neither Ballard (1989) nor Biklen, (1985) consider locational or social "arrangements" will work as 'mainstreaming' because the children are segregated from their peers. With the continuance of the use of these different forms of 'mainstreaming' by the time the Education Act, 1988 was passed there remained a wide range of views on what constituted integration. While there were resource implications of genuine, planned integration involving all members of the school and community, there was also the possibility that the responsibility to make decisions which have positive implications for children with special educational needs may be avoided, side-stepped or modified (Bines, 1993, Bowe et al., 1992; Heward and Lloyd-Smith, 1990: Russell, 1990).

In the United States PL 94-142 provided the legislation to recognise inclusion. This law stated that education was to be delivered in the least restrictive environment which referred to where the education process should take place. The term 'free appropriate education' has been soundly debated as to its meaning, as has also the phrase 'the least restrictive environment'. The 'least restrictive environment' approach has been the subject of discussions concerning court cases and litigation (Brady et al., 1988; Danby and Cullen, 1988; Dybwad, 1980; Vernon, 1981).

In South Australia there is no legislation comparable to that in the United Kingdom or the United States, but admission to school was assured through the passage of the SA Equal Opportunity Act, 1984 (amended 1990) which contained an anti-discriminatory clause to prevent refusal of an application for placement by a student.

Parents have been at the forefront in demands for educational rights for children and this drive has frequently meant legal action. When the *Warnock Report* coined the term 'parents as partners' the terms of the partnership were frequently set by the professionals (section 2.4.1).

3.4.3 'Parents as partners'. In the United Kingdom following the passage of the Education Act, 1981, there was for the first time legal acknowledgment of the views of parents which influenced assessment situations, involved consultation and information sharing. Parents were given the power to request assessments and to appeal the authority's verdict. The inclusion of these procedures in the Act was seen by Hermelin (1981) as a reflection of the strength of the *Warnock Report* on parental partnership, and also as a demonstration of the influence of parents and pressure groups involved with disabled persons. The power of this parental partnership has fluctuated under the influence of the Education Acts 1981 and 1988, but the Education Act of 1993 gave parents a vehicle for appealing assessment and placement decisions.

With the recent changes which have occurred in the United Kingdom the provision of special education services now rests largely on school provision within a market economy. This has placed parental involvement in education in a new perspective. There has been disquiet on two fronts. One is the drive for "measurable educational attainment" with "parental choice" influencing the school's direction (Heward and Lloyd-Smith(1990). The second front involved the many concerns as to whether parents wanted to take up the role of governing and managing schools where partnership was at a business level, according to Russell (1990, p.218). This was ironical when the intention of the Education Act, 1981 was to provide parents with "advice, training, support and respect" so they might become empowered. Perhaps the situation can be attributed to the need which existed for parental support to assist with assessment, statements and appeals. This was left to voluntary agencies and parent groups, and did not materialise as written in the Act. The end result, according to Russell, was that parents were now being expected to direct the questions and to monitor the answers.

In Australia these two important trends, the devolution of decision making from a central administration to school level and the increased parent and community involvement in all forms of education, are also being worked through (Gow et al., 1987, p.165). Another aspect of parental involvement is the recognition of the parents' right to have options and to choose an appropriate education for their child. The Cullen-Brown report (Directorate of School Education, Victoria, 1993) reflected this need and stated that for this to happen the state had to have different options for parents to make that choice from. The presence of education in regular schools, special schools and other settings was recognised, therefore it is assumed that the locational, social and functional 'mainstreaming' definition was an accepted feature.

Kirp (1982) drew attention to the place of professionals in dictating the terms of parental partnership. This has been a feature of special education in the United Kingdom and in the United States. PL94-142 required an individual education plan for every child assessed as being in need of special education. The result is that the need for diagnosis and educational prescription has led to an expansion of professional people having influence on personal and family life. These assessment procedures are associated with the allocation of finite resources and together with the defining of the population, these issues remain at the core of inclusion.

3.4.4 Equitable allocation. Adequate funding of programmes to implement inclusion appears to have been a controversial issue in many of the countries who have introduced this philosophy. For instance, the *Warnock Report* drew attention to the importance of providing adequate funding to integration and the setting aside of finances to achieve the ambitions of the legislation. In the United States, while Congress took the step of passing PL 94-142 they have thus far legislated federal funding for only a small amount of the cost (Hallahan and Kauffman 1986, p.26). The result is that the aim of the legislation is frequently not fully realised.

In the United Kingdom at the time of the Education Reform Act, 1988, there was a lack of specific support and advisory services, and overall authoritative policy to drive the cause of integration. Children with special educational needs were not deemed important enough for schools to make special provision for, according to Russell (1990). Russell has associated this resource acquisition with the move towards testing and achievement orientation, and considers that some of these children may not be considered desirable to regular schools. This author considered that "an obsession with competition and success (however defined) in any service of life, bodes ill for minority groups" (ibid, p.214). The threat of a "new kind of exclusion for children

with special educational needs" was referred to by Bowe et al. (1992). When achievement and competition become a consideration in education, many children become vulnerable to marginality and segregation.

The question Russell (1990) and Bowe et al. (1992) address is whether schools attract statemented students who are assessed and have targeted resources and risk being given a label as a school for low ability children; or do schools aim at the higher ability children who will give them a good academic name? This dilemma does not adequately meet the needs of those students who are not in the statemented group of students, but who have special educational needs. The 'loopholes' in meeting the special educational needs with reference to integration, the curriculum, policy and the need for vigilance to prevent losing the intent of the legislative changes, was discussed by Bowe et al. (1992), Heward and Lloyd-Smith (1990) and Wedell (1988). It was considered that these issues had severe implications for children with special needs and in the end depended on the considered worth of different students or the social validity of Wolfensberger (in Kozleski and Sands, 1992).

In Australia, the South Australian Equal Opportunity Act, 1984 and the Disability Services Act, 1986 are considered by Bailey (1992) as legislation which "should help in the battle for a fair share of resources to Special Education" (p.16). There is a widely held belief, according to Gow et al. (1987), that because of a lack of adequate and continual funding the integration policy has not been considered a high priority. As each state is responsible for funding its own educational services, there is the possibility of funding shortfalls. Without sufficient resources, these authors report, that integration was being referred to in extreme terms as 'maindumping'. The result is that government and the states' education departments remain unaccountable for the quality or the provision of any education to children. The Commonwealth Schools Commission report stated that the "lack of legal accountability [was] a barrier to integration" (Gow et al., 1987, p.162). The Code of Practice expected to be developed following the passing of the Education Act, 1993 in the United Kingdom, lays down a procedure for accountability (Bines and Thomas, 1994).

3.4.5 The Rights to an 'Appropriate Education'. In the United States, the political significance of the civil rights' movement and the issue of the human rights of the individual entered the field of education with the passage of Public Law 94-142, in 1975. PL94-142 gave a "promise that the civil rights of handicapped children would no longer be violated" (Abramson, 1980, p.321). The purpose of the Act was to require public schools throughout the United States to provide free,

appropriate public education designed to meet the needs of every handicapped child, regardless of his or her disability.

While PL94-142 was seen as a 'mainstreaming law', the focus was not on mainstreaming issues and the legislation did not use the term. What the legislation did do, was focus on the rights of the individual. Parents and professional organisations have, through the courts, challenged the 'unaffordable demands' the schools have claimed as a reason for not providing resources. The courts in America, following considerable litigation, have stated that the constitution "does not carry a price tag" (Kirp, 1982, p.169). This means that those who were making claims for education were entitled to it and the schools were not redistributing resources according to a variety of demands. The emphasis on 'rights' has led to a policy with an obligation to provide support, in spite of the reality of limited resources for such education. As in Australia, constitutional considerations and federal legislation cross over legislative conditions of State law and local policy practices, and the result is a diverse and inconsistent enactment of the law (Hallahan and Kauffman, 1986).

Australia does not have a law similar to PL94-142, nor Education Acts as have been described for the United Kingdom (Bailey, 1992). Australia, like the U.S.A., has a complex relationship between the federal and the state systems of government, which operates at many different levels. This has greatly affected how integration policy has evolved. However, the federal and state governments have been committed to the philosophy of inclusion. The implications for the implementation of policy on disability and educational special needs have been discussed by Conway (1992), Dimmock and Bain (1991), Gow et al., 1987 and Keogh (1990). The emphasis has been on federal policy which must be enacted in a decentralised or devolved state system at school level. These authors recognise that a gap can form in the reality of the different levels.

One piece of federal law which has particular relevance to inclusion in Australia is the Disability Services Act, 1986, which is based on the respect of the rights of disabled persons. This federal legislation refers to human worth and dignity, quality of life and the right to least restrictive services. In an overview of the various Australian state reports carried out since 1977, Gow et al., (1985) isolated five issues found to be common to all states. These were: firstly, the call for "the right to an appropriate education"; secondly, "a requirement for professional and material resources to be available to provide that education"; thirdly, "the need for these resource provisions to be additional to those provided for the non-disabled children" (section 3.4.4);

fourthly, "the rights of the parents to consultation and involvement in their children's education" (section 3.4.3); fifthly, "the need for concern with social as well as educational issues in the education of the children with special needs "(Gow et al., 1985, p.164). In the light of the last issue, the role and relationship of peers to children with special educational needs will now be considered.

3.4.6 The role of the peers. Until recently, PL94-142 had no concerns for the costs that integration may exact from the other students. This was in contrast to the needs of students with disability in the United Kingdom where, since the passing of the Education Act, 1981, there was always an associated concern for the regular students. In the United States the "burden of adjustment" was placed on the school and the emphasis on the rights of the children with disabilities, meant that any consideration of this concern was considered unethical (Kirp, 1982, p.170). In recent legal challenges on the placement of children in segregated settings, the school has had to show that the child would not benefit academically or socially from an integrated placement, or that the child would "disrupt classmates' learning" (Yell, 1995, p.402). According to Yell, the courts have not said that all students must be included in the mainstream but that if they are placed in restrictive environments, they must be able to justify those placements with concrete data. These recent events are important for inclusion because they support locational, social and functional 'mainstreaming'. They also draw attention to the continuing association of special and regular education.

3.4.7 A dual education system. The parallel existence of special and regular schools has caused contention wherever it is in use. In the United Kingdom problems were highlighted by the U.K. Commission Report, 1992 concerning staff allocations in special and regular schools The result, according to this report was that resources stayed in the special school sector which could have been moved into regular education, to support the children who have been placed there.

A similar occurrence was seen in the United States, when in 1986 the US Department of Education issued the Regular Education Initiative. By the early 1980s, the 'mainstreaming' movement in the United States had progressed to the stage where students who were mildly or moderately handicapped were being integrated into regular class placements on at least a part-time basis, and increasingly within the neighbourhood school environment. The purpose was to find ways that these children could have their needs met in the regular classroom by having a partnership form between special education, other special programmes, and regular education. This approach brought the exponents of both sources of education into conflict in some

cases, and agreement in others (Carnine and Kameenui, 1990); Hallahan et al., 1988; Reynolds, 1988; Stainback and Stainback, 1984; Stainback et al., 1985; Trent, 1989; Wang and Birch, 1984). Towards the end of the 1980s attention moved to the need to provide adequate education for all students, regardless of their abilities, and it was proposed to merge special education and regular education into one education system. This decision has produced much discourse as attempts were made to stop the trend or at least slow it down (Algozzine et al., 1990; Gallagher, 1990; Mesinger, 1985; Reynolds et al., 1987; Strom, 1981).

In Australia there have been two groups influential in the development of policy; the special educators who had interest in maintaining a segregated system with special education still viable, and to a lesser extent the parents, who have provided pressure as their awareness has grown of the success and practicality of integration. The regular teachers and the children have had little input. A division of interests has occurred as the need to respect the rights of the states, who may have had a policy on integration underway, conflicted with the need for a national policy on integration. The one common feature throughout was "the right to choose from a range of options" (Gow et al., 1987, p.166). The result is that some states have a range of services from the local school with no additional services through to segregated school provision, while other states provide all education services within the regular school with additional support services. The former system has the potential for excluding children from the regular system, while the latter has the opportunity to deny a child the right to an educational setting that may be more beneficial than the regular system (Ibid, p.166).

There has been considerable support in Australia for a central structure with sufficient power to facilitate the co-ordination of special educational services and at the same time support regular education, while the regions deliver the services at the school level. This is in operation in Queensland and Western Australia. Several policy statements had particular relevance to inclusion. They included the recognition of the value of special schools and 'statewide facilities' as resource and information centres, and of parental choice made on a basis of "balanced and detailed" information.

3.5 Conclusion

This review of the historical and legislative background of four countries, New Zealand, the United Kingdom, the United States and Australia has revealed some differences but many similarities in the journey they have each undertaken towards inclusion. The differences between these countries are in general associated with the

form of government experienced by each. The United States and Australia, where complex relationships exist between federal and state systems, have inclusive practices which have greatly affected the evolution of integration policy and the resulting legislation. The New Zealand system of government, which for colonial reasons has closely followed the United Kingdom, has a less complex political inheritance. This has the potential for a closer link between the policy makers and those who will implement the reality of the legislation.

Historical precedents which have resulted in a medical base being given to categorise disabilities, have also given rise to different approaches to specialist services and the resilience that has been shown to changing attitudes and the direction of change. The determined approach to rights issues which has been closely associated with constitutional law in the United States has meant that parents have legislative power to seek resources for their children. In contrast, the history of disability in New Zealand demonstrates an attitude of ambivalence and uncertainty. The passage of the Human Rights Commission Act, 1977, did not include disability as a ground on which discrimination was deemed to be unlawful. This deficit was righted in 1993 when the Act was amended. While an awareness of the rights of children with special educational and developmental needs is developing and legislation has allowed social change to occur, the action appears slow and uncertain. New Zealand inherited the professional stance of the United Kingdom, with educational and medical specialists making decisions and having considerable influence over every form of disability. The result was that disability within education became special and those associated professionals were experts in the field.

This review of international developments of inclusion has been discussed under the following headings:

- classification categories and the use of labelling;
- education in the mainstream;
- 'parents as partners';
- equitable allocation of resources;
- the rights of the individual to appropriate education;
- the role of the peers;
- a dual education system.

The relevancy of these to New Zealand shall be briefly discussed.

As in the United Kingdom, the abolition of categories of disability led to new labels of a more discrete kind. New Zealand has followed the semantic changes as politically correct speech aims to avoid the stigma attached to labels. Another influence of the *Warnock Report* accepted into New Zealand educational planning, was the definition of 'mainstreaming' with its three interrelated components describing social, locational and functional mainstreaming.

A further aspect of inclusion which the *Warnock Report* first gave credence to, was the place of parents in the education of their children with special needs. The term 'parents as partners' has been used to describe the relationship that exists in various guises between the family and the school. In many cases professionals have decided the terms of this relationship, but it has served to highlight the expertise that is available in a family which can be tapped by the schools. This association between the parents and the school has been written into New Zealand law from several angles: the ability of parents to serve in a governing capacity on boards of trustees; the requirement of parents to be associated wherever possible with IEP preparation and programme design; and in the decision on the ultimate placement of the child in an appropriate school environment. If there is disagreement over this decision parents have a right of reconsideration.

In Australia, the United Kingdom and the United States unequal educational opportunities have been examined by a variety of committees and reviews. In each country legislation relevant to the country's historical background has been passed. The main issues of concern have been based on where the child was to receive an education, who was responsible to meet the child's special needs and provide an individual programme, and how resources were to be allocated efficiently. An additional criterion was that children, as far as they were able, were to have opportunities as similar as possible to their classmates. New Zealand has been working through the policy implications of these issues also. For all four countries there have been challenges in changing the dual system of education with its special and regular components. Although attempting to meet the demands of inclusion, no one has yet managed to devise a scheme to balance the allocation of resources between these two educational streams, with satisfaction for all those concerned.

There are, however, in each of these four countries, as they gradually develop their educational systems to include children with educational and developmental needs, occurrences which show considerable similarities.

These factors are:

- the difficulty of defining the population;
- the problem of ensuring that funding is available to implement programmes and adequately support students in the regular classes;
- the challenge of equitable allocation of resources to students who may not give a return to the school in the form of success, achievement and value for money in a market driven economy;
- the introduction of achievement oriented goals and testing which provide for a system in which minority groups tend not to do well;
- the recognition that there is a need for accountability on the quality and provision of education to children with special educational and developmental needs;
- the recognition of the rights of parents to be closely associated with consultation, and involvement in the educational planning, realisation and outcomes of their children's education. Some parents may need to be empowered by training and support;
- the need to recognise that long term planning and commitment to the educational development of the children is required.

These are the major points indicated by the analysis of the legislative and review documents of the United Kingdom, the U.S.A., Australia and New Zealand as they progress towards inclusion. In all cases there appears to be a wide difference between policy and reality. With legislation there is a 'top-down' direction of change, from the government to the schools, but if policy initiatives are to be carried out there must be a closer link between policy and practice. "Policy must emanate from the realities of life in the schools; and policy expectations and implementation must be formulated with these same realities in mind" (Hall and Loucks, in Lieberman and McLaughlin, 1982, p.135). Close ties between policy developers and policy implementers would help bridge the gap referred to by both Keogh (1990) and Dimmock and Bain (1991). In all four countries, the written and spoken policy as outlined by Macdonald (in Gow et al., 1987, p.165) has been delivered by those with authority and in power, but the enacted policy has been left to the immediate providers of education in the every day activity in schools. For this reason the classroom is an important indicator of the educational and social success of integration in a decentralised education system.

The next chapter will consider the theoretical implications of inclusion, when it is viewed as a change process which has occurred as a response to changing societal values and beliefs.

Chapter Four

Theoretical Review

4.0 Theoretical Review

As discussed in Chapter 3, the introduction of new policies associated with educational administrative reform has allowed inclusion to occur in New Zealand schools. As has been already stated, this study investigated what happened to an educational change which occurred as a response to changing values and beliefs which were associated with economic factors. In order to understand some of the issues which arise with educational change, an in depth analysis of some theories of change is required. An account of how modern theorists draw on the historical theorists in describing processes and strategies for change is also necessary. This chapter commences with a discussion on social change and the contribution the historical theorists have made in this field. It then proceeds to a presentation of a theoretical framework for policy and the place of power and the legitimation of change. Finally, the place of the school culture, and in particular leadership skills in educational change, is referred to. The process of change is complex and the aim of this study was to gain the most comprehensive understanding possible of the feelings, interactions, attitudes and relationships concerning the process of inclusion.

4.1 Social Change

Social change frequently occurs when an imbalance occurs between the two forces of value and belief systems and economic factors. The relationship between ideas, values and material factors have been given different emphases by various theorists but both are necessary for change to occur (Lauer, 1982, p.181). The changes in education in the last decade, involving decentralisation and administrative reform in New Zealand, provide an example of this relationship. They have been seen as a response to the complexity of society and the challenges schools are facing, in meeting the expectations of constantly changing communities (Ballard, 1990). In the course of Chapters 2 and 3, four themes emerged with regard to inclusion and the change process. These are firstly, a financial aspect which is driven by the allocation of limited resources to a minority group of children who are difficult to define. Secondly, the ideologies, values and belief systems which have arisen as a consequence of the classification of these children into categories. Thirdly, the presence of organisations which developed in response to the values, ideologies and economics of the presence of persons labelled as 'different' in society. Fourthly, second order aspects of change arise where the foregoing three themes have themselves evolved a set of values, beliefs and structures, which will require identification, modification or dismantling for change to occur. Into this thematic group is placed the specialist roles which have

evolved and the strategies which have arisen to facilitate change in an institution, such as a school, where these individual values, belief systems and norms require recognition. Using these themes as a starting point, it is of value to explore the theories which have been proposed to explain societal change in the past, and to use them as a thesis framework for examining educational change in the present.

4.2 A Historical View of Social Change

Three theorists, Marx, Weber and Durkheim, provide frameworks which assist in the understanding of the status of disability and social change in the present. Marxism views economic factors as the main source of power. However, they all argued that the state of the productive forces in a society determines the economic structure of that society, and this economic structure in turn provides the basis on which social relations, ideas and institutions of a society are formed. This, according to Marx, is the superstructure of a society but the relationships of all sections of society are linked to the socio-economic base. Production determines all aspects of society and Oliver (1990) has analysed the position of the disabled in modern society, using this theme as a base. According to Oliver, the disabled are less able to adapt to the environment and have limited power. This insulates them from the rest of society, but it is the extent of the development of the socio-economic system which determines how disadvantaged they become. Marx included the ideas and organisations of the 'oppressed' in his theory and he acknowledged the interests of minority groups who unite and struggle against the status quo. Marx could however, see change arising only from the social revolution which resulted from this struggle. Therefore, although solidarity develops in minority groups who have their own individual ideologies, the relations which develop with the superstructure that is society, are predetermined by their association with the means of production. Hence, according to Marx, to understand human behaviour there must be a recognition of the significance of the social structure which gives birth to it. "It is not men's consciousness that determines their being, but on the contrary, their social being that determines their consciousness" (Marx, in Moore and Cook, 1967, p.17).

4.2.1 Historical theorists. While in Marxist theory, "all social changes are to be sought in the modes of production and exchange" (Etzioni and Etzioni, 1964, p.7), Weber's view of social change demonstrated the importance of cultural values and ideas in determining how those economic structures developed. Weber placed an emphasis on the need to take into account the values of a society, when explaining social change. Distinctions were drawn by Weber between behaviour and social

action. Of importance in social change is the recognition that action is different from behaviour, because those involved place their subjective meanings on their actions. His theory on change involves two approaches: one is cyclical, social development and explains the building of new social structures on the basis of old ones, using concepts of charismatic upheaval, and routinisation of the event followed by legitimation of the new structure. The other approach is lineal in type, and explains cultural development by the use of increasing rationalisation, consistency and union. The result of following this linear path was a bureaucratic way of life, with bureaucratic structures becoming dominant with their emphasis on order and organisation. The liberating aspect of rationalisation became a regimenting force for the future. By rationalisation Weber meant "the process by which explicit, abstract, calculable rules and procedures are increasingly substituted for sentiment, tradition and rule of thumb in all spheres of activity" (Wrong, 1970, p. 26). This view has relevance in considering the increasing specialisation and in particular the medical approach, that developed over the decades with regard to disability.

Durkheim also emphasised ideas and values in his theory of change. He considered that political and social organisations were based on occupational organisations and therefore the means of economic production. A lack of integration in society resulted in anomie, and the result was that a change in the group solidarity of society caused a change in social structures. Mechanical solidarity was evident in structures like the laws of society but the change was constantly towards organic solidarity, which was the integration which resulted from recognition of societal ideas and values. Such solidarity was necessary for a viable society. However much change occurred, some remnants of mechanical solidarity would always remain. One other aspect of Durkheim's work which was shared with Weber, was the importance of history in sociological research. Both considered that humans were a product of history and that if one attempted to take them out of context in order to study them, distortion occurred, leading to a lack of understanding. This concept has particular meaning in the consideration of inclusion as an ideology and within the process of change.

The historical theorists with their emphasis on values and ideas linked to the historical background and influenced by economic forces, provided a start for their respective theories of social change. From these theories a field of study developed which many other sociologists have attempted to explain further. The theories of Marx and Weber were criticised by their peers for economic dominance, in the former and an over emphasis on values and ideas in the latter, and so it was the 'power and conflict school' of sociologists which gave rise to further development of theories of social

change. In the theories of this group, the power one group has over another frequently leads to conflict which in turn gives rise to social change. Ownership is only one aspect of the principle of power and can be abolished, but the power remains. Those who lack power frequently suffer economic deprivation, have a limited chance of changing their status in life and often channel their grievances into violence, according to the conflict group of theorists.

4.2.2. C. Wright Mills. Historical events and economic changes have altered the power and conflict patterns of society, but one theorist, C. Wright Mills, remains important in understanding the power elite in a society. C. Wright Mills, who was deeply influenced by Max Weber and also to a lesser extent by Marx, divided society into two groups; the elites and the masses. He was strongly interested in social issues rather than scientific theory. He considered that in any society, there are a few who determine the lives of many other society members. His view of the government, as well as the church, the military and legal institutions as forces in their own right rather than classes determined by property ownership, places considerable importance on the normative and coercive factors within their structures. The distinction between the social structures of society and the collection of norms, beliefs and values which form within those organisations and surround those involved in it, is valuable according to C. Wright Mills, in describing why some people gain more power than others. Those who form his 'elite' have an involvement in more of these social structures with their collections of norms and values, than others. Power resides with those who have communication between these structures, and the available technology is designed to support it and influence further development. As social structures continue to interlock, decisions made in one of these areas become related to other areas and those who make those decisions form the 'power elite' of C. Wright. Mill's theory. These elites are not necessarily united, or always aware of the consequences of their decisions on other organisations. Recent restructuring of institutions and organisations in New Zealand has shown signs of this phenomenon. An example of this can be seen in the changing role of principals as they take on management tasks, and the meetings and 'paperwork' which has dominated the teacher's work since decentralisation of the education system. Therefore, when change occurs, the ability to influence it is out of the hands of most of those whose outlook and lives are changed by it, and they feel 'powerless'. Whereas theorists, in particular Weber and Durkheim, have concentrated on social change being a normal and continual event associated with power and conflict, the structural-functionalist theorists focus on the stability of social systems.

While C. Wright Mills concentrated on the power which the ability to communicate between social structures in a society bestowed and the possibility that this movement gave for change, those theorists of the structuralist-functionalist school looked at what held the social units together. There were two sides of change to be appreciated: firstly, an understanding of what disrupted the status quo and secondly, a comprehension of the forces of integration. There was a static and a dynamic condition to be appreciated.

4.2.3 Structuralist-functionalist theorists. Social change from the viewpoint of the structural-functionalist theorists was regarded as deviant, because they took as their starting point a society composed of systems of interrelated parts which exist in 'dynamic equilibrium'. Parsons, one of the leading theorists in this group, considered a theory of social change inseparable from a theory of society (Etzioni and Etzioni, 1964). This was because institutionalisation is responsible for dealing with strains and deviancy in the organisation, so that minimal change occurs to the system. Any change is slow and adaptive, rather than sudden or explosive and is the result of adjustment to outside forces or internal innovations. The shared values of the system maintain the integration of the parts of society. Therefore more emphasis is placed on the structures of society than the processes, and the result is a static system with more concern with the rate of change, rather than whether it is occurring or not. A social system in structuralist-functionalist terms may be regarded as "a group of interacting individuals each of whom seeks to maximise his or her own gratification within the context of a particular culture" (Lauer, 1982, p.74). The system is defined in terms of its units, its patterns and its boundaries. A role is the smallest unit of a social system, the culturally defined patterns of interaction are the norms, and the values maintain the integration and boundaries of the system. This framework proved a very useful starting point for the researcher to examine the schools and their cultures, and the people involved in the daily activities within this institution. Noteworthy is the fact that what is described by the structuralist-functionalist school as a 'structural change', involves the changing of the value system of society, and that has a considerable consequence for all concerned. The concepts of this group of theorists have considerable implications in examining inclusion as a change process.

4.2.4. General systems theory. In contrast to the emphasis placed on equilibrium and stability expounded by the structural-functionalists, the general systems theory is a continually adapting, changing system. Etzioni (1966) has used the basic ideas of the general systems theory in describing an 'active' society, which is one characterised by continuing change, that is directed as a response to the needs of

individuals who make up a specific society. The characteristics of an 'active' society allow for 'societal guidance' or the capacity of a society to direct itself so its members can experience a 'self actualising' experience. Self guidance charges the incumbents of the society to gather knowledge and to use it. In other words, if a difficulty occurs the members of this society have the means to right it without changing the system. This means there is investment in research and development but the knowledge is used by the elite who make 'effective decisions'. This decision making process involves feedback from various social units who possess this knowledge. Social control is a vital part of any society, but in this case it involves specifying what those in power and making the decisions feel are the best conditions for the system, and revising processes to achieve those conditions. Therefore control means using power, while those making decisions have to decide what form that power should take. Power may see that things get done, but often there may not be the assurance that the societal structure which develops to wield that power, will be responsive to those who live with it (Lauer, 1982). Etzioni uses a text on compliance and power to describe how desired societal changes can be made, without alienating the people involved. According to Etzioni, "compliance may be achieved by coercive power, which employs force; utilitarian power, which employs material sanctions; or normative power, which employs symbolic sanctions" (Etzioni, in Lauer, 1982, p.129). There is a variation in the degree of alienation generated, with coercive power causing the highest alienation and normative power the lowest. The latter involves the people who are affected by the wielding of the power to make a commitment to the change. It is useful here to refer to power as it was defined by Weber (1964, p.80). He referred to power as "the chance of a man or a number of men to realise their own will in a communal action even against the resistance of others". To gain participation in societal changes, those in power gain an agreement from those involved, on their preference of the type of change that will take place. This allows people to consider their needs and by consensus, reach a decision with no manipulation of action. The government is considered a crucial factor in the guidance given to encourage the populace to work through their deliberations, therefore, there may be centralised authority or control. The government is also regarded as a communication network or a decision making centre and "an integral part of the feedback system that keeps society moving in the desired direction" (Lauer, 1982, p.130). The gaining of agreement and social control are important elements in 'societal guidance'. With an emphasis on feedback and gaining information, there is an obvious relationship between governmental organisation and general systems theory.

Thus far, social change has been reviewed from the viewpoints of the major theorists on this topic. This review has considered the dialectical materialism of Marx, the value orientated approach of Weber, the social conflict theory of C. Wright Mills, the structural-functionalist perspective of Parsons of a system in equilibrium and the general systems model of social change presented by Etzioni. Social change is an occurrence, which by its very complexity has made it difficult to demonstrate an overall pattern that change will follow. As different institutions have developed in present day society, so more and more emphasis has been placed on attempting to understand how new ideas are accepted and the reactions of those whose lives are changed by those in authority. This amounts to "being self conscious about the change process as it affects us and promoting collective self consciousness about how the process affects others" (Fullan, 1991, p.350). A large body of work has evolved from one aspect of social change, namely educational change, and the next section will review how the theoretical discourse of the traditional sociologists have been used as a framework for further research and theorising.

4.3 A Theoretical Framework for Policy

A theoretical framework was necessary as a departure point, in disentangling the nature of the policies and events associated with inclusion. It was important to understand policy in terms of those who would implement the changes, and to place these changes in the perspective of democratic decision-making.

An analysis made by Fulcher (1989) on the politics of policy formulation and implementation, saw her considering the starting point of special education policy as the allocation of scarce resources. According to this author, the implementation of the policy on allocation seemed remote to what she considered was happening in reality. The 'top down' model of policy, which separated the making of policy from its implementation, created a division which saw governments making policies and bureaucracies implementing them (ibid, p.3). Fulcher did not agree with this approach and developed her model based on the work of Hindess (1986), Offe (1984) and Mehan (1984). The result is a model of policy development focussing on social relations, that is, the social practices that occur in everyday life. The structuralist approach of Offe provided the view that control and institutionalisation of the life careers of people are associated with social policy and are dependent on the relationships of power in society. Policy is made at all levels of societal systems, according to Hindess, but no level decides the policy implemented at other levels. This is because each level has arenas which are "forums within which issues are debated,

struggles ensue and decisions are made" (Fulcher, 1989, p.4.) Within these arenas are 'social actors' who should take responsibility for the decisions which they make. Figure 4.1 shows the policy levels and arenas in the education system following the passage of the Education Act, 1989.

Policy and decision making at a distance from those implementing it, was supposedly reduced by the staff of the Ministry of Education in regional areas directly carrying out the Minister's directions. Negotiation and discussion could occur in policy making which was occurring at all levels of the system. This diagram indicates that the school boards of trustees and principals could directly relate to the Minister's representatives at a regional level. A traditional political model of policy implies a 'top down' movement with power in the hands of those making the decisions, and the presence of others who implement the policy. With Fulcher's model the social actors move in many different arenas within society, and they each have different objectives. They use a variety of practical activities to make decisions, to act on them and this is an exercise in the use of power. This approach is developed from the social construction of reality described by Berger and Luckmann (1967) and developed from Schutz, where types of behaviours develop from face-to-face situations with those with whom we share our lives. Types of behaviour develop which are recognisable, continuous and stable in specific circumstances It is when these typifications are brought together that a social structure is formed. This social structure becomes part of the reality of our life, and from each set of accumulated experiences, akin to Fulcher's 'social arenas', knowledge is gathered and shared. This social 'stock of knowledge' allows us to know our situation in life, its limitations and the ability to locate other individuals in society. It also allows us to meet and interact with other individuals in society and to know the rules. The result is that if a policy change is decided on, and those who hope to implement it are unaware of how the social life of persons in their various arenas work, there is a high chance of failure. McDonald (1981) provides another facet to the discussion on policy when he distinguishes between written, stated and enacted policy. Written policy includes regulations, statutes and laws whether delivered by government or school boards. Stated policy is what teachers, principals or politicians say we do. Enacted policy is what is actually done in the classroom or in the Ministry offices. This approach allows for further identification of the areas in which discrepancies can come into policy and practice.

Two opposing themes are important in the context of a discussion on policy formation and social change. These are professionalism and democratism. Professionalism is the attitude that the experts know best, a tactic which has been used in the struggle for

POLICY LEVELS AND ARENAS
IN THE EDUCATION SYSTEM

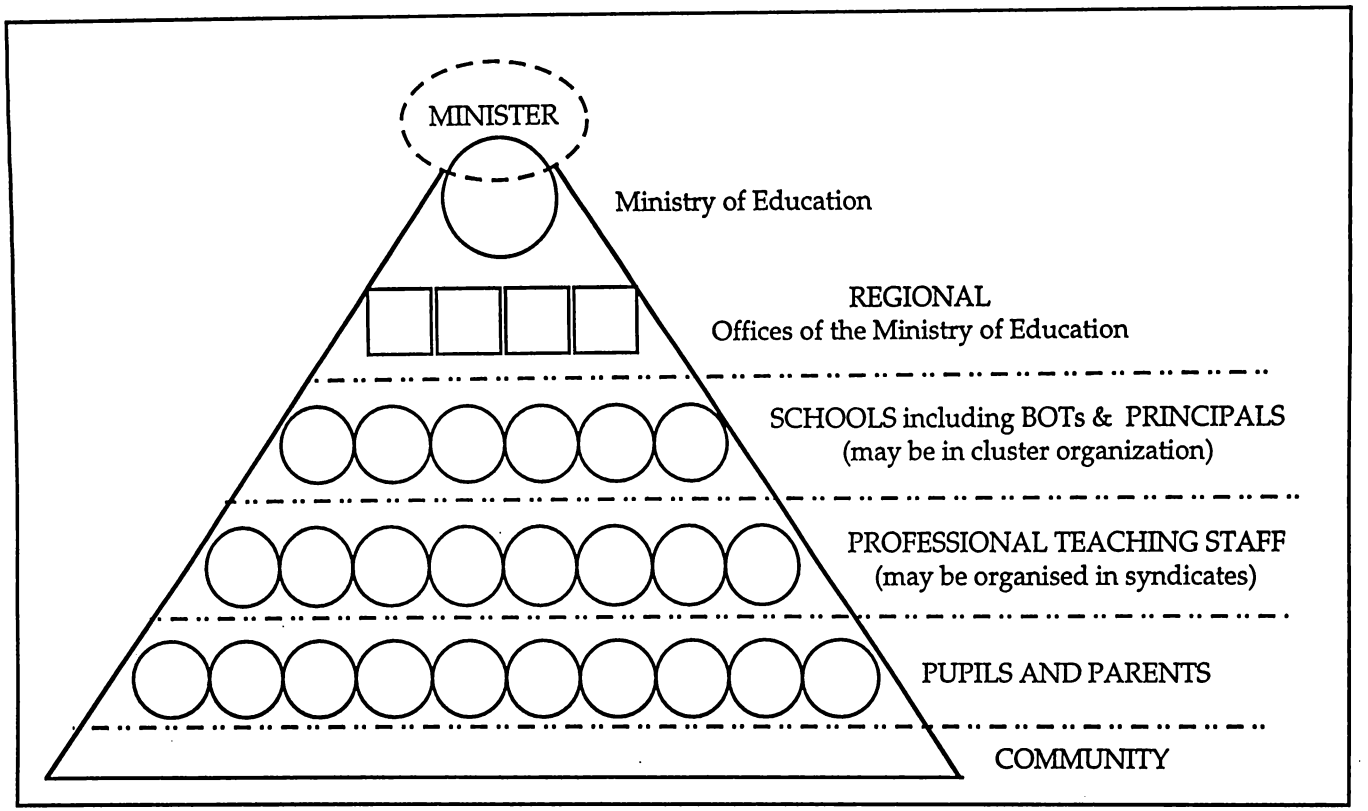


Fig. 4.1 **Policy levels and arenas of decision making in the education system. (After Fulcher, 1989)**

power in many aspects of social life. The second theme is democratism, which is "the view that those affected by decisions should take a genuine part in debating the issues and in making these decisions" (Fulcher, 1989, p.15). This approach is in accordance with the ethics of democratism developed by Benne (in Bennis et al., 1961).

Decisions on educational change are frequently made by persons in positions of power, distantly removed from those who will be largely affected by the proposed action. A planned approach is frequently the way change is introduced and Benne described the essential norms of democratic ideology which are required in the process of social engineering. He considered that in the process of introducing planned change there was a necessity to re-educate persons and groups in behaviour and relationships if the outcome was to be successful. The core convictions of the democratic ideology include firstly, understanding the uniqueness of every individual and the fact that the institutions of society are there to service the needs of those persons; secondly, any policy should represent the collective unique insight and experiences of every person concerned with that policy. On the basis of these two statements, the participation on an equal footing of all persons affected by the social policy should be formulated and restructured, as a central norm of the process. This principle should be found in the methodology by which the norms and policies of an institution are to be changed to meet alternative and frequently conflicting views of a social effort. Benne asserts that in "a social setting where change is inherent in the situation, where change has become a social necessity, the norms of democracy will acquire directive and clear meaning only as they are seen to be required elements in a methodology of planned social change" (Bennis et al., 1961, p.142). The basic training of those who will implement the methodology should combine the norms of democratic operation with an understanding of change processes and social structures which will be affected, as well as the skills of "stimulating, inducing and stabilising changes in persons and groups" (ibid, p.142). Planning must be associated with evaluation of the changes and actions which the professional facilitator is responsible for. If this is not present, according to Benne, the values remain "verbalisms" and skills are used without the direction and control which should be part of the democratic norm. The idea of planned change was accepted as appropriate in the democratic ideal, provided all the above conditions were met. If, as Benne suggests, decisions on educational change are made by persons in power distantly removed from the proposed action, an understanding of the relationship between power and authority provides insight into how society accepts change within democratic ideals.

4.4 Power and Legitimation

If the norms and policies of an organisation are to be changed and accepted willingly without any form of coercion, power and authority is present in those planning the change. The legitimation of that power has to come from below and work up through the hierarchy, for realisation of change to be accepted. If the decisions are made from the top down, authority becomes authoritarianism. This may be described as not only power, but "a value laden term which describes a certain discontent with something which has become non-negotiated, over rigid and an end in itself rather than a means to a social end" (Haynes, 1987, p.42). In this author's view, authority becomes a legitimate sub-set of authoritarianism and almost indistinguishable from power. The end result is that authority tends to become authoritarianism, "in a frantic attempt to persuade the unconvinced that forms of knowledge are good for them" (ibid, p.43). Whereas authority and power are useful tools in discussion, once change is actioned a practical aspect is introduced. This means that throughout the change process contact must be maintained with social practices. This consideration had an impact on the style of methodology chosen for this research.

Bearing these considerations of power, authority and legitimation in mind has led those in power to develop plans to ease the introduction of policies which affect those who must implement the changes. Three main types of strategies of change were identified by Chin and Benne (1964). These strategies are indirectly based on Weberian theory and parallel the normative, utilitarian and power plan of Etzioni, but provide an expansion on the plan he used. Chin and Benne refer to the following strategies:

> 1. *Empirical-Rational strategies* which involve demonstrating to members that a particular situation or procedure makes sense under the circumstances, and is in the member's own interests.
> 2. *Normative-Re-educative strategies* in which socio-cultural values are invoked to legitimate a situation or course of action in order to gain members commitment to it. This strategy appeals to wider values and ideas and an effective as well as rational response are characteristic of such strategies.
> 3. *Power-Coercive strategies* in which the compliance of those with less power to the plans of those with greater power is achieved by more or less naked, more or less manipulative, direction and leadership from above (Chin and Benne, 1964).

In educational change, there are experts with power who represent the government and they define the values and provide knowledge to those who are to implement the policy. However, it is the approval of the wider population which legitimates that power. This "legitimate authority is the basis of organisation" (Blau, 1964, p.23)

which allows a group to achieve objectives which could not be carried out by individuals. If there is a combined disapproval of the power that is being wielded, there is likely to be communication of feelings of anger, frustration and aggression to those in a similar situation. Out of this emotional upheaval develop ideologies and values pertinent to the situation.

The act of inclusion is driven by a value, normalisation, which is defined as allowing children with a disability to experience life in the same way as their peers. The opinions that have arisen from this ideology have influenced the course of its acceptance as ideas influence, impede or direct change. Ideologies may be regarded as facilitators of change which provide "legitimation of new directions, power to motivate individuals, a basis for solidarity and integration, or [a] confront[ation] of a society with contradictions" (Lauer, 1982, p.192). The gap between reality, legislation and policy is complex and cannot be easily explained away, but inclusion as an ideology has attempted to do this in being described as a "moral issue" (Sarason and Doris, 1979, (p. 392) or a "matter of values" (Ballard, 1989, p.56). There is one other factor that requires consideration in a discussion on power, authority and change, and that is the financial cost of the action to a society. The effect that this has on decision making is referred to by Oliver when he states, "it is not necessary to be a Marxist to recognise that economic conditions have a significant impact on social behaviour and on relationships" (Oliver, 1990, p.25). However, if an education system has an aim to provide skills and comprehension for those living in "an economically sophisticated democratic society, a voice needs to be given to those groups who do not traditionally succeed in education" (Lauder, 1991, p.428). This author considers that where choice and diversity do exist, it will only advantage the privileged in society, because they are the ones who make the policies. The gap between an ideology and reality may be explained away according to Lauer (1982), "particularly by those who have everything to gain by keeping things the way they are" (p.194). The discussion therefore returns to the question of power and the use of language as an instrument of power, as "some groups control and disable others within the realities of unequal social relations" (Barton in Fulcher, 1989, p ix).

If the strategies which are suggested by Chin and Benne are used in planned change, there is also a need for leadership from persons with the understanding, skill and techniques for introducing that change. Such a person is described as the change agent. Chin (in Bennis et al., 1961) describes the use of the systems model as a practical method which is useful to the change agent to analyse the problems that confront a person in implementing change. An analysis using this approach assumes

structure and stability at randomly chosen and static periods of time. However, the use of an *intersystems* model, which allows for movement into and communication with other related systems, is recommended by Chin for use by the change agent. Chin considers that problems of "leadership, power, communication, conflict in organisations and intergroup relations" (Chin in Bennis et al., 1961, p.208) are all catered for within the intersystems model. This allows for the influence of interactions which are reliant on each other, both within and between the units of the systems to be studied. There are, however, limitations in this model, the first one being that it is an abstraction from a concrete event and there is personal choice in the selection of the observations and the events that are focussed upon. There is no consideration of the ongoing changes in the manner in which the change agent looks at the events and deciphers them, and similarly between the opinions and the change processes that are put in place. These limitations apply also to a researcher studying change using a systems model, but in this research it was useful in the early organisation of material.

Whereas power over people makes it possible to direct and organise the actions associated with change, it is not a passive process where those being directed have no power to influence the course of events. The recent policy changes implemented since the passing of the Education Act, 1989, have caused dramatic changes in the administrative restructuring of schools. Changes to special education were not in the forefront of the legislation, but the "equal rights" to enrollment clause included in the Act had dramatic meaning, for a large number of children with special educational needs in New Zealand. Under this legislation parents can enrol their children at the school of their choice, the exceptions being managed under special education provisions within the Act. To achieve the policy of equal rights to free education for all children in the education system, a process of change was initiated within the school structure. The next section will consider the theory behind the mechanism of educational change.

4.5 Educational Change

The act of inclusion has resulted in the educationists and professional staff of schools examining their values and belief systems. Emphasis was placed by both Weber and Durkheim on the importance of understanding these aspects of human behaviour, when considering social change. The use of the reality construction theory of Schutz, and Berger and Luckmann allow us to understand the meaning of behaviour in terms of the classification and organisation we give it through our mentally creating 'ideal types'. This enables us to enter schools and understand the behaviours we witness

because of the knowledge we have acquired in our personal socialisation. Therefore, in order to understand social change in the context of the education system the social reality theory of Fullan (1991) was studied. Educational change has been described by Fullan as "a very personal experience in a social but often impersonal setting" (p.350). This is generally because the decisions made about educational change are frequently made by persons in positions of power, distantly removed from those who will be largely affected by the proposed action. This section will consider the key requisites for change to occur because, as was apparent in the literature review, there was considered to be a wide gap between legislation and personal experience. These requisites are closely allied to two aspects of school life, the leadership and the culture it promotes.

4.5.1 Legislating for change. The literature on the change process, particularly when it focuses on the education system and change processes within schools, nearly all start with an exposition about the complexity of this occurrence. "Change is difficult because it is riddled with dilemmas, ambivalences and paradoxes", was the conclusion of Fullan (1991, p.350). One aspect referred to several times, was that just because legislation had been passed, change would necessarily follow:

- When policy makers require by law that schools achieve a goal which in the past they have not achieved, they may be engaged in wishful thinking. Here policy makers behave as though their desires concerning what a school system should accomplish will in fact be accomplished if the policy makers simply desire it (Wise, in Fullan, p.96).
- It would all be so easy if we could legislate changes in thinking (Sarason, 1971, p.193)
- The leader who pre-supposes what the change should be, acts in ways that preclude other realities, [and] is bound to fail (Fullan, 1991, p.95).

When those who wish a change to occur, introduce their desired situation and take no account of the manner in which the change is to be worked through, problems are likely to arise. This is because policy makers tend to assume that the solutions that they have adopted are the right ones. But these solutions are bound to be questioned because of competing values or from a practical viewpoint, there are technical problems. According to Fullan, the core of the experience is coming to grips with the "multiple realities of the people who are the main participants in implementing change" (ibid, p.95). This means that the knowledge we acquire on typical behaviour differs according to the social arena we move in, and one person may have many different constructions of reality. Therefore one person may view inclusion from several

different aspects depending on whether there are parental responsibilities, teaching demands or resource management within a school. This must be understood when inclusion is regarded as a change process. There is a need for more than "good intentions and the power to legislate" (Fullan, 1991, p.112) for successful implementation of change. Support systems must be in place, new actions learned and new values understood while at the same time further policy is being developed. Basically, however, there is a need for an understanding of the change process. One quandary is that there is no moment of implementation when those involved start to use the new changes. Change is considered to be evolutionary.

Key themes necessary for change to occur have been described by Fullan as:

1. Leadership and vision building are the crucial themes which constantly interact with all other themes.
2. Evolutionary planning in the optimum situation combines "top down initiative with bottom up participation" (p.83).
3. Initiative taking and empowerment which involves power sharing, and acquiring people and support for those who are doing the immediate work involved with the change. This theme involves people in continuing social interaction.
4. Staff development and resource assistance is essential to change. Staff training must be related to the meaning of the change, and the change process as a whole.
5. Monitoring and problem solving includes information systems, resources and acting on the outcomes with coping mechanisms and solutions.
6. Restructuring refers in this instance to how the school is organised and includes "organisational arrangements, roles, finance and governance, and formal policies that explicitly build in working conditions" that support and enhance the school (p.88).

Fullan considered these six themes to be essential for considerable change to occur, but it is essential to remember that this implementation process occurs within the framework of a culture determined by historical meanings.

4.5.2 Cultural aspects of change. In the process of constructing realities consideration must be given to the historical time and the cultural place (Smith, 1989). This involves interpreting and understanding the meaning people give to their own activities. It also involves a recognition of the rules associated with these activities. These rules, however, vary from group to group or context to context. This means that "interpretations are context bound" (Winch, in Smith, p.12) and the meaning one gives to a situation will depend on where it takes place. The review of the literature in chapter 2 indicated, that to understand what inclusion meant to the all those persons associated with the schools in the study, it was important to understand the value the philosophy held for the school community.

It was useful to have some knowledge of how people construct the reality of their world and define in their terms the order they bring into their lives, through the interactions they have with one another. Through this interaction appropriate knowledge and behaviour is learned and a system of social control develops which is inherent in the normal activity of those who make up an institution or organisation. The norms, values, belief systems, symbols, rituals and ceremonies all belong to the collective group of people in the organisation and through their continuing use they construct its culture. Nias et al. (1989) when describing the culture of a school include two distinctive groups of people. These are firstly, the 'culture bearers', who in their personal behaviour and speech identify what is of value to the organisation. Secondly, there are the 'culture founders' who are important in understanding an organisation because these are people "whose right, responsibility or distinctive contribution it is to change the culture of the staff group and to install in its place a new set of beliefs and values" (Nias et al., 1989, p.11).

As many of these components of culture are unspoken and experienced only by those in the situation of living in multiple arenas or groups, to enter an organisation for the purpose of research is challenging. The essential part in the recognition of a school culture is to understand the beliefs which formed the basis of the culture which the school leadership created. To establish by observation what teachers felt was worthwhile and what they should be trying to achieve, was considered by Nias et al. (1989) as possibly more reliable than to ask them. At the centre of a culture are the beliefs and values of the group and these are considered essential to understanding the school. Interaction between group members was the main method of cultural development, according to Nias et al., so "members of the same culture will define situations in similar ways and endow them with agreed meanings" (ibid, p.12).

School culture is considered by Sapher and King, as the factor that either energises or undermines changes in the school. They identify twelve norms of school culture which if strong lead to "significant, continuous and widespread" improvements but if they are weak the "improvements will be infrequent, random, and slow" (Sapher and King, 1985, p.2). The following norms affect change within a school and if they are present reside in the principals' and teachers' belief systems and are displayed overtly in their actions:

- Collegiality
- Experimentation

- High expectations
- Trust and confidence
- Tangible support
- Reaching out to the knowledge bases
- Appreciation and recognition
- Caring, celebration and humour
- Involvement in decision making
- Protection of what is important
- Traditions
- Honest, open communication

Whatever the particular change that is in focus at the time, according to these authors, the schools need to "nurture and build on the cultural norms" (Sapher and King, 1985, p.2) that lead to growth. The everyday management of the school forms and mirrors the culture of the school and the vision building skills of the leadership should demonstrate the school's basic values and purpose of existence.

4.5.3 Leadership in educational change. While there is not a large amount of literature on leadership and inclusion, what is available has indicated that the role of the principal is vital to inclusive practices. This is because those in the leadership role hold the beliefs and values of the culture they take on or find in an organisation. Principals of schools are expected to promote and protect the values of their institutions and therefore, have a symbolic as well as a practical role. In order to carry and represent the values of the school culture the principal must be in full agreement with their significance. There is a responsibility to instil these values into the professional staff with whom they work. The act of being visible and accessible to the staff allows principals to monitor and enforce the culture of the school, and show by personal example what is expected of them. The likelihood of those values being used throughout the whole school is increased, by indicating beliefs and values which are important to the school when selecting new staff. If inclusion is a value important to the school community, the leadership of the principal is obviously necessary for its legitimation.

The complexity of the leadership role of the principal has been widely analysed and discussed (Everard and Morris, 1985; Fullan, 1991; Hall and Hord, 1987; Lloyd, in Hughes et al., 1985; Sapher and King, 1985; Sergiovanni, 1984). Emphasis has been placed on the instructional leadership of the principal, the role of the principal as transmitter of school cultural norms and the management skills required for running an

effective school. While research has centred on the effectiveness of leadership and the traits and styles which lead to 'successful' school management, in recent years the leadership role in the context of change has been researched and analysed in great detail. (Bowe et al., 1992; Everard and Morris, 1985; Fullan, 1991; Hall and Hord, 1987; Herriot and Gross, 1979; Hughes et al., 1985; Jones, 1987; Leithwood and Montgomery, 1986; Nias et al., 1989).

Management and leadership are considered to be closely related, because interdependencies exist between the two factors at every level of the school structure. Leaders are expected to "combine visionary ideas at the highest level of abstraction with actions at the most mundane level of detail" (Everard and Morris, 1985, p.178). The leadership requirements necessary for building good schools include technical, human, educational, symbolic and cultural forces, according to Sergiovanni (1984). Technical skills refer to the everyday management of the school including resource allocation, scheduling meetings, building communication networks, delegation of responsibilities and the implementation of new practices. The leadership of a school requires human skills like listening, conflict resolution and establishing communication networks. There are symbolic skills to be recognised in leadership which involves the knowing about and transmitting values deep at the heart of the institution or organisation. Finally there are the skills basic to education on which teaching and learning are based. A more detailed core of skills was presented from the work of Mayhew (1974) by Saario (in Herriot and Gross, 1979). These skills are compared in Table 4.1.

With these leadership attributes, principals create a school culture through their everyday business in the school's daily life, involving planning, decision making and interactions with staff, parents and pupils. This complex role is described by Bowe et al. (1992, p.173) as "the critical reality definer", while Jones (1987, p.9) refers to "the sophisticated set of values, qualities and skills" desirable in a principal.

Educational change being the exclusive responsibility of the principal has been challenged by Sergiovanni (1984) and Fullan (1993). According to these authors there is a growing professionalism amongst teachers which is supplanting the sole power of the principal as a change agent. This professionalism has four dimensions: a commitment to exemplary practice, to work towards valued ends, to collective practice and to a concern for the whole person (Sergiovanni, 1992, p.43). These values have an important place in the practice of inclusion, because when the school reflects and develops community norms and professional ideals like these, collegiality is a likely

outcome. Collegiality, in Sergiovanni's terms, envisions obligations toward the teaching profession and toward the school as a community.

(Sapher and King, 1985, p.71)	(Saario, in Herriot and Gross, 1979, p. 344)
1. Technical skills: referring to managerial matters of scheduling and delegating.	1. Leadership skills: the ability to deal with subordinates and the complications of authority, power and dependence. 2. Information processing skills: the ability to build networks, extract and validate information and disseminate information effectively. 3. Skills in unstructured decision making: the ability to find problems and solutions when alternatives, information and objectives are ambiguous. 4. Resource allocation skills: the ability to decide among alternative uses of time and other organisational resources. 5. Entrepreneurial skills: the ability to take sensible risks and implement innovations.
2. Human skills: which include listening, group dynamics and conflict resolution.	6. Peer skills: the ability to establish and maintain a network of contacts with equals. 7. Conflict resolution skills: The ability to mediate conflict, handle disturbances and work under psychological stress.
3. Educational skills: which include knowledge about teaching and learning.	
4. Symbolic skills: which include knowledge of and commitment to core institutional values and ways of articulating and representing them.	8. Skills of introspection: the ability to understand the position of manager and its impact on organisation.

Table 4.1 **Leadership Skills Required to Create a School Culture**

According to the literature which has been reviewed, collegiality may be considered vital to the maintenance of inclusion. Teachers develop roles with their duties, obligations, rights and privileges which frequently include additional behaviours of doing what brings satisfaction and includes the values they believe in. Therefore, shared values, professionalism and collegiality mean that teachers are in the position to be change agents with respect to the inclusion of children with special educational needs. Education is required to develop teachers who can participate in the changing conditions of the community, be effective and have the capacity to be involved in change, according to Fullan (1991).

Depending on the community and the school culture that is being developed, the principals' individual styles and their different methods of achieving their goals, the

combined management and leadership tasks still revolve around being visible, being a communicator, and providing resources and instruction.

4.6 Resistance to Change

Resistance to change has been referred to directly or indirectly by almost every exponent on social change, and in particular, educational change. As the experts in the implementation of change discuss their strategies for the introduction of new policies and actions, so they have devised parallel plans to change the attitudes, perceptions and behaviours of those who resist. These techniques "heighten the individual's self awareness" or provide "sensitivity training", and overcome the conflicts and pressures which inhibit change (Hoyle, 1975, p.294). As previously mentioned, the use of people specifically trained in the introduction of the strategies of change are termed 'change agents' by Benne (1961), Chin (1961) Hoyle (1975), or 'change facilitators' by Hall and Hord (1987). Basically, the reason for the resistance is the presence of a lack of fit between the school culture and the proposed change. Suspicion and reluctance greet change, when the way the school should be organised or school life should be experienced, does not co-incide with the expectations of behaviour required by the new practice, policy or program (Sarason, 1971, in Fullan, 1991). Professional attitudes and identity have their own norms, values and beliefs, which in the view of Corbett et al. (1987) is considered teacher conservatism. Interests are rarely politically neutral, according to Bowe et al. (1992), and are "enhanced or threatened by change" (p.141). The way in which change is introduced into an organisation is as important for success, as is the quality of the change or what it represents. Another point when discussing legitimation is that the change must be accepted by the whole social structure, rather than by those in individual roles. However inclusion, even if it is accepted as a moral issue, once in the educational arena becomes involved in legal, administrative, funding and logistical discussion. The functional and emotional repercussions of the discussion on inclusion reflect the values and norms of an organisation, and according to Sarason and Doris (1982), have very practical consequences in the schools. Therefore, "clarifying the value system and breathing life into it are the greatest contribution a leader can make" (Everard and Morris, 1985, p.179).

4.7 Conclusion

Change is a political process which is associated with communities, people, interaction and relationships, values and belief systems. Change also involves

development over a period of time (Hall and Hord, 1987; Fullan, 1991). The writings of the historical theorists of social change, Marx, Weber, Durkheim, C.Wright Mills and Parsons have been explored. From these theories the basic ideas which underpin the principles of social change have been outlined. These include the influence of economic dominance, recognition of values and ideas, and the importance of structures of society and its units of organisation, the values, norms and roles. From the work of C.Wright Mills emerged recognition of the importance of values, norms and beliefs within an organisation as a determinant of a power hierarchy. Etzioni developed the work of Weber on compliance and power, and demonstrated how social change may occur without upheaval. This approach was further developed by Chin and Benne with respect to power and legitimation. The social construction of reality, as described by Schutz and Berger and Luckmann enables the understanding of the types of behaviours which we use in our face to face situations in life. This adds to the knowledge of how the roles which form the social structures of society are formed. Policy formation and decision-making occur in all levels of society, but power over people allows for the direction and organisation of change. When educational change is brought into focus the values, beliefs and norms which form the school culture directly influence the path the change takes. The leadership and vision of the principal instil the culture in the professional staff, the pupils and the community. Under these conditions ideology, if accepted by the whole social structure, can become reality, the change legitimated and ownership claimed.

This is the theoretical framework to be used in the analysis of the introduction of inclusion as an educational policy into New Zealand schools. The process of change is complex and for the purposes of this study it was necessary to reach as full an understanding as was possible, of the interactions, relationships and feelings of all those who participated in the school culture. The next chapter will discuss the methodology chosen and how the research programme was initiated and carried through.

Chapter Five

Research Methodology

5.0 Research Methodology

The methodology selected for a research project should reflect the context and the purposes of the study. Unresolved and complex issues were highlighted in the review of the historical background to this thesis. The government's commitment to inclusion appears ambiguous and in spite of many reviews on special education, policy making in New Zealand appears to be continuing in an undetermined direction. The review of the theories of change has demonstrated how a gulf may develop between those with power and authority and those directed to implement changes in society. Inclusion results from a society addressing the moral issue of whether all members of the community are valued and accepted into the everyday activities, with no barriers being present concerning their admission. According to Wolfensberger (in Kozleski and Sands, 1992) there must be more than the mirroring of those in the community group, there must be a valued role for the person with a disability to fill in society. For change to occur in such a society there is a need for an understanding of basic societal values and belief systems. Weber, Durkheim, and C.Wright Mills accepted values, ideals and belief systems as core elements in social change because they provided answers for the existence of social structures in society and reasons for reform or reorganisation. Therefore, in order to accommodate the theoretical implications of the previous chapter and to examine the complexity of the school as an institution, it was necessary to become involved in that community. To this end, and for personal reasons mentioned in Chapter 1, a technique of participant observation was decided on. This chapter will elaborate on the implications of this choice. Using this research technique, it was assumed, would allow a window into the school culture to enable a researcher to get close to an explanation of how inclusion operates in action.

There are two sections to this chapter. The first section gives a rationale for the chain of ethnographic techniques for the study. Advantages, disadvantages and problems commonly associated with ethnography are discussed. The second section is a description of the research process, that is, what actually happened when the researcher was in the field.

The methodology adopted here was premised on the view that the meaning of inclusion would, in all probability, be different for various staff members, depending on experience in their individual worlds, and because they would have accumulated differing sets of concepts regarding the educational needs of all children (section 2.3.1). Therefore, the appropriate place to begin to understand this area of educational

change was by direct observation in the school setting. It is essential at this stage to review the basic tenets of this form of research.

5.1 Qualitative Research

There are two conceptions of social reality, according to Burrell and Morgan (1979). One conception is of an ontological kind. It refers to the "nature or essence of the social phenomenon" being studied, and, depending on the position one takes, it is viewed as either an object having an independent existence (realist position), or it is a construct of our mind with no 'thing' to represent the meaning of the words (nominalist position). The second set of conceptions of social reality are of an epistemological kind, concerned with the nature and form of knowledge, how it is acquired and communicated. The debate here is whether knowledge, once it is identified, can be transferred in a "tangible form because it is hard and real" (objectivist position) or whether it is something that can only be acquired by personal experience and insight (subjectivist position). Burrell and Morgan see these positions as extreme, with knowledge as something that can be deliberately acquired being one consideration, and personal acquisition by experience being the other. Whichever position one takes, has an enormous bearing on the approach the researcher takes in studying social behaviour and the method that is chosen. "To see knowledge as personal, subjective and unique...imposes on researchers an involvement with their subjects" according to Cohen and Manion (1994, p.6). This direction enables researchers to approach their subjects with the principal concern of understanding the way in which they create, modify and interpret the world in which they find themselves. This view is closely aligned to Weber's idea of *verstehen,* a term he used to describe the comprehensive understanding of the behaviour of others. The techniques available to the researcher using the ethnographic method of study include participant observation and personal accounts, with an emphasis on the particular and the individual.

5.1.1 Ethnography. The advantages of ethnography as a method of research have been detailed by Ramsay (1987, pp. 49-60) as follows:

- An ethnography of good quality will show the structures behind the institution being studied and will provide *descriptions* of how the incumbents construct their everyday life.
- The social relationships involved will be described and analysed and this will uncover the *implications* of the activities for the participants. This includes the recognition of speech patterns.
- The *negotiations and contradictions* of the everyday world will be gathered in a good ethnography.

- The ethnography will be firmly set within the *context* of the research project.

The actions, statements, and interactions that accompany the negotiations and contradictions of everyday life, as referred to above, must be related to the social contexts producing them. This is referred to as 'indexicality' and it signifies that the meanings of statements and actions are "shared by the participants, but not necessarily stated explicitly" (Cohen and Manion, 1994, p.31). Hammersley explains it this way, "most events in our society and especially in settings with which we are familiar seem natural and obvious" (1982, p.128). This is because meanings are related to the context in which they arise and are therefore known to the participants in an interaction. As an example, the culture was familiar to those who were directly involved with their schools in this study, but it was apparent to the researcher that there were times when additional information was required to provide meaning to certain communications and actions. Another way in which people make their actions rationally accountable is by reflexivity. This is the ability of people to reflect on their world and, according to Ramsay, "reflection is a precondition of action and precedes reflexivity" (1987, p.85). During reflection people think about their actions, consider new ideas and then act on them.

As context is important in determining and comprehending words and actions, it is also important in understanding events within an institution such as a school. Hence, the ethnographer must place the recorded observations and subsequent analysis firmly in the context of the school culture and the community the school serves. In this study, culture refers to some of the multiple social realities people construct for themselves within the school community as they create order while interacting with others. While doing this, the school personnel create the school's culture which may be considered as the "way we do things around here" (Nias et al., 1989, p.10). These authors discussed the actions which were governed by norms, which were in turn an expression of values based on beliefs, to which it was difficult for an outsider to gain access, because they were shared, understood and seldom spoken of. A good ethnography, according to Ramsay (1987), should uncover these structures. Reference to the purpose of using an ethnographic method is made by this author who uses the following summation of Werner and Rothe (1979):

This research method should "uncover and describe group social relations" such as :

- "the understanding (e.g., beliefs, perceptions, knowledge) which participants share about their situation;
- the routine methods (e.g., social rules, expectations, patterns, roles) by which their situation is structured;

- the legitimations by which participants justify the normality and unquestioned character of their situation;
- the motives and interests (e.g., purpose, goals, plans) through which participants interpret their situation." (Ramsay et al., 1990, p.82)

Ethnographers therefore focus on "how people define an event through their actions, perceptions, interpretations and beliefs" (ibid, p.82). To this end, the researcher became involved in the daily life of five schools, to determine how educational change in the form of inclusion was defined by those who were involved.

Concerns have been expressed over the reliability of ethnography. One critic of this form of research refers to the hallmark of the ethnographer being an ability to see that "sufficient distance was maintained from one's cultural setting in order to study it with suspended judgement" (Rist, 1980, p.9). The result is that research has, according to Rist, been done without an emphasis on values or an understanding of the cultural framework underlying the organisations concerned. Another aspect of concern was the diminution of time being spent in the field learning the "nuances and 'deep meanings' of the system" (ibid, p.9). The result is that the idea has arisen that "rapport, familiarity, trust and insight can all be manufactured instantaneously" (ibid, p.9). A structured and pre-determined approach to research has also been discussed in the critical analysis of ethnography. This occurs when the issues and problems to emerge from an extensive time in the field have been pre-empted by forming research areas ahead of time, specifying precise activities to be researched and detailing the analytical framework in which the study is to be conducted. Although there are many developments in this form of qualitative research, especially in combination with quantitative methods, according to Rist, "the more the reliance on the method as an end in itself, the less it is a meaningful research tool" (p.10). This attitude is accepted by Howe and Eisenhart (1990), who consider the degree to which the method drives research should be minimised and that methodology must be a response to the different purposes and contexts of the research, These authors call upon educational researchers to give attention to the value that the research questions have for "informing educational practice" and "then to ground the methodology in the nature of these questions" (p.7). It was therefore, in an attempt to broaden the base of the research approach and counteract some of the criticism levelled at a purely ethnographic study, that these authors considered other investigative techniques should be brought to bear upon research questions. It was also important for the researcher to take a careful look at the techniques of ethnography, so as to be aware of areas where difficulties may occur.

5.1.2 Issues to be considered in ethnography. Issues which were important to identify and address from a methodological viewpoint were the researcher's ideological background, the question of ethnographic indifference, the reliability and validity of the data and how the sample schools were chosen.

Researchers do not commence their fieldwork as a blank slate "free of prior interests, commitments and methodological expertise" (Howe and Eisenhart, 1990, p.6). Everyone, including researchers, hold a value position and to identify where one stands on the subject to be researched is essential. Hence, at the start of the project, before entering the school system, the position held by the researcher with regard to inclusion was identified and written down for reference at several times during the course of the study. Some of this material has been introduced in the personal section of the introduction. This proved of value as interaction with professional staff involved conversation which invariably placed one in a reciprocal position of exchanging views. Although this was kept to a minimum, because the time when informal conversations were able to take place were valuable information gathering periods, there were often times when one was required to give a reply indicating where one stood with regard to certain issues. An honest and carefully identified stance appeared to prove satisfying and to provoke as many agreement, as non-agreement responses.

Qualitative methods of research place importance on the researcher being in the situation to observe, and on occasions participate in interactions in the chosen setting. One major concern is the reliability of the data collected because it is virtually impossible for a researcher to replicate the research method of another.

While the difficulties of reliability are acknowledged, validity of the data gathered is also of considerable concern to the ethnographer. The aim is "to produce statements which are accurate representations of fact" (Ramsay, 1990, p.84). In the course of this study all the information gathered in the schools during observational periods, and from subsequent interviews, were available to the staff for their perusal. That staff were comfortable with this procedure was apparent in two schools, where requests were made for the use of observations on specific children for case conferences. This feedback provided further acceptance, as staff understood how useful the observational data was to them as they considered their classroom dynamics. Validity of the issues considered important during fieldwork were checked in the interview schedule, which was developed from the propositions which arose from the observations. All those who were interviewed were told that the issues isolated were

considered by the researcher as important, and in the course of the interview the respondents were requested to comment on their validity. As many of the questions were asked of all or some of the different categories of respondents, there was considerable scope to check various themes as they influenced policy decisions. During the course of the interviews, there was further opportunity to probe for reasons of inconsistency. One way of meeting the problems of reliability of observation is a method of triangulation, where comparisons are made on specific issues from the data collected by different techniques. For example, the implications of material gathered during observation in the classroom was frequently discussed informally at breaks in the school day, and if the issue became 'saturated' it was included in the interview schedule for further verification.

Criticism has been levelled at ethnographic research because of its failure to use statistical sampling techniques in selecting the cases to be studied (Hammersley, 1985, p.252). This author suggests that an effective strategy for such research is to choose cases which are "in some sense crucial for the theory". By using this approach it becomes possible to isolate specific factors and to build on information that is already available. To a limited degree this was done in the present research, when the decision to approach the first school was made because they presented with a sense of confidence in the way inclusion was being implemented. To begin observations in such a school provided a valuable learning experience of observational techniques for the researcher. It highlighted what factors were important, how the staff accounted for their success, as well as the learning experience of being an ethnographer in a welcoming atmosphere. As further selections of schools were made, there were other considerations that were able to be taken into account, as for example, the presence of a special unit in the school grounds or a resource centre.

Although an attitude of 'ethnomethodologic indifference' was considered appropriate to the method of research, it was necessary to indicate a stance and identify with the value of inclusion. This was largely because, to those professionals involved in the process of this research it meant a change in the status quo and because the feeling of "what is the use, it will change nothing" was rife. During the entire research period in the schools the aim was to establish and maintain a dialogue with pupils, parents, professional and ancillary staff, in some cases specialist advisers and trustee members of each school. Communication took place on a variety of levels and in many different places, and for a period of time there was ease of entry into the schools. Once the dialogue was not sustained on a regular basis it became noticeable that although there

was no difference in the feelings of acceptance, the same degree of relationship was not as easily attained.

The discussion on methodology thus far, has considered the reasons for the use of ethnography as a research tool, and the various issues which require identification and understanding during its use. These include the self knowledge an ethnographer requires before entering the field, the maintenance of distance in a very involving situation, and the reliability and validity of the data collected. The next section will consider the research design.

5.2 Grounded Theory

Grounded theory is the systematic discovery of theory from social research (Glaser and Strauss, 1967). Research is commenced with a partial framework of 'local' concepts, which are the principal features of the structure and processes occurring in the field to be studied. This approach gives one a start to the research, but at that stage one is unsure of the relevance of the chosen categories to the problem being studied. As grounded theory is derived from collected data, there is an ease in finding illustrations for that data. Emphasis is placed by Glaser and Strauss on the emerging concepts, which are those coming from the data as the research proceeds. The value of taking this approach came early in this study on inclusion of children with special educational needs. The initial problem was to examine the steps of inclusion taken, in relation to children identified by staff as having a disability. However, the defining concept changed and caused a redefinition of the problem. The selection of the population changed from disability and was made according to the granting of specific funding to support certain children in the regular classroom. This considerably broadened the dimensions of the topic under study. The use of comparative analysis is vital to grounded theory as it assists with explaining how frequently certain features occur. It also allows for speculation on data and the development of generalizations, so that theory can develop as research proceeds. This makes the theory more applicable, and allows for greater explanation and predictive ability.

The development of grounded theory requires the selection of concepts requiring study which arise from observation, experience and recorded data. Therefore, comparative analysis categories are determined from the concepts under study. Glaser and Strauss (1967) considered comparative analysis can generate two basic kinds of theory: substantive and formal. Substantive theory develops from an empirical area of sociological enquiry such as the education of those children with special educational

needs. Formal theory develops from a substantive one and involves a conceptual area of sociological enquiry, for example the attitudes to these designated children. In a study although these two approaches merge into one another, they are able to be considered as separate entities for analytical purposes. Both "substantive and formal theory must be grounded in data" (Glaser and Strauss, 1967, p.33). The authors suggest "that it is presumptuous to assume that one can begin to know the relevant categories and hypotheses until "the 'first days in the field' at least are over" (ibid, p.34).

The constant use of a comparative method of analysis allows for the use of explicit coding and analytic procedures, which in turn means that incidents which occur in each category are able to be compared. The process also allows for making notes of the researcher's own ideas, as ambiguities and conflicts appear. By integrating different categories during constant comparisons, the researcher makes relationships and sense of the accumulated observational data. As the categories are analysed, many eventually become 'theoretically saturated' which indicates the same category has been repeatedly coded with no new aspect being revealed. As this research proceeded any category which arose after 'saturation' which proved to be a new section of the category, was recorded and at an appropriate and subsequent time, the incident was probed to gain clarification. From the comparative analysis, propositions emerged which were used as the basis for the interview schedule, as in this situation they could have further development or explanation. During the fieldwork the persons assisting with the study were able to follow the analytical process and understand the progression of techniques. This became very important as the observation and interviewing procedures were spread over a two year period, and those concerned were interested and committed to the research project.

5.3 The Research Process

The framework developed by Ramsay et al. (1990) for describing their research process is useful here to describe ongoing methodological events. There were several stages in their research process. These included getting the study under way, maintaining the constant contact and rapport once it was set in place, and carrying out the various stages of research until research completion. The adapted framework, outlined in figure 5.1 will now be used to describe the course of events and what actually happened in the schools during fieldwork.

5.3.1 Getting started. The commencement of the study involved the gathering of background information so that approaches to the desired schools could be done

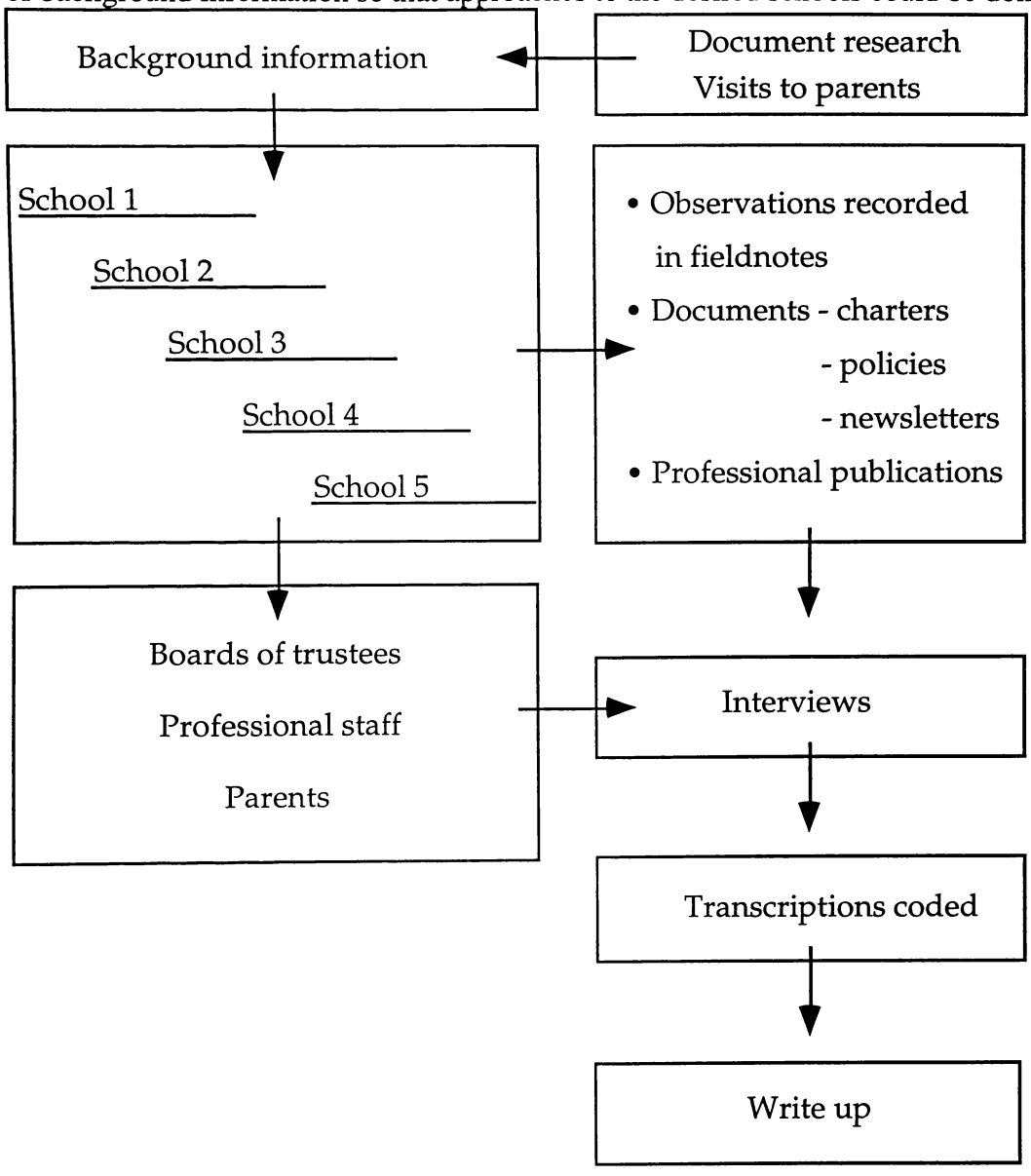


Fig. 5.1 **Flow chart of stages in the thesis**

with credibility. It involved the initial approach to the schools and the establishment of communication.

Preparation for the research began with the gaining of a wide knowledge on educational change in the field of special education and inclusion. This included gathering material on research methodology, historical reports, legal documents from New Zealand and overseas. At this stage, several parents of children with special educational needs were visited to ascertain the concerns that were uppermost in their

minds with regard to inclusion. Personal contacts in the area of special education were also visited, in order to prepare for the research study. During this time, the statement indicating the predisposition of the researcher to inclusion was written. The essence of this statement was that inclusion was desirable and to be encouraged, but that parents should have a choice of how and where their children should be educated, because without choice, there could not be appropriate parental decision-making. At this stage, recommendations were received on the method of keeping field notes from the academic supervisor and the research proposal was prepared.

A specially tailored version of the research proposal was developed for the schools, which had at this stage not been selected. As noted earlier, it was decided to commence contact with a school with a reputation for the success it was having with the inclusion of children with disabilities into the regular classroom. In this way the researcher would have a baseline to start work from, to determine why various people thought there was successful inclusion, what the process included and how it was taking place. This was an important start. To this end the principal of the school was contacted and an appointment made. This initial phone call was very important because in the few minutes one had on the phone, an initial interest had to be kindled in the research project. A brief explanation was given concerning the reason for the appointment Throughout the research period considerable care was taken to always make appointments and explain the reasons for the visits. Although common courtesy, this also allowed for preparation, reflection and ensured a welcome. The first interview with the principal generally took 30 minutes. In this time, a copy of the proposal was handed over, a more detailed explanation was given of the reasons for the request to enter the school, as well as a proposed plan of action. Time was then allowed for the principal to approach the staff and in some cases, but not all, the parents, so that they could discuss their feelings and concerns regarding involvement in the research. As the inclusion of the children with special educational needs in a school involved many people, along with their confidentiality, emotions and attitudes, there was need for time to make an appropriate approach. A second interview time was made before leaving the school, so that the results of the deliberations could be personally delivered to the researcher This allowed for further answering of questions that staff and parents may have brought up. In the first school, there was considerable discussion at staff, management committee meetings and at the board of trustees meeting. An affirmative answer was received. It was to be revealed later that the amount of consultation with all the parties concerned made a considerable difference, particularly in the relationship one was able to achieve with the parents. Subsequently, it was shown that the amount of co-operation received in connection with the formal

interview with parents hinged on this initial contact carried out by the principal. In one school where parents were not consulted or notified about the research, it was not possible to contact more than one parent. In another school where excellent co-operation was eventually obtained, it was by personal approaches to parents, who were displeased at not having been included from the start. As one parent explained, "we could have been helping you all the way through, had we known". This latter style of principal-parent contact made the interview section of the study more difficult than need be, and for any future research there is a recommendation for initial contact with the parents to be formalised.

Once permission was obtained for the study to commence and the principal had given an assurance of entry into the school at the researcher's discretion, the next step was meeting the staff, explaining the project further and answering individual questions. A plan of action was set up which was maintained with all the schools in the study. The teacher whose class was to be visited the following day would be approached at the end of school, and the desire would be expressed of the researcher being in the classroom next morning. The teacher was always told that if for any reason this proved difficult or not acceptable, the researcher was to be told and an alternative classroom would be found. This was done to remove from the teachers the feeling of not being in control of the situation, because to have a person sitting in the classroom from 8.45 am until 3.15 pm for many days could have been regarded as an imposition or a threatening situation. Using this approach, the teachers were prepared for the presence of the researcher, and during the time spent in the schools no teacher ever opted out of the observation programme.

By request, the researcher also went into the classrooms not knowing who the children with discretionary hours were, because the study was on inclusion and the classroom was considered the 'ultimate test' for the success of the scheme. This also indicated to the staff that interest was not solely with individual children and this removed the apprehension of invading these children's space. In some cases, it was obvious who the integrated children were but with many children it was not so obvious, and this approach led to some interesting moments: as on the occasion when a child with bizarre behaviour was observed during the course of a morning's schooling, and during conversation at lunch the discovery was made that the child concerned was a regular classmate. The particular child who was to have been my concern was a quiet, unassuming, retiring child who later showed considerable difficulty in the classroom situation. Observations were made and recorded on

classroom activities and the involvement of the children with the special educational needs.

The first days were spent learning the classroom routine, what was expected of all the children because not only were there school cultures, there were also classroom cultures. Children of the same age and gender as the child to be focussed upon were observed for a day, to see what was expected of them by the teacher. This gave a baseline when it came to observe the activities of the particular child. Observations of school work and social activities on the specific child were made and related to the expected activities of the other children in the classroom. For example, if the child was out of the seat, wandering, not focussed on an activity when the children were expected to be in their seats and 'on task', this was recorded. The topics this applied to were generally writing, reading, oral language and mathematics. If the classroom activity at that particular time involved movement, talking, sharing, as for example box building, then it was assumed that this accepted behaviour applied to the child with special educational needs as well. During these informal sessions in the classroom the observations were made on social interactions, sharing, group behaviour and the ability of all the children to relate to each other. In time, patterns of interactions became obvious and recorded data indicated what was expected of all the children, how the classroom routine was managed and how the teachers organized their teaching skills to meet the needs of the varying levels of competence of the children. An example of the field notes appears in Appendix 1-3.

As the children became familiar with the researcher in the classroom, familiarity developed which aided the unobtrusive presence and recording. Some children were inquisitive enough to demand knowledge of why a person was present in their classroom day after day. They were told of a book being written on what happened in the school classrooms, and their day by day activities. They were shown the field notes and after reading a few lines generally remarked somewhat unfeelingly, "Gee, your writing is not very good". The researcher generally agreed and was forgotten. Initially, visits to a classroom continued for three days a week for two weeks in one school, then another classroom was taken into the project. Time was spent in the next classroom until familiarity developed and one became totally accepted. This was measured firstly by the amount of notice anyone took of the researcher; secondly, by the natural invitations to join in and the requesting of help; and thirdly by the general comfortableness of all interactions. Gradually, the classrooms were visited once a week. This ensured the teachers and children had some space from constant observation and other classrooms were becoming familiar with the researcher. As time

passed in the first school, a different classroom was visited each school day, and the days of the week were changed around so that visits never occurred on the same day of the week. This ensured that all programmes were covered and there was no regimented pattern of observation. One constant point, however, was that every teacher knew the day before when they were to be visited.

During this time at the first school, documentation was acquired on the charter, policies pertaining to special needs education, pamphlets on the school and newsletters for distribution to all parents. Note was taken of where the school kept the information on children with special needs and how information in general was disseminated in the school. Being accepted into the regular, informal, before school staff meetings gave considerable knowledge on the interaction between staff, their communication patterns and relationships. Although it was not central to the study, it was essential to have this information as it was related to the school culture. At this time it was possible to see the leadership of the school in practice on a informal footing. Another facet was added to the study at this time with a visit from the Education Review Office. The researcher was fully involved with this visit, was given the same information as the staff and expected to be present because, as the principal stated, "you are part of the every day running of the school". This involvement allowed information to be gained on the use of ceremony in the school, for example the powhiri, a Maori welcome which included the involvement of the children with special educational needs. It allowed for observation of a meeting between the Review team and parents of these children, and the questions and answers allowed for considerable sharing of feelings, concerns and expectations.

When every classroom with children with discretionary hours and teacher aide support had been visited, the teachers and pupils were used to having a researcher around the school. At that time the coming and going caused no apparent reaction. By that stage, a pattern of observational approaches had been worked out and recorded data were written up in the notebooks as it happened. At that time it seemed appropriate to take another school into the study, and as comparative analysis had pointed to issues that required closer scrutiny, the next school was chosen as it had a resource centre in the grounds. This centre had specialist staff, including itinerant teachers, who provided counselling and assistance with educational programmes on a specific disability, to both parents and local schools As there appeared to be clustering of particular disabilities occurring in the first school, the interest was in whether a specialist unit drew pupils to it. The same entry procedure for setting up the research project was set in place, but this time the principal responded with a request to appear at a staff

meeting and answer questions. A similar request was made at the third school taken onto the research project, but in the final two schools the principals appeared to have made the decision unilaterally. One by one, the schools were taken on over a six month period, as the researcher felt that the recording of data and observational procedures were under control. As new schools were taken on, the earlier schools were told that their visits would diminish and it was heartening to find that this news was greeted with a degree of reluctance. It was, however, vital to keep visiting all schools at least once every seven days so as to maintain the relationship that had been developed. In must be noted that two schools who were approached declined to be involved in the research project.

5.3.2 The Schools in the Study. Four primary schools and one intermediate school participated in this research project. Of the four primary schools, three were located in the city and the fourth school was in a town serving a rural area. The intermediate school was located in a city environment. The following list of schools indicates the presence of special facilities available on the campuses of the schools in the study. The coding system used to identify the schools is explained in Appendix 11. In the following context 'S' means school and 1-5 identifies the particular school. In the course of the analysis the schools were given fictional names for clarity of discussion.

Code	Alias	Special Facilities	No. of Pupils
S1	Karo	Bilingual unit	260
S2	Miro	Resource Centre	260
S3	Nikau	Bilingual unit	300
S4	Rata	Nil	370
S5	Titoki	Satellite class of a special school Conductive education Reading language unit	290

Table 5.1 **Characteristics and Identity of the Schools used in this study**

The Reading Language Unit catered for the needs of a small group of children with severe reading/ language difficulties. The Conductive Education Unit catered for a group of children, the majority of whom had a dysfunction in motor co-ordination. Each school had a small group of children for whom English was a second language and these children formed up to 5 percent of the school's population. Two of the

schools had bilingual units in which Maori and English were the languages of tuition. These two schools had a widely diverse group of children in their populations, especially from the ethnic viewpoint, and were totally involved in the provision of education and support to pupils with different needs.

5.3.3 Maintaining rapport. As a considerable amount of time and effort had been expended in becoming accepted into each of the schools, it was considered very important to carefully maintain that rapport. This was mainly done by regular visits, although an extra effort was made at certain times. If a school had a musical or theatrical production for which the preparations had been observed, the invitation to the final production was always accepted. Considerable effort was made to be 'invisible' yet available to all the children, to be considerate of the school culture as it was gradually learned and yet at the same time to maintain the distance of 'the researcher'. Once the visits to the schools appeared to be accepted, time was spent in the playground at morning interval and lunchtime observing the social activities of the children. As Ramsay (1990) pointed out the aim was "to immerse ourselves in the lives of the people so as to gain an understanding of their situation" (p.93). This involved sharing one's life as well as listening to others' experiences, becoming involved in conversation on a very wide front from gardening, to moving house, to travelling, and to retracing steps to early mutual acquaintances. Specific activities included sharing the washing up of dishes in the staffroom, assisting in the classroom in a capacity which allowed for close contact with the children, as for example listening to reading, helping find words for written language, answering questions and assisting with maths games. The children were always aware that they were required to share this time with 'the notebook' and that it came first. Moving from classroom to classroom, or to the library or observing in the playground, nearly always involved passing the time of day with the caretaker and sometimes the cleaners. Teachers were particularly helpful at sending children in the junior classrooms to show their work to the researcher, and included the children who were the focus of observation. This meant that there was a chance to see the work in progress alongside other children's work, with no apparent emphasis on any child. As time passed in the schools, the teachers frequently eased the access to certain activities, but at the same time appeared to be happy to respond to requests. At the end of the one year period in each school a special morning tea was arranged to thank the staff for their assistance.

How did one judge the rapport one had established?

- The fact that no teacher ever avoided having the researcher in the classroom.

- When the children met the researcher at the school gates and asked which class was being visited on that day, and then led her to the appropriate door.
- When the children greeted the researcher by name and expressed pleasure that she had chosen their room, not to mention the teacher's smile when she arrived.
- The manner in which teachers 'caught you up' on the classroom activities in general and the individual progress of children in particular, or any 'breakthroughs' that had occurred in your absence from their school.
- Discussions on individual programmes or changes in the direction of handling certain issues were proffered by teachers without having to probe for information.
- The difficulties that had occurred, the disquieting aspects of the teaching situations certain teachers were involved in, annoyances and problems in the classroom were shared. In time the negative side to certain aspects of mainstreaming was discussed along with the positive and the realisation that one was not hearing what was considered appropriate, led one to believe that total acceptance had occurred.

"Piercing the surface veneer" is how Ramsay et al. (1990, p. 95) term this step beyond establishing confidence with those who are being researched. The use of 'key informants' is referred to by Bogdan and Taylor (1975, p.49) to assist with getting beneath the surface of the school culture. This approach was never deliberately used, but there were in every school some informants who were more forthcoming of information than other staff. The principals in the schools were always interested in what stage the research was at and frequently came and discussed present happenings in the schools in the area of research interest. Travelling backwards and forwards with an itinerant teacher to one school also provided feedback on policy decisions and concerns, as various reports were made public. In general, because the teachers were interested in the research project and the children who were involved from a personal and professional viewpoint, support and assistance was forthcoming.

5.3.4 The 'observer effect' of ethnography. Beyond the problems of reliability and validity of the data being collected, is the issue of 'observer effect' (Rose, 1975), 'impression management' (Goffman, 1957), or the possibility of people under observation changing their behaviour to meet what they consider the researcher wants to hear or see. The challenge to an ethnographer of remaining neutral is the crux of this type of research methodology. This is particularly difficult when one

becomes partially involved in the process being studied in order to gain rapport, but at the same time is required to stand outside the situation and regard it from a neutral perspective. The course used in this study to check the degree of involvement occurring came at school holiday times when the material gathered was read and related back to the original research design. On a few occasions when there was a feeling of being 'uncomfortable' with the closeness that had been achieved, there was some person on the staff to whom this could be mentioned. The result was usually a discussion which brought out many facts at a deeper level because frequently the staff had also experienced ambivalence at that stage, and this realisation allowed one to stand back further and start afresh. This honesty added to the validity of the material gathered in the researcher's eyes.

Spreading the personal contact period of the research over more than two years assisted with gaining reliable material and not becoming too involved. There were two reasons considered for this: firstly, it would have been very difficult and exhausting for staff to have maintained their attitudes for the benefit of the researcher over this period of time; secondly, as many of the children were witnessed in action with different teachers in the second year, as they had progressed in the school to new classes, it was possible to see the children in a different light. This allowed for analytical comparison to occur and was able to be used as a check on observations of the researcher.

Another check that was able to be made on the involvement of the researcher and any effect that may have been brought into the classroom, was the use of the triangulation method. As the interview schedule was drawn directly from propositions derived from classroom observations, all those interviewed were in a situation to counteract any bias which occurred. Once the propositions had been isolated, an interview schedule was developed for all those persons involved in the education of children with special educational needs. Those who were interviewed were invited to correct any misapprehensions on what had been observed and in this interview time there was a chance for personal discussion to occur. Some broad clarifications occurred, as for example in the weight given to self care and daily living skills. By the end of the interviews, the researcher realised that this issue applied to all children in the classroom and was not solely a factor to be considered with regard to children with special educational needs. In fact, these children were in many cases highly disciplined and looked after their effects and themselves more efficiently than many of their classmates.

5.3.5 Data management and writing Up. Initial observations were recorded in notebooks exclusive to each school and these notebooks were carried everywhere, as familiarity led to acceptance. Observations were recorded as they occurred and the researcher, notebook and pen became a familiar sight around the schools. Recording of daily school events for a child with special educational needs followed a set pattern. The first day in the classroom involved settling in, meeting all the children, learning names and becoming familiar with the routine. The second day was spent closely observing from a distance within earshot of a child of similar age, sex and ethnic group to gain a general understanding of what was expected of that child by the teacher. The following day observations would start on the child with special educational needs. Classroom activities and child responses would be noted constantly from 8.30 am until the child went home from school. Every quarter of an hour would be marked in the notes to gain a time frame. There were occasions when, because of involvement in activities and data collection, the time frame slipped to half hourly intervals but it was not desirable. Social activities, learning experiences, conversations and group relationships were all recorded. It was possible, when the children became used to one's being in the classroom to be close to various children and for them to be totally unaware of the recording. This was demonstrated on one particular occasion when recording the daily routine of a child with extreme emotional and behavioural problems. Observations had been carried out on this child by many special advisers and he regarded everyone who entered the room, as being interested in his behaviour. On this occasion although he was being observed, he confronted the researcher and demanded why there was no interest being shown in what he was doing. To have called this child's bluff was regarded as an achievement, as he was very experienced in classroom disruption. A conversation with the teacher at that point gave a reassurance that there was not an 'observer effect'.

When evaluation of the data obtained from the first school was carried out, notes taken of the types of activities, as for example 'wandering behaviour', 'vocal or physical interruptions', or 'on task' behaviour were made in a marginal column. This column also allowed for comments, personal interpretations and analysis. This helped to define the activities that required more time or closer observation and as well, indicate when repetitive activities in association with set factors, led the researcher to believe that 'theoretical saturation' (Glaser and Strauss, 1967) had occurred. This column was also used to refer to and note points that had been raised, that caused feelings that could be regarded as a lack of 'indifference' to the observations As already mentioned, this led to discussions with other professional staff to determine alternative interpretations on what was happening. This procedure of note-taking in notebooks

was repeated for all the schools taken into the study. Approximately 1000 pages were recorded using this method. The use of comparative analysis in determining the sample schools has been referred to. Breaks from fieldwork were taken at school vacations and this time was used to review progress, as well as have a break from classroom commitment, which could be quite intense and exhausting at times.

While involved in the observational fieldwork in the schools, documents were collected which included school charters, any policies relating to children with special educational needs including communication with the community and parents. Issues such as the management of staff development were documented. Any school newsletters or information pamphlets which were distributed into the community were also gathered in. Another source of information was a scrapbook which was kept on professional publications, for example the Educational Gazette, Rourou, Te Karere (Ministry newsletter), Principal Today and other references to special education eg in newspapers. In this way, it was possible to know what information professional staff were able to receive if they so desired it. Observations were also taken on how the school managed this incoming information and passed it on to those involved with children with special educational needs. Records were also kept of how communications were made from the principal to the staff, and vice versa, in order to determine the communication patterns within the school.

The propositions which arose from the observational fieldwork in the school were obtained from the notations recorded in the notebooks. An interview schedule was developed which allowed for expansion and verification of the 'theoretically saturated' data. In all, 75 structured interviews were carried out with principals, teachers, teacher aides, itinerant or special teachers, board of trustee representatives, specialist advisers and parents from the research schools. As well, individual interviews were conducted with 10 children aged 11-14 who had special educational needs. All the subjects were given the interview schedule at least two days in advance of the interview so that they did not come to the session feeling apprehensive. This was done because many participants expressed how little they knew about 'special education' and the changes they were experiencing. They were concerned about their uncertainty, but were reassured by being able to know what questions they were to be asked. It is the researcher's opinion that this added to the quality of the interviews. The material obtained from the interviews was referred back to the respondents and where necessary further discussion took place. This was very limited for two reasons: firstly, professional staff appeared to be confident that their views had been recorded accurately; and secondly, for some staff members, time was of the optimum and

further checking was considered not appropriate. The interviews were recorded on tape and transcribed. This material was then coded according to a variety of themes that had been central issues in the propositions: for example, the time factor involved with inclusion, classroom routine including task comprehension and task completion, charter and policies on inclusion and the reaction to the clause in the Act which allowed inclusion to occur. All responses were given a major code classification but because some questions stimulated comments that were allied to the major coding, these responses were given a second level code as well. This allowed the researcher to retrieve, for example, any reference to 'time' anywhere in the interview data.

From the themes arising out of the propositions the material was analysed and written up. Selection of material from the field notebooks and the interview responses to illustrate the findings obviously reflected the value judgement of the researcher, but the use of the triangulation method provided some check on the interpretation given. This stage also saw the linking in of the document analysis which particularly related to charters, policies and communication with the parents. Copies of IEPs had been collected for many of the children and these were also given consideration in the write-up.

From this written and documented material, a framework of the change process was extracted and used as the basis for the presentation of results. As a final note, the personal effects of being an ethnographer shall be referred to as this is a very demanding research technique involving considerable interaction with a wide variety of people.

5.3.6 On being an ethnographer. Doing ethnographic research is not easy. The attempt to reconcile the expectations of the researcher with those of the people being researched or those directing the research can create frustration and anxiety (Zigarmi and Zigarmi, 1980). According to these authors, the quality and the results of the research study can be affected by these tensions. An ethnographer is required to meet personal and professional needs at the same time as gaining and maintaining access to the research area, keeping up the workload, participating, reciprocating and maintaining acceptance and one's identity, while gathering appropriate data in the field. One of the most difficult aspects was maintaining the 'window' into the schools once the constant contact became periodic, while at the same time going onto the next stage of the study. However, it has proved a very satisfactory way of learning what is happening at the 'chalkface'.

The advice of Howe and Eisenhart (1990) was accepted, that educational researchers should give attention to the questions which will inform educational practices, and ground their methodology in the nature of these questions. As the research continued, further questions were added to those in mind at the start of the project. Chapter 6 contains the questions which were considered relevant to this study on the changes which would occur in the school when inclusion occurred.

Chapter Six

Proposed Research

6.0 The Proposed Research

The topic under study is the change process which occurred when the philosophy of inclusion was accepted following the Education Act, 1989. The administrative reform held the potential for major changes in the way children with special educational needs were to gain their education, but this event was to run parallel with administration restructuring. When education with equal rights became law, there was limited direction on the management of integration of children with special educational needs into the classrooms. There were no pilot schemes in progress to ascertain potential difficulties, and little information was available on the management of children already in the system. The aim of this study was to determine how children with special educational needs were being admitted into the schools. Also, as the legislation had not directly addressed inclusion but had opened the door for it to occur, there were many questions which required answers. On the professional level, how were decisions being made regarding these children, what criteria were those decisions being based on and how were all the involved people dealing with the event?

6.1 The Questions for Study

These questions are related to the tenet that policy is made at all levels of the school. If this view is accepted, no one level of policy decides the strategies implemented at other levels, although it may influence them. This approach allows one to look at the roles and those who occupy the 'arenas' of decision-making within the school, and to determine the methods they use to make the decisions on which they act. This model recognises that the implementation of a policy develops further policy which can be acted upon at all levels. The value to inclusion is that policy decisions are being made at a very personal level.

The literature of the last decade has been scrutinised for information on many aspects of integration and reviewed in chapter 2. This has highlighted that the success of inclusion is in the interactions and relationships which develop between persons involved in the process. The roles which form the social structure of the regular school include principals, teachers, specialist advisers, parents and pupils. How the people who occupy these roles relate to each other, while bringing about a change in the values associated with the policy of inclusion within the school community, is the story of this thesis. Although a massive amount of research is already recorded, researchers appear to have adopted there appears to be a fragmentary approach to the topic of inclusion. Accepting that normalisation is the basic principle of inclusion, then

legitimated inclusion is woven into a school's culture, into the roles of the school's professional staff and students, and into the parent community. However, there is a second aspect to inclusion that has been considered a major difficulty in all the countries which have introduced this educational change and this has been the definition of the population and the allocation of resources on a fair and equitable basis. All the schools in the study faced this issue and dealt with it in their individual ways.

From the aspect of governance, the questions which will provide information on how inclusion influences the schools are:

- How have government policies for children with special educational needs been conveyed to schools?
- How are schools interpreting the national policy and developing and implementing their own policies for children with special educational needs?
- How have these policies been expressed in the school charters?
- What understanding of equity clauses in the charter do the school staff, principals, boards of trustees members and parents have, and what are their perceptions of the changes which have been made in the schools to implement these policies?

From the aspect of management, the questions are:

- What resources have schools available to them to put the legislation into practice?
- What practices of enrolment and placement of children with special educational needs are in place in the various schools?

With regard to those people directly involved in the inclusive process and the school culture, the questions are:

- What part has the leadership of the principal played in the inclusion process in the schools?
- How does the principal develop and maintain the school culture including community relationships, parental contact and school values with regard to inclusion?

- What role expectations do the various people associated with integration have of each other and are those expectations met?
- What considerations are given to meet the needs of staff development, outside agency contact for specialist advice and communication with staff members?
- How have schools prepared their environment for the integration of children with disabilities?

Within the classroom, information is required on the following:

- How do schools deal with the curriculum issues in the classroom with a wide variation of potential?
- What part do peers play in the integration of children with special educational needs?
- What are the attributes which assist the child with special educational needs to be integrated into the school community?

The perceived effect of inclusion on the schools studied will be determined by the following questions:

- What are the positive effects which result from the policy of inclusion in the schools?
- What are the negative effects which result from the policy of inclusion in the schools?
- What is the response from those persons directly involved, to the integration of the children with special educational needs, and to the policy as presented in the Education Act, 1989 allowing all children an equal right to education?
- What do those persons directly involved in the integration process for children with special educational needs consider is necessary to ensure ownership of the practice of inclusion in the school culture?

6.2 The Thesis Framework

With these questions in mind, the results of this study on inclusion shall now be presented, with school governance, management, and culture providing the background against which the interactions and relationships of principals, teachers, parents, and children are played out in the classroom. The thesis framework devised

from the observation period spent in the schools and the resulting fieldnotes are presented in Figure 6.1. This framework takes cognisance of the systems modelling of Chin (in Bennis et al., 1964); the social system defined by the structuralist-functionalist theorists with the use of the role as its smallest unit; and acts as a platform for the expression of the values, ideas and belief systems of Marx, Weber, C.Wright Mills and Durkheim. The framework allows for the unravelling of the "intricate threads and patterns" which ethnography demands, (Nias et al., 1989) and will be used in the presentation of the research results.

Before looking at the processes which influenced inclusive practices, the nature of the post-Education Act, 1989 school and the communication pathways to the Ministry of Education must be briefly reviewed.

6.3 The Schools Following the Education Act, 1989

Following the Education Act, 1989, the administrative reforms transferred governance and management decisions to the schools, while keeping considerable central control over certain aspects of education. Under the Act, the election of a board of trustees from amongst the parents of each school and the writing of the school charter, an agreement between the community, the school and the Ministry of Education, had particular relevance to inclusion.

The introduction of inclusive education was made very complex because it coincided with these major reforms of educational administration. The charter development process was protracted and aroused reaction and some disillusionment to the changes being enforced (Hall and McGee, 1991, p.55). Also, charters were required to be written at a time when boards of trustees were under considerable pressure. Much of the charter framework was compulsory but there were sections where the boards of trustees were required to make statements describing their schools and their communities. They were allowed to add additional material provided it did not conflict with the Education Act, 1989. At this stage, with the assistance of generally one nominated board member, principals took the responsibility for the children with special educational needs. In schools where special units, classes, or resource centres were present, a legally required management committee assisted. Considerable decision-making was being undertaken in the school situation at the same time as the policy on inclusion and special education was being devised on a national level, and discussion on defining disabilities and the equitable allocation of resources was occurring. In the course of this thesis, in a movement from governance to classroom

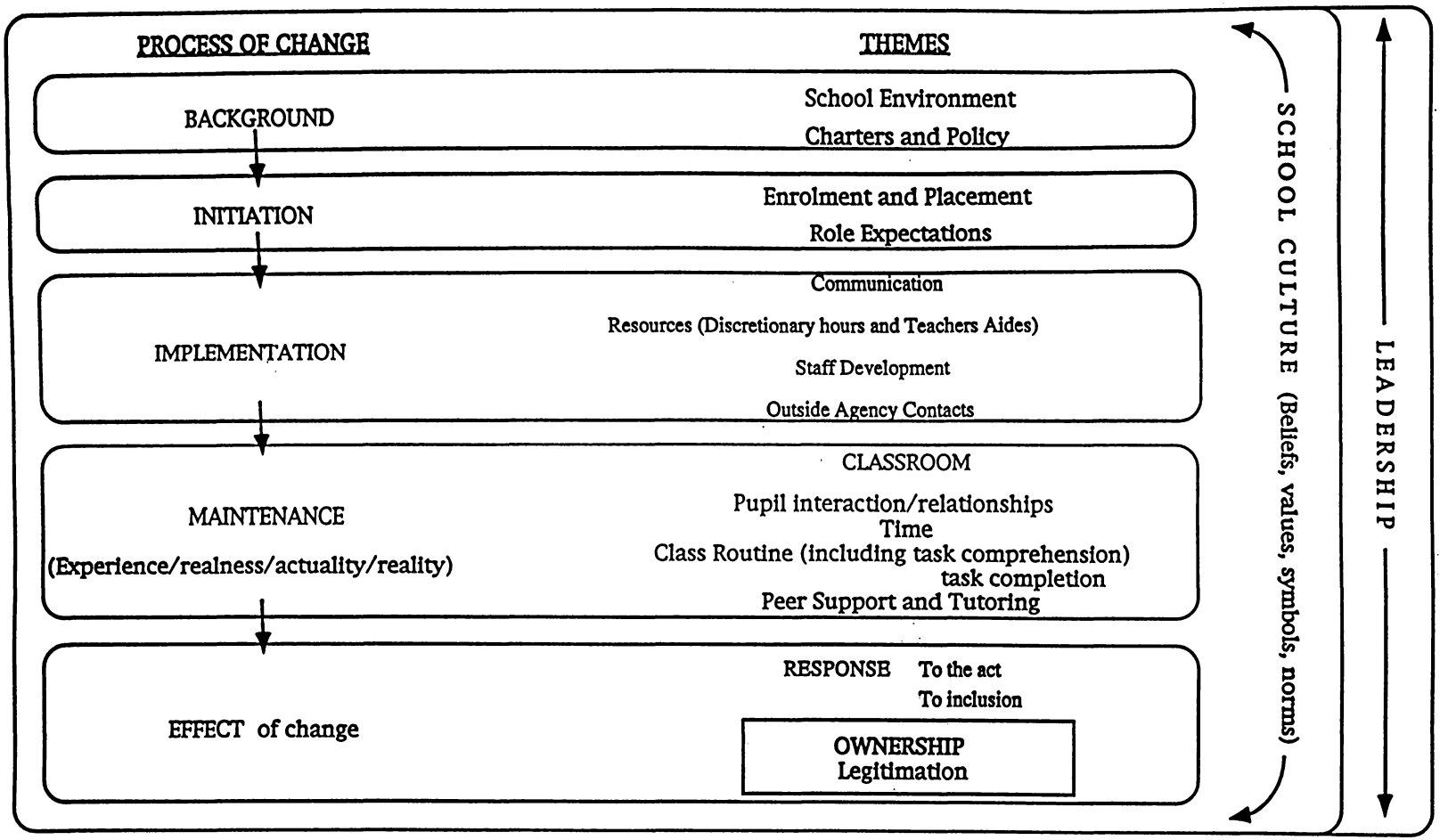


Fig. 6.1 The process of change towards inclusion used as the thesis framework

management, these policy levels will be peeled back to show how the philosophy of inclusion was accepted by the schools and affected their decision-making. These policy levels and decision-making arenas are presented in Figure 4.1. The direct link is shown between the Minister, the district offices of the Ministry of Education and the schools, and the levels at which decision-making is occurring locally.

The status of the schools relative to children with special educational needs following the Education Act, 1989 is presented in Figure 6.2. A flow chart of governance and management responsibility in relation to the legislative demands of the Education Act, 1989, indicates the pathways of communication. As well as providing a picture of the interactions within the school which will be elaborated on in this thesis, the figure draws attention to the legislation which pertains to this thesis (Chapter 3) and the place of the SES in the scheme. At the commencement of each of the next four chapters the relevant role incumbents and communication pathways which are examined in that chapter are highlighted figuratively, beside the miniaturised version of figure 6.2. from which it has been extracted. The plan for each chapter, together with the synopsis, is presented in this way.

The process of change involved in inclusion consisted of several phases which involved decision-making at many levels of the education system. Within the school community, these included a decision at governance level that the school would enrol children with special educational needs. This has been referred to as the Background Phase. The next step was a period of initiation when the parents came to the school to investigate what each school offered for their child in the way of programmes, support services and, most important of all, the attitude towards their child? In this thesis this has been designated the Initiation Phase. Following parental acceptance of a school's programme and the introduction of the parent and child to a school, a period of implementation followed. This was a time when the principal, on behalf of the child and the professional staff, set in train a series of steps to gain resources. This involved an approach to advisory agencies, for example the S E S, which was regarded by the schools in this study as the main outside agency which could supply specialist assistance when it was required. In the thesis framework this stage has been termed the Implementation Phase. Once the child was admitted to the school, a period of maintenance evolved when classroom routines, peer interactions and relationships and mechanisms for personal support were developed. This was identified as the Maintenance Phase. It was at this level that the success of inclusion could be measured, but also the difficulties could be clearly noted. At this level the teachers formed their response to the process of change they were involved in and either

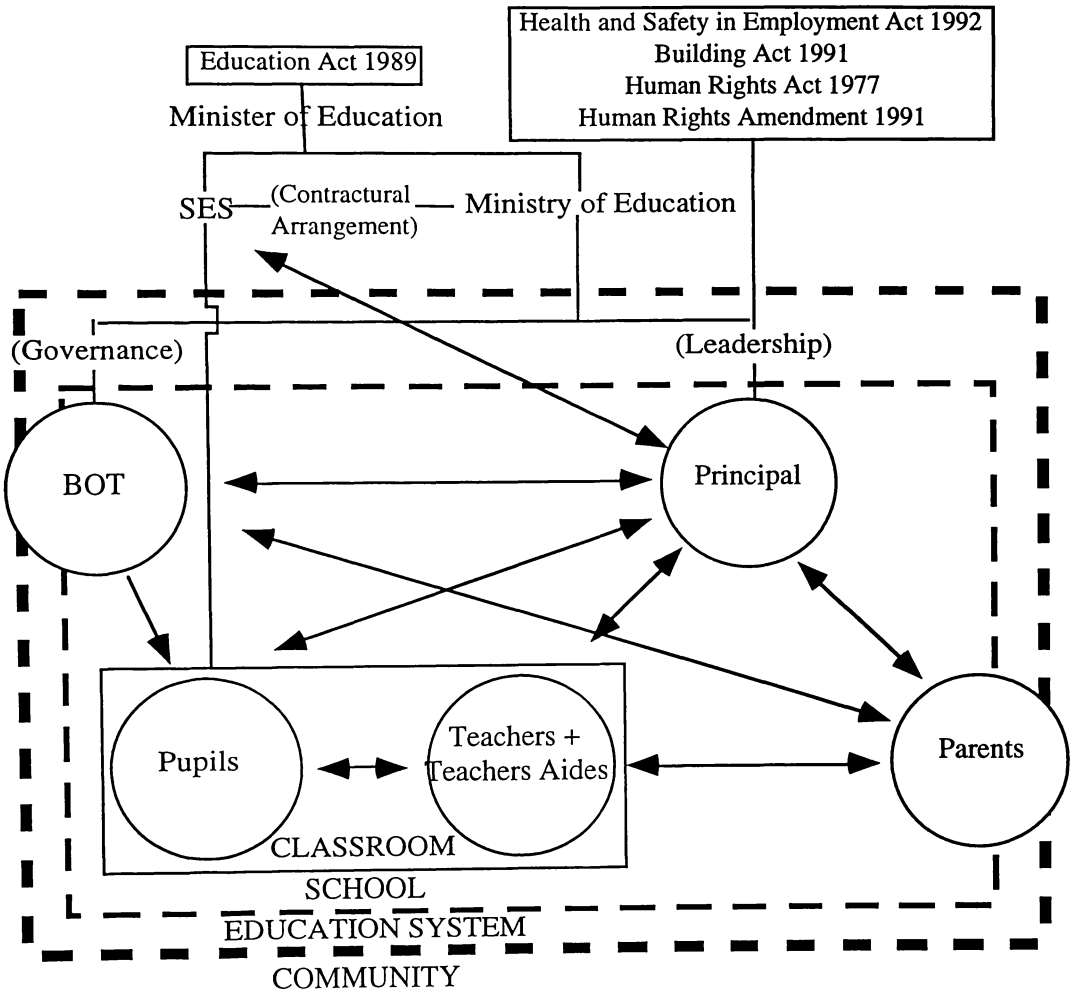


Fig. 6.2 **External determinants and the communication network in the school, following passage of Education Act, 1989**

accepted the policy wholeheartedly or showed their ambivalence. It was at the classroom level that the change was legitimated and true ownership of inclusion was demonstrated. This change took place within the school culture which formed as a result of the demands of the community, the influence of the governance of the board of trustees and under the leadership of the principal.

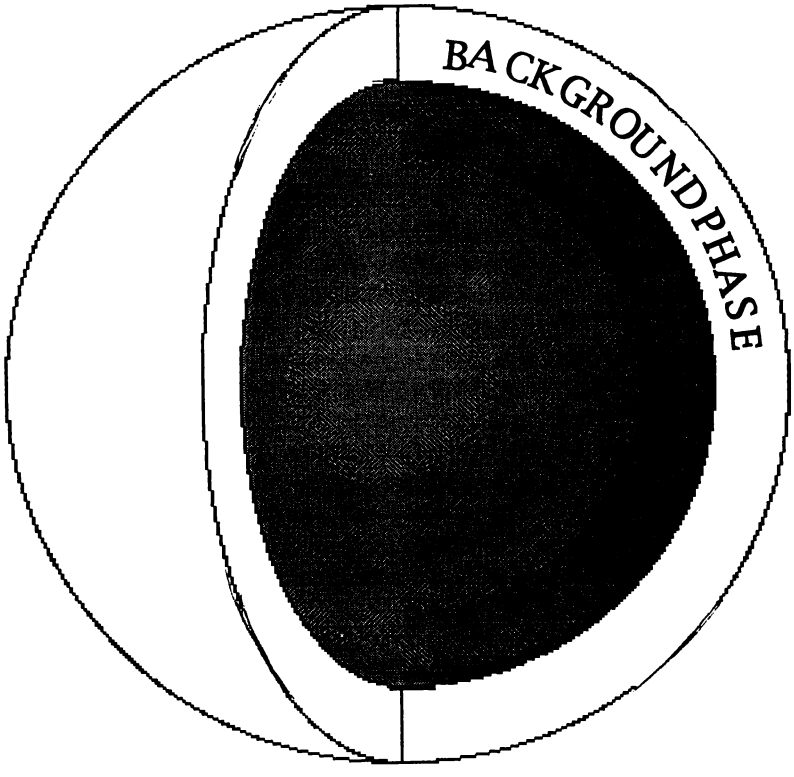
From the child's viewpoint, while each school in the study had stated its overall position on equity in the goals and objectives for the school in the charter and policies it had written, preparation for the children on enrolment became an individual undertaking. Using this framework, it was apparent that all children with special educational needs passed through the Initiation, Implementation and Maintenance

phases on an individual basis in the process of being integrated. For some of the children, earlier stages were revisited, but each child created a new set of reactions within this framework which were enacted in the context of the school culture, under the leadership of the principal.

In order to render the complexity of the inter-related parts of the thesis as clearly as possible it has been viewed in terms of bedded systems theory (Bronfenbrenner, 1977), which in this study has a generalised outside layer and an intimate, personal inner core. As the thesis is presented in the next four chapters, the layers will be peeled away systematically to reveal decision-making and strategy formation at increasingly personal levels. This is schematically presented on the frontispiece to each chapter.

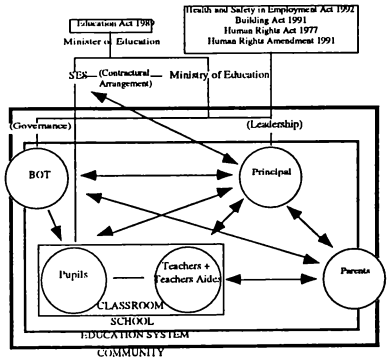
Chapter Seven

Background Phase



Synopsis

The Education Act, 1989 provided for the equal rights to enrolment and education of all persons who have special educational needs (whether because of disability or otherwise) in a state school. The charter documents which were required to be written following the passage of the Act, outlined local goals and objectives in the partnership between government, the school and its community. The charters were considered, in relation to this thesis, to provide an understanding of the school culture and its values and to provide an indication of intent with regard to inclusion. In this chapter, the personal views of the principals and respondents from the boards of trustees provide evidence that the manner in which administrative changes had occurred strongly influenced the attitude of those in a governing capacity towards inclusion. Those schools which addressed the individuality of children, also respected the equity and equality issues which were intrinsic in the charters, and they set out to meet the environmental requirements of their pupils with special educational and developmental needs.



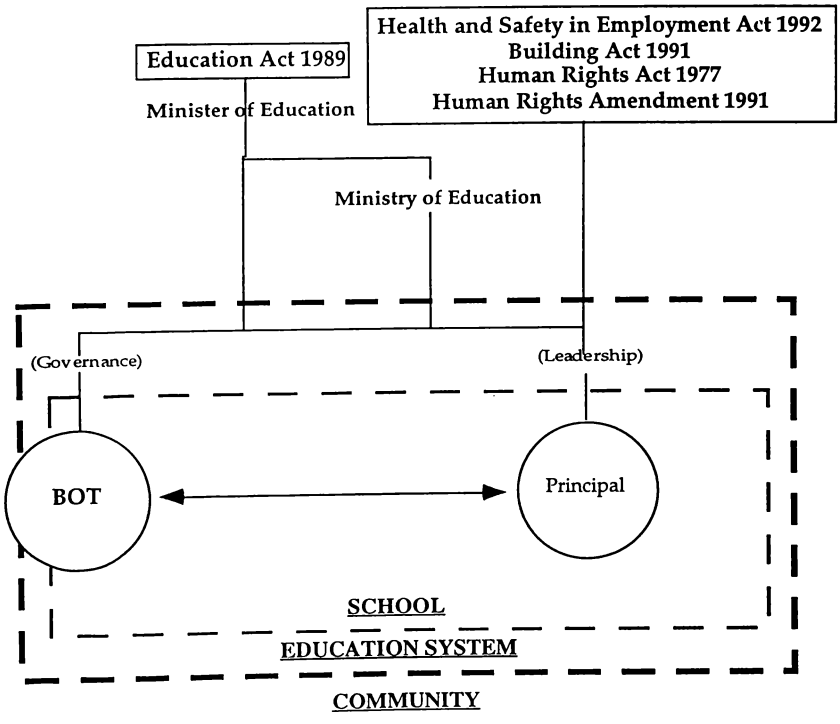


Fig. 7.1 **Background phase - charter, policy and preparation of the environment**

7.0 Background Phase

If inclusion is accepted as a "moral issue" (Sarason and Doris, 1982, p.54) or a "matter of values" (Ballard, 1989, p.56), it must be assumed that those who were preparing for children with special educational needs would look to the physical environment and the ethos of the school. In this chapter, the Background Phase of the research, the development of charters and policies by the schools and the preparation of their environments in readiness for students with special educational needs, is examined.

The ideology of inclusion is based on a change in the social conscience of many people at different levels of our society, and with varying degrees of contact with children with special educational needs. For those involved and close to the needs and interests of these children inclusion is a potent force, but for other community members it is a philosophy which is slowly starting to become part of their reality. Therefore, differing responses will be gained according to the realities which these people have constructed. Fullan (1991) described leadership, vision building and the principals' association with their schools' governance as essential themes for change to occur. The right to enrol all children in state schools regardless of 'ability or disability' has caused many professional staff and school communities to consider their values, ideals and belief systems.

The charter and policies were considered by the researcher to be a window through which knowledge of the school culture in general, and the school values in particular, would be available to the community. Therefore the place of charters and policies and the preparation of the school environment were considered to be the starting points in this thesis to understand what inclusion meant to each school in the study.

7.1 Charter

As the school charter and associated policies should give an indication of inclusive intent, it was of value to parents wishing to gain information prior to enrolling a child or to a teacher applying for a position on the staff. Therefore the development of the school charter gave those involved in school governance the opportunity to show how they viewed their pupils with special educational needs, and how the equity clauses were understood. How the schools met these conditions shall now be considered and from this point, material from data analysis will be presented. The coding and

pseudonyms used throughout this thesis (Table 5.1) are repeated for convenience and are as follows: S1 (Karo), S2 (Miro), S3 (Nikau), S4 (Rata), S5 (Titoki).

7.1.1 Issues associated with charter writing. The way in which schools went about interpreting the national policy on children with special educational needs in the charter documents is examined in this section. How did schools develop and express their policies in their charters? Some fundamental changes which occurred during charter writing caused considerable reaction in schools to the government and their educational agency, the Ministry of Education. A clause in the charter framework which had profound implications for schools at the time of charter writing was one which indicated that the government would provide schools with funding. This finance would enable boards of trustees to implement the commitments they had made on behalf of their schools and communities. The downgrading of the charter from a contract to an agreement and finally to an understanding between the boards of trustees and the government, altered the legal situation of the funding and occurred after charter development had started. Schools became aware that there was a possibility that all they hoped to fulfil in their goals might not be able to be implemented. The principal of Titoki explained:

> We actually put in comments about the special needs and the talented because we wanted to make sure that it was conditional on us having the resources to do it. It is all very well to say in the charter, "we are going to do this" but if you haven't got the resource to do it, it isn't good putting it in there. (S5/P1)

There was an awareness of difficulties of non-compliance and Titoki school placed a condition on their aims which read, "provided there are sufficient resources". The principal commented:

> That was our out, it had to be. (S5/P1)

The reactions of principals and boards of trustees to the charter were varied, and considerably coloured by the whole process of charter writing. The real value of the charter in the early stage of development appeared to be the way it caused the schools to focus on their role, in providing *all* children with an education. Because of the level of compliance that some schools considered the government demanded, in their viewpoint, the charter document lacked credibility. The result was that the preparation, although carried out according to the required demands, saw minimal individualisation of the document. This did not indicate a lack of concern for the goals and objectives of the charter, but a resistance to the manner in which the government changed the framework without consultation. This was to cause some school principals to develop

an attitude of "no funding, no services" which was to become an excuse for a lack of activity. One example of this was seen in the generalisation of the definition of the term 'children with special needs', by the principal of Nikau school:

> I would say that 10 to 15 per cent of our children are special needs. When we talk about special needs we are talking about our children who don't get breakfast, whose parents don't know where they sleep at night and we are talking about children who are not clothed properly. (S3/P1)

The reaction against the charter resulted in a deep association of values with economic considerations and the gaining of resources. This was demonstrated in Titoki and Nikau where the economics of fulfilling the schools' vision showed that the principals were wary of putting ideas and school aims into the charter, if they did not have the resources to carry them out. The principal of Titoki explained their reticence:

> We did note a separate page for our remedial assistance and special needs and the talented, because we wanted to make sure that it was conditional to us having the resources to do it. (S5/P1)

This statement was, however, contradicted by a clause in the school's information booklet which stated the school's philosophy as the following:

> The child is central to all our thinking and planning....our teaching as far as possible is based on the child's needs rather than on a pattern which gives *all* children *the same* irrespective of their needs. (S5) (emphasis the researcher's)

Therefore this approach directly opposed one of the compulsory sections written as a guiding principle to protect areas where discrimination could occur. This was the equity issue which recognised equitable outcomes for all students irrespective of their ability or disability. The result was that compulsory aspects of the charter which had particular relevance to children with special needs were taken into the school charter as they were written into the framework by the central authorities, as follows:

- The aim will be to ensure equal opportunity for all students to participate and succeed in the full range of school activities.
- The board of trustees will adopt policies and practices that identify and cater for the individual needs of each student in the school. These will affect the school's curriculum and the way the school distributes resources.
- They will include programmes that redress existing inequalities and address the current and future needs of students, particularly:
  students with disabilities
  students with other learning needs (Department of Education, 1989).

While these equity clauses were taken into the charter by all the schools because they were compulsory, the aims and objectives of some schools had phrases of dependency on the provision of funding and resources attached. As mentioned above, there was little value in claiming to do something if there was not the support to carry it out, according to the principal of Titoki, and therein lay the ambivalence that some schools showed in their approach to inclusion. Other schools, although distinctly annoyed and frustrated by the charter changes, looked beyond this issue to the children's needs and the values inherent in their school culture.

7.1.2 Ownership of the charters. The schools which considered these values important and accepted the individuality and differences of children, specifically highlighted these in the section of the charter containing school description, local goals and the mission statement. It was in the approach used in this section of charter development that the individual boards sought to 'own' their charters. This approach acknowledged but did not make any promises to children with special educational needs. One of these referred to the Karo school "[encouraging] the mainstreaming of children into the regular classroom with their peers". However, Titoki school used a section designated as 'local principles' to clarify their values on the individuality of children in education. Attention is drawn, however, to the ambiguity between the recognition of the individuality of the children and doing anything about the difference, which the principal of Titoki claimed was conditional on having resources. Written in a creed-like manner the values that Titoki school invoked, included the following statements:

> We believe that each child is unique and endeavour to recognise and account for the difference between individual children. We give priority to all activities which foster the development of the whole child. (S5, charter)

In contrast, where the charter was not held in high esteem, completion was to minimal Ministry requirements and gave no indication of the nature of the school. The mission statement from Nikau did in the first sentence indicate values that the management felt strongly about, but the remainder was not personalised and was based on the paramount principle provided in the charter framework:

> Meeting the needs of our pupils and their learning will be the focus of our school's purpose. Pupils will be provided with an education which respects their dignity, rights and individuality and allows them to reach their potential. (S3, charter)

However, Mission Statements from other schools did provide the essence of the school culture and provided recognition of the individuality of *all* the children:

> To promote a positive, caring, challenging and balanced learning environment which attempts to acknowledge the *individual* needs of our children. (S5)

> Every child is a *unique* person and has a right to a quality education. (S1) (the researcher's emphasis)

This latter mission statement was placed in a prominent place in Karo school's foyer. It was this recognition of the uniqueness of children that made visitors, parents and staff aware of a value that the school held in high esteem. When a school did not openly announce this recognition of individuality there appeared to be an approach of treating all the children in a similar way by acknowledging "we don't treat our children with special needs any differently to the other students." There was an indefinable difference between this approach and that of "just another student". When the former approach was used, the schools in actual fact did do a great deal to support the needs of these children. The latter approach, demonstrated in schools where individuality was not given such a high profile, was associated with a minimalisation of disability.

As not all the schools held the school charter in high esteem the more informal documents were also examined to gain an understanding of equity in the school culture.

When an emphasis was placed on the individual child in the mission statement or local goals it was generally carried over into the school information booklet. For example, equity was recognised by a school when the philosophy indicated a child centred approach to learning based on the child's needs:

> The aim of [the school] is to provide a setting in which the self esteem of the individual child is paramount -to their social, emotional, cultural, intellectual and physical development. Staff acknowledge this and develop programmes which cater for each child's needs. (S1, information pamphlet)

The acknowledgment of the individuality of children by schools influenced the school culture and provided a distinctive way in which the school presented itself to the local community, and the outside world. This was demonstrated in numerous, almost indiscernible ways. The total acceptance of inclusion as a part of the school ethos was demonstrated by only one school, named Karo in this study. For example, in a school musical production a wheelchair became an intricately decorated throne with the queen a most envied royal personage. The following year this same child proved to be a very

energetic jack-in-the-box. The information booklet from Karo school for parents described the staff, resources, and individual programme development which were available for 'mainstreaming'. The school charter goals were reprinted in the booklet and included the following aim:

> To ensure that children with disabilities or special learning needs are acknowledged and programmes developed to enable them to reach their maximum potential. (S1)

The presence of three different types of special units on the grounds of one school, Titoki, provided a different form of acknowledgment of 'mainstreaming'. This may be the reason why Titoki showed ambivalence in the recognition of children with special needs. These special units were recorded in the information booklet and acknowledged by the staff as being a part of the school's culture:

> We have always had special children in the school and they all have different problems. I don't think we notice any [specific child] in the school. (S5/T4)

At Miro school, the presence of the Visual Resource Centre on the campus was recognised in the charter in the section on buildings and grounds. Even though the children involved were totally included in the school community the centre was required by the Ministry of Education to have its own goals and objectives section in the school charter. At this early stage of the study it was possible to see how the presence of special units, classes or a resource centre provided a 'special' approach to some children, in spite of an inclusive approach by the school.

The minimalisation of disability was shown by Nikau school with its lack of reference to children with special needs. This was attributed, by the principal, to the fact that the school "didn't have a lot [of children with disabilities] at that point". The deputy principal suggested this was because the charter was written "when a lot of these children weren't mainstreamed". This appeared to indicate that the school would meet the requirements of these children when they enrolled at school and the need arose. The trustee member who was the board respondent for these children, agreed with the scant mention and could not remember any special part of the charter which designated what the school would do for children with special needs:

> But there was an area in the charter that wrote down that each child was entitled to the best education they could receive. That implied that if we had children with special needs in the school then they were actually entitled to it as well. (S3/B1)

There was a definite view that "looking at the needs of all children in general" was a requirement of the goals of the schools, and one specific aspect of these needs which drew many responses from professional staff, was that of catering for talented children. Therefore, both Nikau and Titoki showed an ambivalence to children with special needs in that the documentation showed empathy but action itself was very general. This uncertainty will be explored further in the next chapter.

The interpretation of national policy on children with special educational needs in the school charters showed that certain schools acknowledged the individuality of children, and were actualising inclusion in the school community. Other schools may have accepted the equity clauses into their school charters but made it provisional on having funding and resources to back the ideology of inclusion. The presence of special facilities on the grounds of certain schools strongly influenced the recognition of special needs in the school charters.

In general children with special needs were referred to in the aims, objectives or mission statement of the charter of school policies. The school policies were to show how schools intended to carry out the goals and objectives of their charters and were prepared with less immediacy.

7.2 Policy Writing

After fieldwork was underway in all five schools and their charters had been examined, it was apparent that there were widely differing views on what constituted inclusion. The writing of statements in charters and acceptance of the equity clauses provided by the government did not ensure inclusive actions. The intentions of schools to meet the needs of children with special educational needs were detailed in their policies and it was assumed that responsibility for their development lay with boards of trustees.

7.2.1 Whose responsibility? Four trustee respondents reported that they had very little input into this part of policy writing. However, at Karo school, there had been considerable interaction over a period of time between the principal, management committee and the board of trustees. At the other schools, the staff and principals had written most of the policies and the boards of trustees "had to OK or accept them". This occurred generally because the policies were written by those "appropriate to different fields" of expertise. That the drive for policy writing came from the

professional staff at the school, was mentioned by all the trustee respondents in some form. As one respondent stated:

> I don't actually remember a policy actually written at the time while I was on the board which actually said how the school taught and integrated children with special needs. The policy impetus came from the school, the board didn't do anything about it. (S3/B1)

The policy for property was the one most frequently mentioned as having direct board input and the board of trustee respondents described how "they looked at things that can be done to make things easier" for the children:

> In every statement there was an awareness of inclusion.(S2/B1)

> In most of the policy we have tried to include the special needs, both disabilities and abilities, all are treated as equal.(S4/B1)

Another aspect of policy writing which drew several comments from principals and boards of trustees, was the recognition of gifted or talented children. Whereas the memory on policies for children with disabilities was very hazy, trustees remembered especially the preparation and acceptance of policies for these children with special needs. This attitude was in accord with the very frequent query as to why the present study was not looking into the needs of this group of children. The high profile of these children in the minds of the majority of persons in the school community, as compared to the children with other areas of special educational needs, was a telling comment. Two principals summed up their schools' situation in the following manner:

> The school has no policy on students requiring special education. We have a policy on talented youngsters but not those needing special education. (S3/P1)

> When we look at special needs we look at all children who have needs in general. I think the biggest concern really in education is catering for our talented children. So that is very important not only in our mission statement but in our goals. (S1/P1)

Policy writing for children with special educational needs was considered by all board of trustee respondents to be the principal's concern, except in one area, that of the environment. This will be discussed in section 7.3.

A further level of examination considered the policies directly relevant to educational special needs. As policy writing was considered to be driven by the professional staff of the school, it was on their suggestion that the following policies were considered relevant to the process of inclusion: parent and community communication,

curriculum, staff development, equity, children with special needs and 'mainstreaming'.

7.2.2 Equity, 'special needs' or 'mainstreaming' policy. Three policies had been developed to meet the educational and social requirements of children with special educational needs. They were equity, children with special needs, or 'mainstreaming'. The equity policy cast its net wider than the policy for 'special needs' and so where an equity policy was developed it included the requirements of children with special needs. Whereas in one school a special needs policy covered both the high ability children and "those experiencing difficulty with learning," this same group of children in another school was covered by the equity policy. The rationale behind an equity policy when it was applied to inclusion, was that no child should be disadvantaged in school learning and teaching programmes because of any personal disability. The child would also have "equal rights and opportunities to participate and experience success" at school. The recognition of the need to seek additional resources and ancillary staff support for these children, and to consult with advisory agencies outside the school on these children's behalf were referred to in this policy. Only Titoki school with a 'special needs' policy, accepted written responsibility for providing financial support:

> The board of trustees will endeavour to make funds available to develop and implement programmes for special needs children. (S5/Policies)

Although it was not written into the policy statement, the board of trustees of Miro school with an equity policy covered the extra expenses required for a child with a disability, until such time as the Ministry of Education was able to provide discretionary hours. Rata school, in its policy on children with special needs, provided details of where the funding would come from to support the implementation of individual education plans. The sources suggested were the operations grants, special needs funding and discretionary funding from the Ministry of Education. Nikau school was able to add equity funding to this source of finance because of socio-economic factors associated with the school. The details of these policies were broad. They recognised that extra resources would be needed to meet the equity issues and stated where the funding would come from. While some funding came from school sources, greater emphasis was placed on receiving resources and support from government sources.

A policy on 'mainstreaming' was used by only one school, Karo, which claimed to have an "open policy towards all children in the community". This school actively

encouraged the inclusion of children with special needs into regular classrooms with their peers, with an emphasis on age related placement of children. All the aspects to be found in the equity policies and special needs policies of the other schools were covered, but in greater detail. School policy included sections on the variable time children may attend school which was determined by: the child's condition; hygiene facilities; inservice training for staff; and the use of adaptive equipment for the children. With these three policies: -equity (Titoki, Miro); special needs (Nikau, Rata); and 'mainstreaming' (Karo), the policy guidelines became more detailed as the targeted population gained greater recognition.

7.2.3 Other relevant policies. These included: teacher development; communication with parents; and the curriculum. Although policy writing in this area had not been completed, observation in the schools indicated that they took a very specific approach to staff development with respect to teachers requiring additional skills in special needs areas. This was not recorded in written policy, but as enacted policy. As a teacher required expertise for a particular problem, an appropriate source of expertise was found. Most frequently this request was teacher driven, supported by the principal and frequently recommended by a specialist adviser.

The curriculum policy allowed Karo school to "acknowledge diversity amongst their children". This school had a 'mainstreaming' policy and strongly emphasised the uniqueness of every child by offering a system of setting up an IEP, for any child "whose needs have been identified by a parent or teacher". The curriculum policy reaffirmed the school's acknowledgment of equity. Later, this same school set up a system whereby the community and the parents were to participate "in the development, review and evaluation of the school curriculum". This recognised one of the school's basic philosophies:

> Parents are equal partners in their child's education. (S1/Policy)

The principal of Karo stated he would like to develop the relationship experienced with parents of children with special educational needs, with all the parents in the school. Although all the schools had an 'open door' policy for parents, some schools had their door open wider than others. Titoki and Rata schools welcomed very close and frequent parent-school contact, while Miro showed this more particularly in the area of the resource centre. Rata, Titoki and Karo schools, which noted this close parental contact in policy and reality, were also the schools which openly embraced the diversity of their student population. The partnership, which parents of children with special needs commented on, included their ease in communicating with these schools,

and it played a very important role in the support they received. This was obvious with those schools which had formally addressed the issue of parental partnership in their charters and policies.

In all the schools the policies in place referred to equity and equal rights and opportunities. The meeting of these obligations involved consultation with parents, with specialist agencies, and the need to seek additional resources and support from outside the school. The success with which the various schools actualised these goals and objectives was closely related to the recognition of the specific nature of inclusion. The more the schools individualised and acknowledged their documented reference to inclusion, the more transparent the reality of the process became. Policy writing became the responsibility of those regarded as the 'specialists' in the school, the principals and the staff. The exception, however, was the school environment, for which boards of trustees took responsibility for writing policy.

7.3 The School Environment

While schools presented their attitudes and values on inclusion to the community in written form in their charters and policies, a further acknowledgment of their stance was seen in the physical preparation of the environment of the school. While the patterns of attitude to children with special educational needs in each school remained constant in charter preparation and policy writing, the age and architecture of the school influenced what preparations were needed and how they were actioned.

7.3.1 The external school environment. Changes to the external school environment are associated with the enrolment and placement of many children with special educational needs. According to a Ministry of Education official, although parents may enrol their child at the school of their choice this does not give them the right to demand alteration to the school property in the form of such matters as toilet block provisions or installation of ramps (personal communication, Ministry of Education, May 1994). The present government policy was stated to be one which considers every 'case' from an individual viewpoint. However, if there was a school with the necessary facilities within a 'reasonable' distance, the parent would be advised to take their child to that school with transport by either bus or parent's car and reimbursement of costs. The official was not able to provide a definition of what constituted a 'reasonable' distance. There was also no comment on the ambiguity to be found in the right to enrol at the school of the parent's choice and the 'reasonable' distance statement.

As reported in Chapter 3, there are two acts of parliament which have immediate relevance to the inclusion of those with disabilities in a school environment. Firstly, the Disabled Person's Community Welfare Act, 1975 (section 25) which concerns access to and facilities at premises open to the public (educational and cultural) institutions, including schools. Any provision that was made in accordance with the code of practice for access by handicapped persons was deemed to be a reasonable and adequate provision. Secondly, the Building Act, 1991 (section 38) is important in the integration of children with special educational needs in the school environment, because it has relevance to the granting of building consent for alterations to buildings. The building plans must comply with the same provisions of access and facilities for use by people with disability as demanded in the Disabled Person's Welfare Act, 1975. As many schools throughout New Zealand are at a stage of their useable life where alterations are being considered, the Building Act, 1991 is very relevant. These Acts are relevant to changes made both to the schools' external and internal environments to accommodate children with special educational needs.

The school environment was considered a reflection of the school culture and was considered to show in a very broad way, how there had been physical accommodation to the ideology of inclusion. Three elements were considered essential by boards of trustees, principals, teachers and teachers aides to ensure ease of movement and management of children with special needs in their school environment. These were safety, assuring mobility and encouraging independence. The teachers noted their experiences with adapting their classroom organisation to the structure of their rooms in considerable detail, while the trustees respondents who represented the children with special educational needs in their schools reflected on the external school environment. This section will consider firstly, who was responsible for environmental preparation and how that responsibility was met. Secondly, the effect on the school of expensive facilities that are associated with resource centres, including toilet and changing blocks was considered. Thirdly, incidental areas of concern over the environment which are generally associated with reality construction will be discussed.

The main issue with regard to environmental factors was the frustration that was expressed in regard to the government's involvement in the school environment where inclusion was occurring. A board of trustees' respondent from Nikau summed up the feelings which arose when she considered actioning decisions:

> The school is still going to the Ministry of Education. It just means that that is a different title to say we have to do ramps. I'd like to be able to have money available in the budget to be able to spend at your own discretion rather than wait for 3 months for the Ministry to make up their mind. (S3/B1)

The general impression gained was that the principals were responsible for dialogue with the Ministry when alterations required funds, while the trustee members considered changes to the external environment which were not basic necessities. The principals spoke with considerable feeling about their task of gaining facilities for the school. A board of trustees' respondent from Nikau school expressed feelings of powerlessness, which she illustrated with comments which stated that the government had placed schools in the position they were in, and that they had no role to play. This was one time of many that was noted during fieldwork, that the trustee members and professional staff held the same views as their principal. In Nikau school, the principal was adamant that it was the government's responsibility to provide facilities and he would not action a need until the funding had arrived. The frustration felt by a trustee member at this school was obvious:

> I actually said at the last board meeting that I would like to write a letter to the Ministry to complain that a ramp had not been built for a child with special needs, and it was suggested that it wasn't done and I thought "Oh! well". (S3/ B1)

The responsibility for achieving various alterations was attributed by a board of trustees' respondent to the principal of Nikau school, even though the widening of doors, provision of toilet facilities for the disabled and ramps to the administrative block had been done during the refurbishment programme in consultation with the Ministry. This indicated that the boards of trustees were not knowledgeable about the legislation pertaining to those with disabilities in the community. In this school two board of trustees' members stated what had been achieved over time in their school, but they did not indicate that this was the result of their concern or organisation.

It was the time factor in gaining financial support which proved frustrating in several instances. The principal of Miro school described his experience:

> We tried to look and see what the problems were and at that stage we didn't like too many changes and one of the things recommended by the Ministry of Education at the time was ramps. It took forever for the money to come through for them and it has only just been done this year. They didn't come to the party when they should have. (S2/P1)

While the time it took to get ramps set up in some schools was a frustrating feature, other professionals had different concerns. These concerns indicated a lack of trust in

future government planning. There was some apprehension shown by staff at Miro over the installation of facilities in the school where there appeared at that time to be no need for such facilities. A teacher voiced her opinion concerning the building of ramps in a school, where there were no pupils who required a ramp at that time:

> Basically we have been told by the Ministry of Education, "This is what you spend your money on and if you don't spend it by the end of June, we'll withdraw the money". Then of course word gets around that [a certain] school is a good one, they have ramps at every doorway and in the end you end up with all of them. [Children with physical disabilities] need to be spread around.(S2/ T8)

This concern was also expressed by a teacher at Karo school when it was found that they were receiving facilities in excess of their perceived need:

> Will [the school] end up as a special needs school because they have all the equipment and all the resources they need there and they have been set up to accommodate special needs children? Presumably everyone around the district who has a special needs child will be told that is where they should go to school. What happens when they get too many? (S1/ PT3)

During the period spent observing in the schools, the deputy principal commented on the re-direction of pupils to an appropriate unit, being made for financial reasons:

> We have a building costing $30,000 out there. If a parent wants to take their child to a school along the road do they get redirected here because we have the building? (S1/T1)

These fears expressed by the professional staff at Karo and Miro schools over the facilities which were in place, were discussed in relation to student numbers and the natural balance of inclusion in the school community. While apprehension was obvious in schools like Karo, where the presence of facilities was affecting enrolment and placement, a resource centre for the visually impaired in the grounds of Miro school tended to dominate the responses in a different way. In this school environment most references were made to the disability associated with that unit, even though there were children with other forms of disability enrolled at the school. This resulted in a marginalisation of the minority group in the school. For the children who were acknowledged, staff had been responsible for identifying certain frequently used routes in the school environment. This indicated decision-making at the most personal level of policy enactment, as staff and peers had had to become aware of placing equipment and facilities in the same place and not changing their position. This decision meant that any mobile fixtures were fixed in position so the environment would not change from day to day.

> So most of the benches would be fixed so that they wouldn't be piled up on the walk ways or obstructing the walkways, which was a bit of a danger. (S2/B1)

Practically all the teachers in Miro school were aware of the manner in which the school had addressed the issue of independent movement around the school for the children who were visually impaired, and commented on it in their interviews:

> There is the painting and sanding of the rails so that the children could find their way independently to the VRC and the front office along this marked path.(S2/ T/A3)

> Last year we brailled their names and had their coat hooks at the very end, so they could go straight to them without having to find them. The other children don't have a specific place to hang their bags. (S2/ T6)

The teachers demonstrated they were extremely sensitive to possible 'traps' for children who were visually impaired, and spent time discussing the problems and trying to put themselves in their pupils' place to make themselves more aware:

> I think it would make a difference if there were no poles around this school for [the children]. Having verandahs without poles. The way the concrete is around here with little steps that aren't steps at all but just enough to trip on. It strikes me that's ridiculous. (S2/T6)

> This demonstrated that attempting to anticipate problems for some children with disabilities was not easy.

These concerns also illustrated how a specialist centre could dominate the responses and possibly the direction of policy in a school. However, in the discussions on general facilities or specific changes appropriate to selected pupils, the careful and reasoned introduction of changes was recommended by one principal:

> You have to keep a sensible balance about it because if you have an over-protective environment here for them, when they are out in the real world it doesn't always happen. So you have to be a little bit careful about our over-protecting the children.

Incidental comments concerning environmental issues provided an example of how people construct their realities according to both intimate and different knowledge. The principals of Rata and Karo schools were concerned with the positioning of the ramps and their existence at the back of the school. These were two schools where the individuality of the child was paramount and equity issues were actualised. While the principal of Karo school described the ramp situation as "horrific", they both expressed concerns of emphasising difference:

> What you are saying is that you are a second class citizen. So we now have a ramp on the front of the school as well. What you are saying is that

> all the other children have to come in the front door but these people have to use the back door. (S4/P1)
>
> Actually one thing that makes me wonder a bit [is that] they cannot go out the front of the school. The only way out is the back of the school. Psychologically they are always coming around the back. It is just one of my idiosyncrasies. (S1/P1)

When a trustee member from Rata school was questioned on the position of the ramp, a different viewpoint was offered:

> OK, that ramp is at the back so that it is right near the car park as well. So that if they are coming in the car then they [are at the ramp]. In everyday thinking you don't sort of think about it at all. (S4/B1)

The parents who discussed environmental issues were far sighted in their reasoning because having experienced inclusion, they desired its continuance. A parent from Karo school was looking to the inclusion of children with special needs from primary schools into more advanced educational institutions. According to this parent, schools needed to be preparing for the progression of children through the education system:

> You have to be wary when you see high schools doing alterations and not incorporating ramps into their facilities. To me that is definitely 'head in the sand' stuff. (S1/ PT2)

This first section has been concerned with the gaining of, and responsibility for environmental preparation. The discussion has indicated how decision-making at Ministry of Education level was slow and frustrating for those in governance in the schools. The reaction to this was closely related to the leadership style of the respective principals, however, one other factor has now become apparent in the responses and that is the form that educational or developmental need takes. The generalisations of the management of equity issues in charters and policies have become more personal in content. Therefore, where schools have become expert or 'special' in certain areas of disability, those areas dominate responses and observations. The next section will take this consideration further in the consideration of movement, safety and independence in the school environment.

During fieldwork in the schools it was apparent that the success of inclusion could be noted during the unsupervised periods of the school day, when the children were at play. At this time the many aspects of learning, independence, safety and environmental organisation essential for inclusive practice came together in the playground. The playground was regarded as part of the external school environment in some schools, but at Rata and Miro schools the playground experience had become very specialised and was an integral part of the school learning experience for *all*

children. Safety was the priority in the discussion with the board of trustee respondents on playground development:

> I think things were just made safe generally for all children and because you have such small ones, you plan at that level. (S4/B1)

> We spent time on mobility in that new playground particularly for the children who were blind. We had hand rails and a railing and there was a circular path so that there was a way on and a way off that was appropriate to their needs. (S2/B1)

The Miro school principal described the development of the new playground which became a joint project between the school and the city council, as the school adjoined a city council park:

> There were aspects of the playground when it was erected that meant that the needs of *all* the children were taken into consideration. (S2/P1)

The principal of Rata had also placed an emphasis on the design of his school's adventure playground being for *all* the children regardless of disability. A teacher from this school explained:

> The adventure playground has been designed to allow all children who wish to use it. Everything is within reach. Even [a child with a physical disability] can climb up the tower. (S4/ TA1)

This was inclusion in action and it was a teacher of the visually impaired children who described the actual learning skills required by the children, so they could use the playground safely.

> When the new playground is finished in three weeks, we are going to be working out in the playground learning it. Learning how it goes and learning where everything is. You can't think of two children at the expense of the other 265. The playground needed to go up and it needed to be at a height of the majority of the children and [the children with special needs] just have to learn. It is going to be a fact of life. (S2/ T8)

This teacher described how the additional material would be used to indicate head height and provide other safety warnings for the children with visual impairment. Their minority status had unwittingly been commented on. For those children who were included in the school community the test for the researcher was the ease with which, in spite of mechanical aids in some instances, it was possible to find these children in social interaction with their peers.

While the ethos and policies of the schools indicated inclusion in practice, the physical layout of some schools lent itself to this philosophy more than others. In looking at independence, movement and safety for children within the school community, there

were factors clearly linked to the age of the school and the type of school building in vogue at the time. One difficulty noted during fieldwork was the children's progression through the school year by year, where invariably the children using wheelchairs were placed in less suitable classrooms: This had particular relevance for Karo school where access to toilet facilities, fixed ramps which did not always allow the shortest route to be used, and the lack of covered walkways added to logistical organisation. A parent stated there had been a difference of opinion at the school over some of these issues:

> We were wanting walkways covered because these children were going from real warm rooms down to freezing cold ones, to go and get changed on the other side. We tried to get the 'pod' moved, but the board of trustees only have limited money and they don't want to spend it. (S1/ P1)

With age appropriate education recognised as important in the implementation of inclusion in Karo school, some of the children were placed in classrooms which were neither convenient nor in close proximity to the purpose built facilities. But not all problems at this historic school were as major as this and sometimes it was something as simple as requiring doors which were on springs to be held open. Such an occurrence required accommodation by both teachers and peers.

Considerable thought had gone into the safety, mobility and independence factors when the schools had prepared their environment to include children with special educational needs. These changes were based on the individual needs of specific children. Rata, Miro, and Karo had gone to considerable lengths to meet the needs of their children. In contrast, Nikau had made a political point and inconvenienced a child by waiting for the Ministry of Education to provide the finances for a ramp.

The internal school environment was a different issue because little could be done to change the pre-existing buildings, and teachers had to axxept the situation.

7.3.2 The internal school environment. The teachers of all the schools were very articulate about their inner school environment, because they were speaking from their personal experience of managing children and were not interested in the political aspects of funding in their discussions. As was to occur many times in this study, when working at this personal level the issues that the staff referred to became very similar throughout all the schools. In this situation it was the differences in school architecture and disabilities which provided the variations. Mobility within the school buildings between classrooms, as well as the use of the space within classrooms and the need to meet individual children's very specific needs are referred

to in this section. Space to accommodate children, particularly in wheelchairs, with crutches or with callipers, was an issue mentioned by professionals in four of the schools. The Ministry of Education property manager gave reassurance that refurbishment of schools was going ahead and all those schools completed over recent years had taken into account the historical architecture which left schools managing with small confining classrooms, narrow doors, numerous small steps and no lifts (personal communication, May 1994).

The average number of children in the classrooms in this study was between 33 and 37. Principals from four schools and many of the teachers commented on the number of children in the classrooms. Because of the design of many classrooms, it was not very easy for some of the children, especially those with physical disabilities, to manipulate themselves around the classrooms. The actual physical size of a room became important to the comfort and organisation of everyone. The change in the style of the classroom management made difficulties for the children with special educational needs, according to the principal of Titoki:

> The classrooms were designed for children in desks. They were not designed for children who move around all the time, who do developmental programmes, who have to go and get resource materials in order to get answers and so on. So they weren't designed for today. (S5/P1)

The concern expressed by many professional staff was the difficulty of organising a classroom on present educational practices, in classrooms designed for another age.

The concept of space, although a problem in the primary schools, became more of an issue as the pupils matured. By intermediate school the "children are adult size people who you expect to work in a calm, sociable sort of environment", but the crowded classrooms were not considered conducive to this state. The child with callipers, crutches or a wheelchair faced additional problems in this environment.

The presence of architectural divisions and poles in classrooms frequently hindered children with physical aids like wheelchairs, crutches and callipers. While observing in Karo school, frequent recordings were made of the difficulties that classroom design made to the problems of pupil-teacher mobility:

> [The child] manoeuvres her wheelchair through a mass of children lying on the floor writing and doesn't touch one of them. Superlative skill at driving. (FN/ S1)

> [The child] experiences difficulty getting out into the 'wet area' because the wheelchair can't get through the space between the pole and the whiteboard. (FN/ S1)

The solution the teacher in this classroom suggested was a bigger room, although it was the structural features which made the room unsuitable. Keeping furniture to a minimum alleviated the difficulties but gave fewer options to the peers. Flexibility had to be demonstrated by the staff as they changed rooms yearly, and each year they rearranged everything, to accommodate the children with special educational needs in their classroom. Even though teachers often tried to meet their children's social and personal needs the logistics often proved impossible, and a practical solution was eventually chosen. This solution however, was often not the best one in the child's social interests:

> She had decided that she would sit there but then I had to change it because she would block the children moving about. So I said, "I'm sorry you have to sit over there". (S1/T5)

Another feature of Karo school which distressed some staff, was that their inclusive pupils with severe physical disabilities could not go to the staff room. Neither, it was pointed out, could they employ a staff member who used a wheelchair. They could not meet the requirements of the Building Act, 1991 without resiting the staff room. It meant that if a specific child could not come and get assistance or deliver a message, then someone had to do it for that child and that did not promote independence:

> I wonder about a child who has a motorised wheelchair and who was capable of coming to the staff room door at a normal school, when they need help. They couldn't possibly do it in our school. (S1/T1)

Field notes reveal frequent recordings of management of wheelchairs in association with class size:

> [The child] is placed at the back of the group. Because of the size of the group, that must be her position. (F/N S1)

> Itinerant teacher trying to position the wheelchair at table for [the child] because she now has no place to fit under of the right height. Finally goes to teacher's table. (F/N S1)

Whereas space in relationship to mobility was important in the minds of teachers, so was the association of space and safety. The main consideration given in all the schools regarding safety concerned fire regulations and maintaining clear exits and access for all children, especially when mobility was a difficulty. In many situations this was once again related to the classroom and class size:

> We had been up to 37 and it is not a big room. The teacher aide was always very aware of it and she didn't try to take up too much space because they do take up a lot of space when they are lying on the floor. There were a few fears, such as they would jump over the top of them. (S1/ T3)

In Rata school, the management of the classroom to include a child with a physical disability and movement difficulties became a classroom responsibility, as the difficulty was brought down to a personal level. Often when the children with motor disabilities were tired or unwell, they also became clumsy, and under the teacher's supervision the peers ensured adequate access.

During fieldwork in Karo school the difficulties of having frail and vulnerable children were demonstrated. A child had a wheelchair which lowered her to the floor for 'mat activities' and made her very prone to the fear of being accidentally tripped over. The itinerant teacher often checked her classmates:

> Please do not walk over the front of [the child's] legs because her legs could break very easily. You may trip. You must walk around. (S1/ IT1)

An incident was recorded during observations in this school:

> [A child] climbs over [the child's] wheelchair. She flinches as she is at mat level with other children. (FN/ S1)

Another individual problem for the teachers of a child at Karo school was the inability of a certain child to remember to put her crutches in a designated area, for everyone's safety and protection. In an open plan classroom with 60 children this became an issue of safety. Frequent observations were recorded indicating that in spite of the staff putting a great deal of effort into this particular skill, it was to little avail, as three separate entries indicate:

> Crutches left in middle of floor in midst of kids.
> Leaves crutches in spite of 3 prompts.
> "Put it away". Itinerant teacher gives [the child] the crutch. (FN/ S1)

The daily responsibilities and frustrations at classroom level have been illustrated, but because Karo school had positively actioned inclusion the staff and peers managed the situation, in spite of their having to accommodate to possibly the most difficult physical environment of all the schools.

The accommodation of the professional staff to inclusive practices in difficult surroundings also became apparent during the fieldwork in Nikau school. As the children matured and diversified their academic options, teachers and children found

themselves in situations which had never been adequately thought through for everyone's convenience and safety. Technicraft classes in this school stretched the classroom facilities to their limits, and placed considerable pressure on the teacher:

> Trying to get a wheelchair around the units is not safe at all, it is hopeless and if they are actually trying to do things they are reaching up. It is too dangerous. You are a nervous wreck by the time they get in and out and you say "thank goodness that lesson is over". (S3/T9)

Because of the use of machinery other technicraft teachers were required to maintain safety codes, therefore precautions were taken, the routines were set in place and the children worked around them. These individual classroom needs included the use of specifically designed or organised furniture and ramps for certain activities. Technicraft provided difficulties for most teachers in this subject area and generally it was with the special furniture required for accommodating a wheelchair. Several teachers commented on having had a special table in their room just high enough for a wheelchair to go under. Frequently, these special pieces of furniture had been made within the school and by school design. A specialist teacher at this same school referred to the management of a table which they had in the classroom for a child:

> Someone was delegated to bring it each time the students moved. It took quite a time to get organised, I can tell you. They would get here and suddenly realise the table wasn't here and a couple of them would dash back to get it. It was all time consuming. (S3/T11)

Again, the actioning of inclusive practices from an environmental viewpoint at classroom level involved personal decision-making, direction, and interaction. Safety factors were also a top priority with children with visual impairment at Miro school. Consistency in all things was considered important when assisting mobility, because it limited the unknown factors the children were required to deal with. Two teachers explained their philosophy:

> Inside the classroom I never change anything around. Never. Consistency is the main thing. (S2/T8)

> Having things sticking out in the classroom [was dangerous]. We had to modify things poking out, especially things with sharp corners that were just head height. (S2/T6)

While space discussed from the viewpoint of safety, mobility and comfort has relevance to all children, there was one other consideration which was very important to certain teachers and their particular children. There was a need for withdrawal areas to take some children out to, for group learning. All the schools, with the support of their boards of trustees, had found solutions to the problem and the answers to this issue demonstrated the re-use of existing space, to meet the changing educational

needs. Cloak bays, toilet areas and storage rooms were carpeted and furnished to make withdrawal space so that as a teacher explained, she could bring 3 or 4 children around her for small group sessions:

> It wasn't done specially for them but it was there because of a desperate need for more space to be made for some children who get too distracted with other children and really can't cope with the activity and the noise level. So they must be taken out. (S5,T3)

This was an example of the way schools, and boards of trustees in particular, could meet the special needs of their children when required to do so.

This section on the setting up of the environment for children with special educational needs, highlighted the specific nature of many of the problems that the schools were facing. While in many situations the preparation demanded funding support of a political nature, there were considerable areas where decision-making at the personal level of the classroom was required. The need to introduce changes cautiously, with careful reasoning has been recognised in connection with the external environment.

7.4 Summary and Discussion

For the schools in this study the Background Phase of the change process towards inclusion was considered to be a period of preparation. If inclusion, as a 'values' and 'moral issue', was to be tested within the school's culture, then the manner in which the children with special educational needs were recognised in documentation and physical preparedness was important. In analysing the thrust of the school's philosophy in action towards inclusion, it has been impossible to separate the cultural values and economics of this period. The theory of educational change as constructed by the micro-theorist Fullan (1991), has taken the reality construction approach into the realm of education and has shown how values, the belief system and economics have influenced decision-making and action in change. However, the strategies of change described by Chin and Benne (1964), developed from Weber, and more directly Etzioni are pertinent in describing the attitude of many persons involved in this study to the government in general, and the Ministry of Education in particular. These approaches were used in the present study to understand how the governance and management aspects of the school were influenced, in the preparation of the school ethos and the environment for children with special educational needs.

The intention of this part of the study was to determine the commitment that each of the schools had towards inclusion by looking in detail at two aspects of the school.

Firstly, the way in which the school presented itself to the parents, the community and teachers or teachers aides who wished to join the staff. An analysis of the policies associated with equity and equality as expressed in the school charter illustrated this aspect. Secondly, the perceptions of the principals, professional staff, representatives of the boards of trustees, and parents were examined with regard to changes which have been made in the external and internal environment of the school to allow for the inclusion of children with special educational needs. It became obvious very early in the study that schools varied considerably in certain areas of charter and policy writing, and in preparing their environment. These differences revolved around the reaction to the introduction of administrative reforms and in particularly the charter development, the leadership style of the principal, the physical layout of the school and the differing disabilities that the children presented with.

Some environmental alterations had occurred to meet the needs of a few individual students who had been integrated prior to the legislation. The overall impact of the school approaches to these alterations was in accord with the findings of Moltzen and Mitchell (1992), that the preparation "appear[ed] to be more reactive than proactive" (p.53). Generally, the reasons for this were involved with the individual needs which each child brought to the school, associated with the financial arrangements with the Ministry of Education for funds to provide facilities. This section gives a summation of way in which the schools provided acknowledgment of these children, in their documentation and environmental preparation. Table 7.1 shows a summarised comparison between the schools on their background preparation for inclusion.

1. The schools approached the recognition of their children with special educational needs in their own individual manner. According to Hall and McGee this adaptation of the charters to the schools' purposes demonstrated a degree of ownership (1991, p.53) and it showed something of the schools' values and cultures. The compulsory equity clause in charters, which provided the framework for meeting the individual needs of children regardless of ability or disability, was taken into charters as directed. Schools complied with the demands placed on them because these clauses were compulsory and manipulation in the form of withholding funding was used by the Ministry of Education to achieve the completion of charter documents.

For the first time in this study the division between those in the policy making arena of power and those in the schools actioning the plans was demonstrated (Figure 4.1). This illustrated the power-coercive strategy of Chin and Benne (1964). These theorists stated that power is exercised by the use of political and economic sanctions. The

Schools	Karo (1)	Miro (2)	Nikau (3)	Rata (4)	Titoki (5)
Charters	Individual approach found in mission statement, social goals and school description	Equity issues underpin all activities Builds on needs, enhances learning and respects dignity	Wide definition of special needs Equity clauses accepted but strongly dependent on economic factors	Individual and 'whole child' approach	Rights mentioned and individuality
Policies	'Mainstreaming' Emphasis on diversity in curriculum policy	Equity with a specific section on students with special needs	Equity Children with special needs Communication with parents	Children with special needs - emphasis on reaching full potential Staff development Reporting to parents	Equity in teaching and learning programmes Equity of access to physical resources Special needs, high ability children and those experiencing difficulty in learning
Environment	Facilities in place Ministry directing children to school Concern expressed over becoming a local 'special school' Historic architecture	Resource centre on campus Concern expressed over the number of children clustering around facility Open plan school	Strong expectation and dependency on government provision of facilities Modern school (30+ years old)	Prepared to accept all children but facilities limited Mixed historic architecture and modern school	Special units on campus Modern school (30+ years old)

Table 7.1 **Summary of Background Phase**

government has maintained considerable control over the financial provisions for special education and this political power is witnessed in the need for schools to make application for the limited resources for individual children. Some schools, such as Karo, attempted to place ownership on their charters by adding aims driven by their school cultures and to address the individuality of their children. However, other schools, such as Titoki, placed 'let-out' clauses in their charter to ensure they would not be accused of non-compliance. The argument of interest here, was whether the schools were truly facing the equity issue by which it was understood that some children would require additional resources in order to experience the same school life style as their classmates. It appeared that the extra finance required to meet the equity demands was to come from successful applications to the Ministry of Education. The care expressed in statements in charters and policy documents indicated a cautious approach to this balance between the children's needs and the provision of resources, programmes and facilities, tempered by financial considerations. This implied that the schools were willing to take a degree of responsibility but they would not become carried away by their ideals and values because the 'bottom line' was a financial consideration.

2. The value placed by the schools, on the individuality of children was important and was included in the mission statements, the descriptions of the school, and the general or local goals. It was the degree of this formal recognition of the individuality or uniqueness of children which was a central point in the acceptance of inclusion by the schools. Only one school, Karo, openly recognised that inclusion was occurring in their school and considered it part of their school culture. Titoki School, by the presence of several special units on the grounds, suggested an empathy to children with special educational needs. Miro school, which had a resource centre on campus, demonstrated the acceptance of disability in their community but by having to meet legislated requirements of separate management committees had an additional 'separateness' placed on them, not of their making. This was demonstrated by the greater recognition placed on the children who were in contact with the resource centre, than on those without that association. The special educational needs of the gifted or talented were very much to the fore in all the schools, and this aspect of education was considered in need of attention by the number of references made to it during the course of the research.

The acceptance of the differences or uniqueness of children provided an uncomfortable aspect to 'special needs', as political correctness was addressed and a determined effort was made to not label children. However, by denying a label, some

professionals considered that children were missing out on help. There were two schools, Nikau and Miro, where children with special educational needs became a minority within the school and their existence almost denied. The first situation was when the avoidance of labelling children was taken to an extreme. This could be recognised by the statement "all our children are special" or "they are just another student". This was apparent in a preliminary interview when the principal of Nikau stated, "we have no children you would be interested in here, we have no special needs children". The second situation was in the presence of special units or classes or a resource centre, when children associated with these facilities became 'special' and other children with special needs in the school appeared to be marginalised. This particular issue placed an emphasis on the difficulty of defining the population and allocating limited resources with equity and equality. The principals and staff found it difficult to write policy and outline goals and objectives for their schools with equity in mind, when they felt insecure over financial support.

3. The ease with which professional staff dealt with the issues of special educational needs was closely allied to the school culture and the leadership that guided it. It was apparent that leadership and vision building were considered crucial for successful change to occur, and this was demonstrated in the following way. The more specific the references in the charter and policy documents were to those with special educational needs, the more likely was the legitimation of inclusion. Where there was no designated area of the charter related to special educational needs or the approach was general and broadly accepted that children would receive the best possible education according to their needs, the entitlement of services and support was implied. The result of these uncertainties can perhaps be seen in a recent survey where Wyllie (1994) reported that "if schools did not show interest in addressing the issues of equity and improving the educational achievement in the early flush of the changes, they were unlikely to start doing so now, left to their own devices" (Wyllie, 1994, p.103). This could be the result of the denial of the existence of many of these children as the avoidance of labelling has become an accepted norm, or it could be that the governance aspect of the schools does not routinely revisit the area of special needs.

Although there was empathy and open acceptance of children with special educational needs, schools considered that they were only able to provide services based on their funding criteria. This outlook influenced decision-making in schools and made it important to discover who was preparing the documents, which contained so much restraint.

4. As the boards of trustees provided the governance of the school, they were presumably responsible for the preparation of policies on children with special educational needs. This was not the case with four schools, where the writing of policies had been school directed, with the principals and staff who were regarded as experts being largely responsible for this task. The definition of special educational needs varied, according to the culture of the school, and the responses indicated there was a widespread concern for the children with considerable ability in the schools. The policies of equity or special needs were generally written later in the policy writing period, after those which were applicable in general school usage. In Nikau school the policy was written as children began to draw on services and it became imperative to make a statement of intentions. Policies which had an association with the provision of services to children with special educational needs included curriculum development, staff development and parent communication. While professional attributes guided the writing of policy at governance level, it was decision-making at the personal level which counteracted the realities of financial considerations.

5. The boards of trustees' respondents indicated that they did not feel that they had the power to play a major role in making policy and requesting facilities for their children with special educational needs. Although the responsibility for governance of the school theoretically gave them this role, the government decision-making, activated through the Ministry of Education and the principal's role of requesting funding and negotiating with the Ministry, left the trustees feeling this specialist area was one they should understand but not necessarily be intricately involved in. A barrier between the schools and the regional Ministry of Education started to be intimated at this stage of the research. Where there was a management committee associated with a resource unit, the children represented by that committee appeared to be more visible in the school from a governance viewpoint. In spite of this organisational support, the principal maintained a position of expertise and decision-making power in the field of special needs.

6. The organisation of the external environment of the school was the responsibility of the boards of trustees, but generally the demands for facilities were in the end carried out by the principals in negotiation with the Ministry of Education. Attitudes varied concerning the funding and responsibility for this task. This was one area where the criticism of the government was strong with regard to inclusion and especially when there appeared to be a delay in getting the funding for required

facilities, such as ramps. According to many professional staff, the government had allowed integration to occur but had not backed the action with the necessary funding, and this was not acceptable. There was, however, little understanding voiced over knowledge of the legislation which outlined the government's legal obligations to schools, or the ongoing programme of alterations and updating of schools to meet building codes. Some schools were apparently having considerably more ease than others in gaining funding and facilities, and this was causing concern because the staff saw their school becoming known as 'the school' for special educational needs. As clustering of certain disabilities was occurring in the schools in the study it appeared that the concern was real. The factor of parental choice had added considerable weight to this happening, as shall be shown in the next chapter.

7. While the teachers were all aware of the external changes in the school environment which had been made to accommodate the children with special educational needs, it was the internal classroom which caused them greater concern. The teachers appreciated that inclusion had increased following legislation and that it had become a facet of their classroom life. They spoke of the lack of space and ease of movement of children as well as safety issues as basic everyday organisational factors which affected all their students. At times the children with special educational needs exacerbated their frustrations in this direction. Having to protect or guide a child who was frail, or had mechanical aids through a school day with up to 36 active children was considered a responsibility by the teachers, and an added stress. An 'open plan' school had definite advantages for both mobility and space. Hence space, the historical design of classrooms and class numbers were contextual difficulties to which professional staff felt the special educational needs of some children were added.

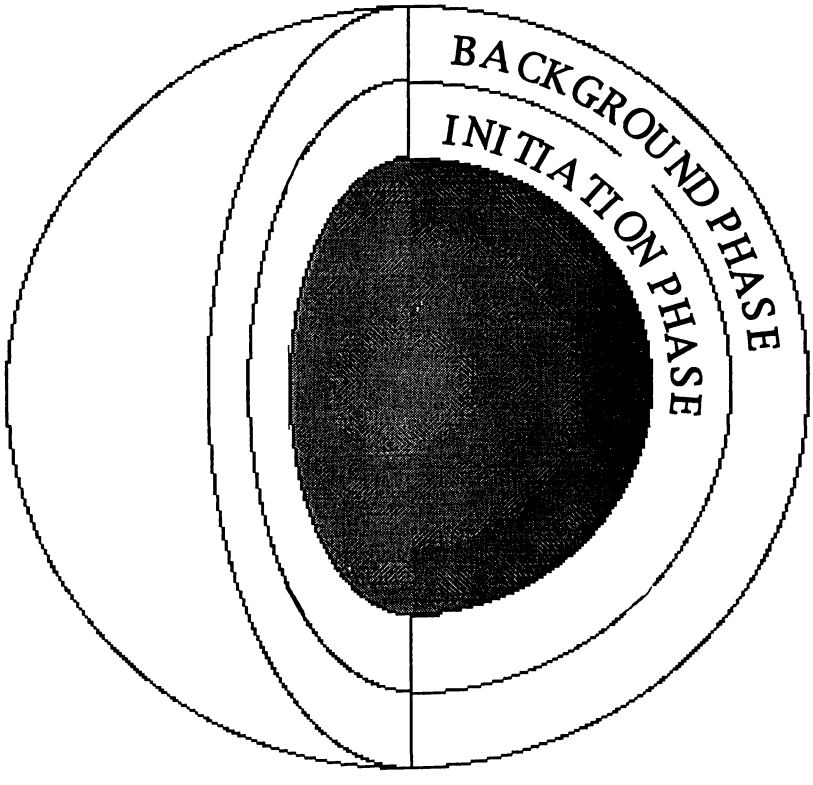
8. External changes to the schools like ramps and ablution blocks are the financial responsibility of the Ministry of Education, and for these to be realised took time. In contrast, there was considerable satisfaction in two schools where the new playgrounds had been installed with trustee input, decision-making and local body support. Three schools, Titoki, Rata and Nikau had developed withdrawal areas using their own plans. The difference in the attitude to these facilities may possibly be seen in the degree that decision-making and financial autonomy were experienced by the trustee members. When students commenced school without these facilities in place, in spite of assessments, recommendations, and considerable correspondence, professional staff became frustrated. With the withdrawal rooms and the playground facilities the boards of trustees moved rapidly and actioned their own decisions. The

results were very satisfying to those involved, as they considered they had met needs efficiently. The discussion on governance and management in Barrington (1992) referred to similar issues when he stated, "primary trustees invited to comment on positive aspects stemming from the changes were often willing and able to point to some specific new projects or developments which they saw as an outcome of greater governance autonomy" (Barrington, 1992, p.41).

This section on the background preparation for children with special educational needs as seen in governance and environmental factors, has highlighted several issues which will be further developed. These include the clustering of children with specific educational needs in certain schools, the effect of parental choice on the schools in the study, the effect of contextual factors on the integration of children with special educational needs, and the leadership role of the principal in gaining resources, funding and facilities. This section has also acknowledged that while all the schools were providing their individual approaches to inclusion based on their school cultures and the leadership traits of their principals, some schools were addressing inclusion openly and honestly, while other schools had accepted equity on their own terms. Chapter 8 will consider the next stage of the inclusion process, the Initiation Phase, when the child is enrolled in the school and is placed in the classroom. This next chapter will show how the words written in the school documents are tested, when inclusion is actioned at a more personal level of decision-making.

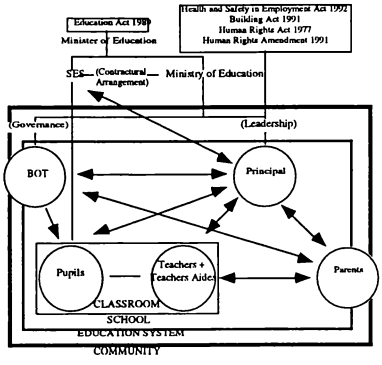
Chapter Eight

Initiation Phase



Synopsis

The enrolment of a child with special educational needs at a school sets in motion an individual train of events which commences with the activation of the meaning inherent in the school charters and policies. This chapter shows that while principals adhere to the legal demands of the Human Rights Act, 1993 and the Education Act, 1989 they impose their personal style of leadership on the enrolment procedure. Principals view two stages of entry for the child into the school community - enrolment and class placement. The former allows time to gain resources, while the second stage provides time for preparation at a personal level. This includes teacher consultation and peer preparation.



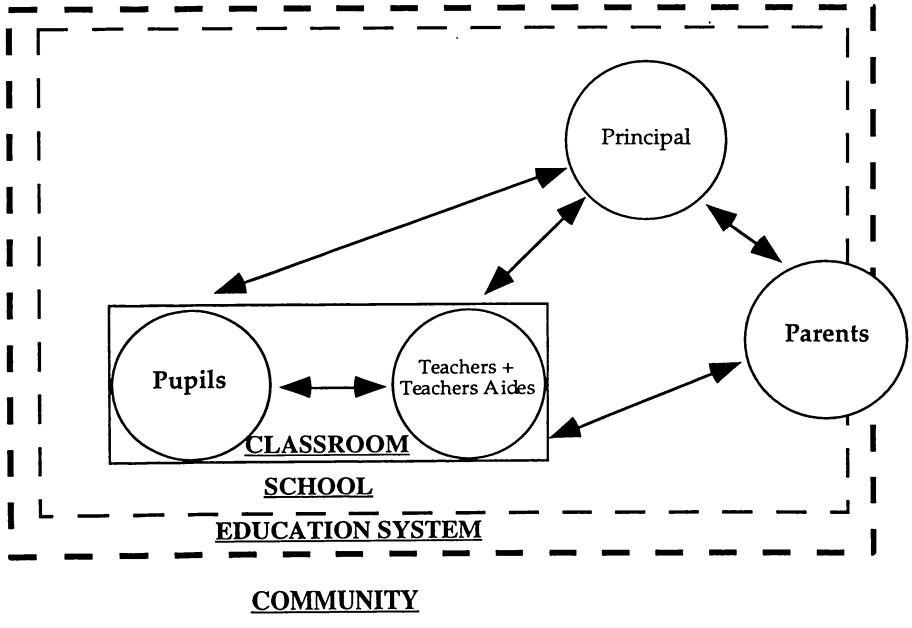


Fig. 8.1 **Initiation phase - enrolment, class placement and preparation of peers.**

8.0 Initiation Phase

The enrolment in a school of a child with special educational needs became a very important step for both the professional staff at the school of the parents' choice and for the child concerned. In the Background Phase schools documented their intentions with regard to children with special educational needs. Accepting that professional staff will react differently in the actioning of these intentions, the Initiation Phase describes how these children were introduced into the school community. At this phase of inclusion the equal rights to enrol and to receive education at state schools as legislated in the Education Act, 1989, were actioned. The Human Rights Act, 1993 provided a legal assurance against discrimination in this enrolment and entry phase.

From a theoretical stance, Chapter 7 indicated that persons involved in both governance and management of the schools in the study were reacting against the power-coercive strategy of the government. While this applied to the administrative reforms in general, the reactions overflowed and affected the approach taken by those involved in charter and policy writing. It is the opinion of the researcher that this association did a grave disservice to children with special educational needs. By the response from those persons involved in the governance and management in the schools, the Ministry of Education personnel took on a position of power and their decision-making had considerable effect on professional staff.

With this in mind, the point at which the school faced the actuality of inclusion with the parents seeking their child's right to education in a state school will now be considered. From the previous chapter, the factors which were shown to be important to this phase include: the schools' concern in recognising the individuality of their pupils; the form the special educational need takes; the reactions to the decision-making at the Ministry of Education level and the personal responses which occur, as persons involved in the school community construct their realities on the basis of their knowledge obtained from their various walks of life. The principals referred to two stages in the enrolment of a child: the actual act of enrolment and an entry stage, referred to here as class placement, when the child entered the classroom (section 8.2).

8.1 Enrolment

In discussing the implications of the Education Act, 1989, the professional staff generally agreed that all children were able to be enrolled at a primary or intermediate school, which was preferably their neighbourhood school, but was definitely the

school of the parent's choice. No school in this study had an enrolment scheme, defined as a policy developed by the school to prevent possible overcrowding and to protect the rights of children to attend the school within whose catchment area they live.

During the enrolment stage the parents came to the school and discussed the possibility of enrolling their child. In some cases, the schools had known in advance that certain children were going to be enrolled because of other siblings at the school, or because of contact with pre-school centres. These children tended to be those with physical or intellectual disability who were progressing through the education system. However, it was more likely for a child with emotional problems or demonstrating behavioural disturbances to arrive without any warning. When a child was presented for enrolment the school needed to go beyond its inclusive presentation, rhetoric and environmental preparation to the reality of the inclusion. This was a time of exploration of attitudes as the principal presented the reality of the substance of the charter and school policies, and parents investigated the genuineness of that presentation.

8.1.1 The principals' views on enrolment. The principals had their personal manner of managing the enrolment process, however three schools (Karo, Titoki and Miro) differentiated strongly between enrolment and admission to the school. These views were presented in the following manner by two principals:

> If a parent arrived at this school not having been to SES, not having sought any assistance my stock reply, and I have practised it, would be "Yes, by all means we will enrol your child and when we get facilities and support, then we will admit the child". (S5/P1)

> The only sort of 'proviso' we put on depends on whether you can actually admit a child. It depends on the amount of disability. There are two different issues: there is the enrolment situation and there is the admission of that child. (S2/P1)

The right of the parents to enrol their child at the school of their choice was accepted by most professional staff who participated in this study. That this right of enrolment was tempered by financial and personal influences was indicated by the principal of Nikau, who stated, "you can't turn them away" and then continued to explain:

> So therefore, I would enrol them but I would first of all inform them of what we have to offer and what we can try to get. "If I can't get these things, your child is most welcome to stay, but I am sorry I cannot deliver what I believe I should deliver, and what I believe your child is entitled to. It is not my fault that I haven't got those things". It is just not possible. (S3/ P1)

The principals all stated that they attempted to meet the needs of parents and children regarding admission into the school, but their responses indicated that in general, the meeting of equity responsibilities was outside their influence. The important issue was the gaining of entitlements from outside the school and that meant from the Ministry of Education. There were two approaches demonstrated in the transition between enrolment and admission. Three principals from Karo, Miro and Titoki schools enrolled the child and requested the parents give the school time to muster resources, whereas the principals of Rata and Nikau enrolled and admitted the child immediately. In the latter situation, the principals then started applying for funding to employ teachers aides and organise support services. There were personal difficulties however, like that of telling a parent that the school did not have the facilities to cope there and then. This led the principal of Rata school into personally caring for the child while resources were sought:

> This was a good learning experience for me and this is part of the policy. I actually got a teacher aide employed and all set up. (S4/P1)

According to the principal, this action caused some dismay amongst the staff who worried about coping with the inadequacies of the situation:

> In some cases teachers [were] a little anxious and they possibly thought I was mad changing kids' nappies but there were some messages in that. It was not a case of saying, "I am sorry we haven't got the resources to cope". (S4/P1)

During the first few days in this instance, a number of issues were talked through with the staff, the teacher aide and the public health nurse, as well as contact being made with the previous school. In this case, the support of the mother was essential and the school received it. The principal then went to the Ministry and explained the situation as it was and as it had been at the former school:

> We want this child to have a fulfilling life at this school; this is what we require. It was all dealt with in two days. In the first instance we didn't say. "I am sorry. We can't cope with this child" because all we were doing was putting up barriers and you don't want to do that. (S4/P1)

The speed of admitting a child to the school was not as important to the other three principals who preferred to ask, at the initial interview, for time to organise the resources. This course of action was justified, according to the principal of Karo, by his desire to have a "good pre-entry into school period" when the requirements for the particular child could be worked out:

> It is the shortest time possible but I think it is far better to start off that way than to come in and say, "Right your child is here but we haven't got the

> facilities". I think that puts everyone under stress. [You should] stand back and look at the whole situation to see what is important. (S1/P1)

There were considerations of the "present economic climate" to be taken into account, according to this principal, but he thought he was able to cater for the children provided he was given the time to organise resources. Because he valued the parents' views and considered that a shared partnership existed, this principal ensured they were always involved in the decision-making process.

In contrast, the admission of a child to Titoki school was referred to as 'conditional' on the disability and on the principal's opinion of the suitability of the child for inclusion. According to the principal the delay between enrolment and admission was justified as the child would be required to have an SES assessment prior to receiving support services. The suggestion was made that "if we did not have the facility and another school did then I would suggest [going to the other school]". However, in spite of the personal hesitation on the part of the principal, no parents had sought enrolment at this school *and* failed to have their child admitted.

The child's degree of disability appeared to be the reason for distinguishing between an enrolment and an admission stage, or the immediate acceptance of a child into the schools. It was considered that certain children "do not create difficulties", and there were some disabilities where the staff could not operate effectively without resources being in place. These were basic human resources like teachers aides to ensure the child was supervised all day, as well as able to participate in classroom activities. Children with extreme behavioural problems provided an example, of the type of educational need determining the manner in which enrolment and admission progressed. One principal whose staff became concerned had been asked, "Why did you let that child enrol in the school?" His reply was, "Look I have no option" which was a reference to the perceived coercive actions of the Ministry of Education. In these situations the time between enrolment and admission was spent checking the school records of children causing concern. One child who was reported as having aggressive characteristics was placed in a class with a teacher who was a mature woman. The principal checked with the previous school to see what this meant and received information that the child was "more verbally abusive". The principal reasoned that the teacher could handle the verbal abuse, but was apprehensive about putting staff and pupils at risk from a physically abusive child. The policy at Nikau school, however, was to give every child who desired to be at the school a chance:

> They are given a chance and if it is a behavioural problem the ground rules are laid down very firmly. If they are out of line we do have the right to

> say, "Look I am sorry but you are going to have to find another school". But in the long term if they cannot find another school, we are obliged to take them back of course. (S3/ DP2)

These children were referred to in Chapter 3 in relation to the Health and Safety in Employment Act, 1992, and the legal responsibility of the boards of trustees to provide a safe physical and emotional environment.

There was the occasional reference concerning the enrolment and eventual admission of some children to the schools which indicated uncertainty towards inclusion:

> It is fine that children should be able to be enrolled at any educational institute that they want. It is provisional on their needs being met. But some of them are better met in a different circumstance. (S3/ DP1)

This was demonstrated as plans were being made for the future educational placement of a child, when the parents and staff of the child's present school had visited Nikau school:

> There was one who was coming here next year. She was beyond our capabilities. She was better off in a special unit where there were people trained full time to deal with her; we couldn't have coped. It wasn't our school's decision she didn't come here. (S3/ DP1)

This staff member felt the issue was political as it involved money and resources, but it showed a not uncommon ambivalence to inclusion. In this situation, staff with appropriate expertise, the parents and the prospective pupil had visited the school and in spite of the school saying they were willing to enrol the student, the child went elsewhere. "Specific difficulties" would have occurred with her admission, it was stated, and the argument was that if the admission made difficulties for the staff, it would also have made them for the other students.

The rights of the parents to enrol their child has been discussed from the professional staff's viewpoint, with references to enrolment and admission being conditional on gaining funding and support, and related to the type of educational need or disability. The relationship of the attitudes of the principals to enrolment and the school documents has shown the similarities expected, considering the leadership they provided during the writing process. The parents provided a different set of expectations and the reality of their situation placed new light on the enrolment process. In the next section, descriptions given by parents of their visits to schools, and their evaluations of what they experienced will be reported.

8.1.2 The parents' views on enrolment. The parents spoke openly about the welcome and the acceptance they felt concerning their approaches to the schools, and on the reasons for their final decisions. While the principals expressed concern over the facilities and resources being in place, so that the children could manage and not be disadvantaged by inadequacies in the school support system, not all parents had confidence in this concern. The right to enrol was present, according to a parent from Karo school who was speaking generally, but the issue was whether anything happened after that:

> You have the right to enrol but it is really a whitewash as to what happens after that. I think people are getting confused as to the right to enrol and then saying your child can't come until you get the resources. But unless your child is enrolled you can't begin to get resources. (S1/ PT2)

Of the parents interviewed, practically all had either moved for educational reasons into the area served by the school and had bought a house locally, or had visited several schools and had chosen their particular school as the one most likely to meet their child's needs. This, in many instances, meant the child by-passed other schools to go to their selected school or, at the behest of the Ministry of Education, were transported by bus or private car to their school. Approximately three-quarters of the parents had made a deliberate decision based on personal research, for their child to attend the school of their choice. The remainder had siblings at the schools and were satisfied with their involvement to date.

Parental choice was overridden by the decision of the Ministry of Education for one child. In this situation the Ministry was applying the 'reasonable' distance criterion, and the parent was being reimbursed for the transport to the nearest school with facilities necessary to maintain the child in regular education. The parent explained the distance her child was required to travel to school daily:

> [The child] is not at his local school. He travels 25 km in and 25 km out every day and I travel 100 kms a day, and yet we have two schools, one 6 km and one 8 kms away. (S1/PT1)

The local school was willing to enrol this pupil, but the Ministry of Education thought the child would be better suited at Karo where there were facilities of the type needed for satisfactory inclusion. There was a second school willing to try, according to this parent, but she was told it was her responsibility to organise the change of decision:

> The Ministry have put up all the blocks and so he is not at his local school. (S1/PT1)

Although financially there was reimbursement of the costs of travelling, there was no recognition of the time and effort for this mother as she strived to achieve inclusive education for her child.

The parents in this study considered that their children had the right to attend the school of their choice, and all the parents who were interviewed stated that they were empowered to make that choice. The decision for parents to integrate their children generally occurred because they did not consider special schools an appropriate venue for their child's education. A few of the children in the study had commenced their education with enrolment in such schools or special kindergartens, and their parents had transferred them when certain schools became known to be sympathetic towards inclusion. As a parent commented, "I was never very happy with him being there", and in most cases the parents felt that their child was not getting enough stimulation. Some parents had actually tried other schools, but generally on a part-time basis and with limited success. One parent explained her feelings:

> That was never very successful because it wasn't regular and it wasn't long enough. It was for a couple of hours once or twice a week. It was more like a plaything for him and they didn't have the teacher aide hours and they didn't have any special facilities. (S1/ PT3)

For these parents, an approach to the principal of Karo school brought results and "within a week he was enrolled and he was going to school", they explained with a degree of disbelief. Enrolment at Karo school for the child of another parent, was considered "a breeze" because the staff at the kindergarten were involved. Contact was made with the school by using them as advocates. The principal became involved at this transition period and the parent described the feeling of being "pulled along" by the professionals, with enrolment taking place uneventfully. With both these children, there was a gradual increase in the time spent at school as the number of hours of teacher aide support were increased, and as they managed to cope with the school routine. The approaches of all the parents to enrol at this school resulted in positive reactions. They reported that "it didn't seem to be a hassle".

Most parents made contact with the school which their other children were attending, but when some did not get the favourable welcome they expected with their child with disabilities, they started to visit other facilities. Parents freely discussed their reactions to these experiences and compared their episodes of initial contact. Parents commented on by-passing other schools for Karo, because their initial contact with these former schools had been unsatisfactory. Generally, it was the reaction of the principal that upset the parents, as one explained:

> I thought it was a bit cool in some ways. Just the way he spoke. I did not think it was very inviting, when he said the size of the classroom and that he would be allocated so many hours and that would be it. So I let him know that I was only looking at his school. (S1/ PT4)

In comparison the school they finally enrolled their child at gave them confidence, warmth in the welcome and positive educational plans:

> It was very open and very friendly. They let me know everything about the school. How many special needs kids there were, what facilities they had for children who were disabled. I just thought "Oh! my goodness. It just sounds so marvellous". (S1/ PT4)

Transferring from another town and finding the appropriate school for a child with special educational needs was an experience which was faced by some parents in this study. If this included moving from a different Ministry of Education district, further problems were posed because at the time of the study the discretionary hours and teacher aide support were not transferable, as they are now. A parent described this experience of travelling from Auckland to visit two recommended schools, and during the short visits and interviews making a decision. The first principal "was helpful", but explained to the parents that the class that their child would go in had children with emotional problems in it. "He was already giving a lot of support to the teacher and he didn't recommend that class", she had been told. The parents moved on to Miro which was the second recommended school:

> We could come back to him if we wished and we went onto [the other school] feeling somewhat depressed and it seemed just a lovely school. As soon as we walked in, we felt this is just the place and it had a wonderful atmosphere. [The child] was fine right from the beginning and I noticed the support from when we arrived. (S2/ PT4)

With this child, the board of trustees gave covering discretionary hours and teacher aide support, while the regional offices of the Ministry of Education worked through a transfer scheme between districts.

The principals are the presenters of the school culture and a 'front' person for the school, and their representation of all that is meaningful about the institution to parents of children with special educational needs is vital. Although no parents admitted to being denied enrolment, by their use of body language and the manner of their approach principals affected the decisions the parents made. The consequence of this was the clustering of children in certain schools, where parents felt comfortable and confident about the well being of their children. The successful inclusion programme in place was drawing more children in to the school and it was feared by professional

staff that their success would affect their ability to maintain inclusion in the real sense of the word. There was also an awareness that many schools were not taking their responsibility towards children with special educational needs.

Both the principals' and the parents' views on the enrolment process have been presented. While the principals' concern was on gaining resources to support the child in the school community, the parents were concerned over available programmes, positive attitudes and the well being of their children. An ambivalence to inclusion was demonstrated when the type of special educational need was, in the principals' view, unsuitable for the school to manage. Interest is now directed at the negotiations both sides took to achieve their various goals.

8.1.3 Conditions set on enrolment. The division of an enrolment and an admission stage was explained by the principals, as providing time to gain appropriate funding and facilities to support the child in the regular classroom. There were varying backgrounds, experiences and attitudes which the parents brought to the act of enrolment and the parental choice was based on one school having programmes, resources and empathy for their child, which other schools were unable to meet. As already mentioned, the type of special educational need presented was a major decision making factor in the timing of enrolment and admission. For example, there was a small group of children with severe multiple disabilities who did not attend school until the teacher aide support was in place, because they required total care. These children generally commenced with limited hours and as they proved they were coping with the regime, their hours were increased. Other than ensuring that the children had appropriate programmes, as this parent explained, they did not appear to set any conditions for entry:

> I went along wanting to know what they were going to offer more than anything because [the child] was learning all the time. I didn't know how far he could go or what his ability was to keep going. (S1/ PT4)

However, parents were concerned with two factors in placement. Parents looked at the number of children in the classrooms and the teacher's attitude towards children with special educational needs. A parent described her previous experience with a teacher who did not have "the attitude to have these children". This mother had concluded that she could not "run the risk, because her child was now doing so well". Her fear was that the good work would all be undone with the change of schools and she would have to start again. Her experience was based on an interview at the neighbourhood rural school in the company of a kindergarten teacher acting as an advocate. In spite of

being very involved with Parent Teachers' Association and having a daughter attending the school, this parent made a decision to not accept placement.

The negotiations attached to a transfer from a special unit to a regular school was described by one mother in the following way:

> I went to [the principal] to see if she could go to her local school and he was very reluctant. So we asked for a transition time and that gave the school the option to say "No we can't cope with her". (S2/ PT2)

According to this mother, it gave the child the chance to experience a regular school and the parents the opportunity to evaluate the situation. This action did pose a legal problem in that enrolment at a second school is not allowed until severance procedures have been completed at the first school. This change did create minor complications but the child attended school as a visitor and the mother was unaware of how the principals of the respective schools worked through the legal requirements. At the end of the first interview the principal would not commit himself to a decision. By the end of the transition period the parents knew that the principal would accept their child at Miro school. During this transition period the school was able to ascertain how many hours the child should have, apply for teacher as well as teacher aide time, and have it all in place for a beginning of term start at school. The episode ended with satisfaction being expressed:

> So it did go well and quite smoothly but we did think when we first started "My goodness, I don't know whether we are going to get in here". It was our idea, the transition time and [the principal] wasn't sure about that at all. (S2/ PT2)

The conditions these parents set, required that a decision be made at the end of the trial period and positive planning ensured a satisfactory outcome. No reference was made to the legal requirements placed on the principal by the Human Rights Act, 1993. While these parents knew what they wanted for their child, other parents considered the assistance received from the staff of other agencies made the difference during enrolment decisions.

Specialist advisers were used to advocate for parents and liaise between educational institutions on many occasions. According to these parents, this resulted in some initial reluctance over attendance at school being changed to acceptance, and in these instances the move had always been successful. Often the acceptance of a child who required the additional support and resources at a school, led to a change of school for the entire family. Again parents made a deliberate decision and spoke about the reasons for that choice:

> It was all the backup you get here. I know that with the staffing and support at the unit I was just happier. It was a gut reaction really and then I brought the other two here as well, [even] though it was further away. (S2/ PT3)

Occasionally however, parents felt that it was an advantage for the other children to attend their own school, without experiencing the additional pressure of having a sibling with disabilities.

Some parents were very familiar with Miro school and the visual resource centre, because of their involvement with the pre-school advice and support they had received. There appeared to be a natural progression of inclusion into the school for these children once the stage of entry was reached. This process was described by two mothers:

> We went a few times for a half day when he was still at kindergarten. A month before he enrolled and actually started I went with him every day for a full day until his beginning date when he started on his own. Basically, they had it all set up for him but there has been a lot of trial and error for everybody because none of the teachers had had blind kids before. (S2/ PT1)

> The resource teacher assessed his needs at pre-school so by the time he came here staff were very aware of his needs and they were wonderful. (S2/ T5)

The enrolment stage posed no problems for parents with children with specific learning difficulties because identification of the special needs were not made at that time. However, these parents did not feel as confident about the future as they did in their present schools, as they explained:

> He has only one more year and he certainly has a lot more to learn. He would never be able to go to Intermediate school like he is. (S4/ PT1)

> I have been hearing that some schools have been turning away special needs children and I am a bit worried, that when it comes for [the child] to change schools, that he will be turned away too, (S4/ PT2)

For the present these parents were considering staying in the area until the child's education was finished. This was because of a concern over how the child would cope, the peer friendships which had been made and their importance in his support system:

> We plan on being in the area but if we did move we plan on commuting him to school. He will go on with the children that he knows and it is too traumatic for him to pick up and go elsewhere. People look after him here. He would have to get re-established in another school and put up with the

> jibes and all the rest of it, whereas he doesn't any more [where he is]. (S4/ PT2)

As the mother explained, the parents had selected Rata school for their son because they did not want him to have the special treatment that he would receive at a special school:

> I wanted to mainstream him so I felt that it was important for him to be seen as normal and to try and lead as normal a life as possible. I want him to be independent and over there, they don't treat him as a special need's child. (S4/ PT2)

The mother felt that some schools focused too much on the special educational needs, and not enough on the mental and physical aspects of the child. The parent's fear was that he would become isolated and his special needs would become over stressed. The mother was very confident with Rata school and commented, "It is great, they don't stop them", indicating that the school did not limit his choices. This appreciation of inclusion was registered by a second mother who was concerned that her child would be put in a class at intermediate school with children who were slow learners, and that his learning would be halted:

> I just feel that because they are all slow that they might be put in the same class and I don't want them to because he won't learn anything. (S4/ PT1)

This again posed the problems faced by parents who appreciated inclusion and lacked faith in its continuance in more advanced education. Resource teachers were providing advice, but these parents had not yet reached the stage of taking steps to gain information with which they could make a choice for the future.

Principals started the complex process of inclusion from the position of leadership and the values they had developed in the school culture. Individual responses from parents on enrolment procedures at different schools indicated that principals had considerable responsibility to personalise the procedures. The parents seeking to make their choice in the best interests of their children knew what they were looking for and had searched for the most appropriate placement. There was, however, one group of children who presented as unproblematical at enrolment, but in time showed that they had considerable difficulties. They were enrolled without concern and only with time did the need to seek funding and support become obvious. These children showed another aspect of inclusion and that was that once taken into the school community, they were totally accepted, supported and respected. For the principals of Titoki and Rata schools who had experienced such events, there was the additional task of supporting parents through the realisation of the difficulties their children were

experiencing. There was a definite pattern of resource attainment which showed repeated requests for support to the Ministry of Education which were either unsuccessful or limited in results. As the children had become part of the school community there was personal involvement on the part of all the professional staff and for these pupils, the application for resources became very intense at times. For these children the category envisaged in the *Statement of Intent* as "learning or social difficulties" had true meaning, because considerable effort was made on their behalf to gain resources to assist these children "access quality education" (Ministry of Education, 1991, p.12). Several of these children were represented in the 'invisible child' category (Appendix 1).

Enrolment has been examined according to the different circumstances it occurs under, such as the gradual progression from pre-school, transfer from out of the district, enrolment from special classes or units, as well as the seeking of the appropriate school for a child by the parent. Considerations which caused parents to make enrolment decisions were the number of children in the class, the programmes available, the attitude of the professional staff and the use of advocates. For some parents who experienced no difficulties with enrolment there was the possibility that their child would always have been enrolled in a regular school. However, under the present system they were identified and support in some measure had been gained for them. While their present situation was accepted positively by the parents, the future was of considerable concern. This illustrated the problems those who have experienced inclusion perceived, in finding an appropriate school for the continuing education of their child.

An indication has been given in this section of the individual approach required to integrate a child with special educational needs into a school. Each new enrolment commenced a train of events which was distinctly owned by that child and was responded to by professional staff and peers on an individual basis. The next section will review the events which follow enrolment when the child is placed in a classroom.

8.2 Class Placement

When teachers became involved in the decision-making and management of the children in the classroom the responses to events became very similar. However, there were some personal responses to certain events which professional staff felt they had little influence over. At this time the leadership of the principal was considerable,

as were the strategies introduced to gain the acceptance of changing events. Reaction to this change was shown in the form of stress and expressed feelings. The culture of the school and the leadership of the principal was decisive in how these feelings were expressed.

The policy areas where decisions would be made were broadened and involved many more people with their respective values and constructed realities. Therefore class placement involved personal considerations as consultation with increasing numbers of people occurred. The progression of events following enrolment depended on whether the child was a new entrant, or a transfer from another school area. These considerations involved prospective teachers gathering background knowledge from past teachers, the physical preparation of the room, as well as the personal preparation of the staff and the classmates. Finally, there were practical, as opposed to policy considerations to be taken into account such as class sizes or the number of age appropriate classrooms in the school.

8.2.1 Initial preparations made by staff. The preparation carried out by teachers depended on whether the child was a new entrant, on transfer or moving within the school. It included gathering information on the special educational requirements of the child, a knowledge of the relevant programmes and speaking to resource and itinerant teachers attached to the school to gain specialist information The teachers accepting new entrants visited the pre-school facility of their respective child. The easiest class placement was the progression through the school where all the information was available and there was ample opportunity for informal contact between teachers. Searching out information was a task reported by practically every teacher, as this staff member explained.:

> I was involved in the last IEP of the year when they were considering her placement for the year and we spoke to the psychologist, the speech therapist and her previous year's teacher. (S5/T5)

The case histories or previous records and reports were collected for all children, be they enrolled from kindergarten or on transfer. The present IEPs of children under transfer were gained as the new school sought a continuation of previous support. In the case of children transferring within the district, there were frequently personal visits by the proposed teacher to the former school, so that the teachers could collect every piece of knowledge they could on their new arrival:

> The initial preparation is getting to know as much about the child as we can and the needs of that child. Speaking to teachers who have had them before, meeting the parents and the child, bringing them into the school

> and showing them around. Discussing our programme and discussing their needs. (S3/ DP1)

If the child was known to advisory specialists or itinerant teachers, they came into the school and often addressed all the teachers at a staff meeting. At Miro school, where there was a resource unit, the children were frequently known and had visited the school before they turned 5 years of age. The children arriving at school were given a thorough assessment and the teachers prepared an IEP, usually with the assistance of other specialist staff members. This was added to the information sent into the Ministry of Education with the request for discretionary hours.

The aim of the preparation was to achieve an easy classroom entry for the child and the teacher and where it was possible, according to the principal of Karo school, this was done before the child arrived in the school:

> I knew the hours I was allocated before [the child] arrived. For some children it may not happen but if it is within my powers and I knew soon enough, I set those things in place. You have a smooth transition and you have had time to talk to the other schools about what it used. (S1/ P1)

While gathering as much background information as possible was important to the initial preparation of the teacher, it was all done in the teacher's own time. The preliminary approach made by the principal, concerning integrating the children with special educational needs into a classroom, was important and the teachers remembered it clearly.

8.2.2 Consultation with the teacher. The principals had a variety of ways of relaying the information of a newly arrived child with special needs to the prospective teacher. It was of interest that the style of approach the principal described did not always appear to be the same approach from the teacher's viewpoint. The factors principals suggested as determining their approach to informing teachers were directed at the perceived needs of the children first, and then of the teachers. Firstly, there was shared responsibility as the principals tried to have all staff 'share' the total number of children with special educational needs in the school. The principals' views on this shared responsibility are as follows:

> The teachers are always consulted but [laugh] we spread them around the school. There is no way one teacher has all the kids. (S3/P1)

> Sometimes you just have to make the decision on the spot and base the decision on how many other special needs children the teacher already has. Sometimes the total number of children in the classroom might be the determining factor. So what we try to do here is share them around so the burden doesn't become too great on one teacher. (S2/P1)

> As more children with special needs are being enrolled there is an awareness amongst teachers of the need to be careful about the distribution of [these children]. (S2/T5)

Secondly, the principals aimed to match the children to the teachers based on their knowledge of both parties, as these comments illustrate:

> You select the teacher- you definitely *select* the teacher. It is nothing to do with numbers. I fiddle the numbers if that is a problem. There are some children I will not place in certain teacher's rooms because of personality. (S5/P1)

> To be quite realistic there have been some teachers who have the ability to absorb these children into classrooms with ease. They don't see them as difficult. We have to be realistic, there are some teachers who don't have the skills to cope with them. (S4/P1)

> She told me I was having the child because she thought I would be able to deal with her. She felt I gave her clear instructions and that the child knew exactly what was expected. Greasing me up a bit [laugh] but that was the way she handled it. (S3/T6)

Thirdly, there was collegial support in that the awareness that they were to have a child with special educational needs in advance, meant that the teacher had time to talk to the previous teacher, the principal had time to talk to the prospective teacher, and as a staff they had time to talk about the child and its needs:

> [I] make sure they are happy because there is nothing worse than a teacher over the holiday period thinking, "Oh! I don't know anything about this child". So they come in and they know they have that support. (S1/P1)

> He just arrived. When I met him I thought I had better check with the teacher who taught him at the other school. She had sent a note but I felt I had to go and see her personally. (S3/ T7)

Principals indicated they matched the different approaches of teachers to children, while recognising that some children did not respond to some situations and some teachers. A teacher described this sensitivity to individual children's needs:

> Children react with different teachers so I ignore [accompanying records] and see what happens. She wasn't a behaviour problem she was just a learning problem. (S3/T4)

Composite classes were considered an advantage because they gave the opportunity for a wider range of placement, more scope for meeting individual needs "of all our children, not just with special needs children".

Fourthly, there were personal discussions on the placement with the teachers concerned, to gain their feelings about having a child with specific problems in their classrooms and to reassure them:

> I point out both sides of it: that there could be difficulties of adjustment by the teacher and by the other children. I think it is fair to do that. I point out that they will get assistance and that we will help them with any training that they may need. I make sure that they are happy about all those things. I don't just tell them that child is going to be in their class. (S3/DP1)

This staff member continued by saying that this approach was not possible with all of the teachers, but that it was considered better with the more severe children "because a teacher has to feel happy about taking on that responsibility". However another staff member from Nikau school gave an alternative report on the placement procedure used in that year. The principal collected all the information on the individual children from the contributing schools, then he placed the children in the class he considered appropriate according to the child's needs, and these were posted in the staffroom for all the teachers to see. These teachers had the right to say, "Look I don't think I can handle this one", and also the right to suggest who they considered could work with the child. Some consultation followed between the teachers involved until agreement was reached, and according to the responses there was limited contact between the principal and the teachers. Such consultation did not happen with all teachers as the responses from Miro school indicated:

> It just happened. Probably the consultation was between the senior staff who make up the class lists. Really there was no consultation with us. (S2/T4)

> Asked! No! I never once was asked. I thought it would have been nice to have been asked at some point before they came. (S2/T6)

This approach to class placement was also suggested by a teacher from Rata school:

> It is a case of being presented with the class list but beside the child's name you have "has an IEP". Or else you have heard the name many times before from the previous teacher. There is no consultation or suggestions concerning programmes. It is a case of you going forth and finding out for yourself. (S4/T3)

Although principals indicated that there were reasons for the placement decisions based on the needs of all the children, there were also practical factors which narrowed the desired options.

8.2.3 Limiting factors in placement procedures. Some of the principals and teachers referred to the limited placement possibilities they sometimes had because of the number of classes in the school:

> In practical terms when the child comes into the school, it is of a certain age and [they have] to go into a certain class level and you have limited choices. (S2/P1)

In a school there may be a choice of two, maybe three teachers that a child can go to, but there were situations where the places were even more limited and as it was explained, that did pose problems of placement:

> When you look at what the teacher already has in the way of special needs, then sometimes you are left with no choice. You have to say, "Well, I'm sorry, (a teacher) has two children on IEPs and someone else has three. You are the one, you have drawn the short straw". (S2/P1)

> They were all in the middle school so there was a need for a bit of distribution and we talked about each one and what their needs were. (S1/T4)

Being part of a management team involved some of the teachers in the setting up of class lists. In Rata school it meant that teachers who were to have the children placed in their classes were directly involved in the discussions. As these teachers explained, one priority was keeping certain children apart for behavioural reasons, while at the same time trying to fit them into appropriate classes:

> We knew we were going to have difficulties. We had to keep some of those relationships separate so basically we did it to ourselves. We chose the classes but they had to be split three ways. (S4/T2)

> Some kids set other children alight. If you had [two children mentioned] you would never put those two together, you would have bust ups all the time. You look at the present incumbents in the room, so there is no one who will upset the other ones. (S3/P1)

Class sizes also posed problems to principals and teachers determining the placement of a child:

> I have 36 and she has 37 children [this year]. The numbers have gone sky high. If there were 36 children of reasonable behaviour and average academic standard then fine, you could manage. But there is such a wide range and that is what tends to be happening with larger classes, mixed abilities and mixed behaviours. That is where the problems really are. (S4/T2)

The factors to be considered in placing a child in a class were the number of age appropriate classes available, the personality makeup of peers and the number of pupils in the classes. The size of their class was often the point that teachers

emphasised when discussing their feelings about the placement of certain children in their classroom. A teacher remarked hopefully, that to have 25 children in a classroom would mean she "could cope very easily" with her three children. Her comment was that it would be a "breeze".

8.2.4 Teachers' reactions to placement. There were varied responses from the teachers to the communication that they were to have a child with special educational needs in their classroom. These responses were associated with the attitude of the school community to difference and disability, and therefore directly related to the school culture. It was also strongly related to collegiality, the leadership the principal had provided for staff in regard to these children and the personal experiences of the teachers in regard to emotional and physical support from within the school. For instance, teachers at Miro commented that they were aware that their employment contracts placed them in a position of being required by the boards of trustees to teach any children from the community, "regardless of their condition or special needs". These teachers felt they had to accept being told "this child has arrived in this school and he is going to be in your class". Not all teachers felt quite as accepting of being told of the situation they were to face:

> "These children will be in your classroom next year, do you mind?" and you don't really have the option to say "Yes, I do". Well, where are they going to go? Just to be able to think about it and work out how you are going to deal with it. The whole staff needs to be asked how they feel because it is going to affect all of us. (S2/T8)

In contrast, for teachers from Karo school where the school ethos regarded children with special needs from the 'individual' perspective, it was a situation of "getting another child who you did not know". There was no consultation regarding the placement but there was the opportunity for open discussion after the event. As the children entered school as new entrants, it was obvious to many teachers that at some time in the future these children would be in their classrooms:

> One expects when one is a teacher at this school that somewhere along the line we are going to have these children. (S1/ T5)

The opinion of teachers at Karo was that if there was ancillary support at a level that ensured there was no impediment of other children's time, then "teachers will accept any child regardless of the handicap, what disruptions they cause or how they look":

> Our policy doesn't stop us from bringing any child into the school, our basic line is that it mustn't interfere with the education of all the other children. As long as you have the level of support that is necessary to make sure that the child is not encroaching on the other children's time. I think that is what the bottom line is. (S1/T1)

> He told me that there was no where else really, that this was his age group. He had all the support people in. It comes from the top doesn't it. (S1/T4)

The extent of consultation increased when a child with an emotional problem or behavioural disorder was to be placed in a classroom, and this event occurred in all of the schools. Frequently this consultation involved advisory personnel, psychologists, visiting teachers who together with the principal and the proposed teacher worked out a programme for the child. On several occasions, as occurred at Nikau and Miro schools, these teachers were senior staff members and other options had failed:

> I think I was told with the latest arrival in my class that it was Hobson's choice and I have to agree, I probably was Hobson's choice. As much as I didn't want to be it, it was for the benefit of a lot of people. (S2/T2)

> I was told "there is no where else for him to go and what are you going to do". That puts a guilt loop burden on you. I won't say I was pleased in the way it was done initially but I accept that. (S3/ T2)

The schools which accepted individuality as part of their culture showed that consultation was not expected, because of the diversity they expected in their children and the expectations of the school community. The essential element was the support or pastoral care these teachers felt they experienced, an issue which will be developed in Chapter 9. Even though many of the teachers considered they had not been involved in consultation, a proportion of them admitted that if they found they were not coping they had collegial support and felt no qualms about asking for help:

> I would have no worries about going and saying "Heh! I'm not doing very well with [the child]. What can I do? Come and have a look. (S4/ T3)

> I think that is what I like about this school. Everyone is so open and if you are having a problem you are not admitting failure. You voice your problems and other people quite often have a way of helping you or they realise you need support. [They are] confident enough to do that on this staff. (S1/T5)

Occasionally, in spite of the effort to gain information there was little available and this led to some apprehension on the part of some of the teachers from all the schools, as they remarked:

> My natural reaction was like most other people. "Oh! What do I do?" (S1/T2)

> We were rather apprehensive about having a child who perhaps wasn't mobile, had little vision and unknown learning ability. So all we could do was prepare the children to make sure there was a positive and tolerant atmosphere. (S2/T2)

> He was a couple of weeks here. No referrals came with him, no [documentation] at all. I thought, "My God! What the hell have I got here?" Nobody knew and nobody was told and that is what they did when they went to [another town]. (S3/T3)

This lack of information was reported by the teachers as occurring particularly with children on transfer, where records requested from contributing schools took a considerable period of time to be released and were sometimes inadequate when they arrived:

> I did not get a lot of information from the contributing schools as to what she was like. We didn't get it straight away, we got it some weeks later. We decided she was on an IEP and that is when we started doing the testing. (S3/T4)

> We were just not co-ordinated and we had real problems because he shifted whole [educational] areas. (S2/ T5)

While there were times when teachers felt apprehension concerning their new pupils, the main feature of class placement was the gaining of relevant information, as armed with knowledge any person in the school community could proceed with assurance. This same approach applied to the peers, and the teachers used information sharing with their classes as a key tool in preparing the pupils in the classroom for understanding and accepting the children with a disability.

8.2.5 Preparing the peers. The extent and style of preparation of the peers was dependent on the educational or developmental need that they were to encounter with their new classmate. If the problem was that of an emotional or behavioural type there was usually considerable class involvement, whereas with intellectual, sensory or physical disability the class preparation was based on individual need. At Karo school the approach to the peers varied from talks from specialist advisers, parents of the particular children or from a resource teacher, to having class meetings. At these sessions there was time given for discussion and the answering of questions. The children were given a background to the disability, how the child would possibly react or behave, how to cope with these events and how to deal with their interactions with these classmates. On occasions the child came to school for an initial meeting with the class and there were introductions of the future classmate and the parents. This led the class to be at ease with the parent's frequent appearances, gave them an awareness of emotional and physical actions, and an indication of how to deal with them. In Karo school the question and answer session was repeated by the itinerant teacher several days after the child's admission because by then, the children had experienced enough

to focus their concerns. A teacher at this school described the preparation of the class as follows:

> I did prepare them before he came. I told them that he was having problems with his behaviour and if they wanted to help him we were going to have to ignore it when he was bad, and praise him when he was good. (S1/T3)

This teacher from Karo school had four children all with very different special needs in her class, so she spoke to the class on how their needs were different and how the class could assist with each child. The response was really "supportive children" who were "never worried", according to this teacher's comments:

> Isn't it incredible how they treat them. They ignore the outbursts and noises. Yes, incredible. (S1/ T3)

The peers who had progressed through the school with the children with special educational needs accepted them as classmates, and were quite used to them. Once this stage had been reached there was seldom any need for further discussion unless it was to indicate to the peers some changing feature in the child condition. This familiarity was explained in the following way:

> The children already knew [the child]. Quite a few of the class have been with her so I didn't have to do any special preparation of the children. (S5/T1)

> Because she had been in the class since new entrants most of the children in the class had grown up with her from the time she started. (S5/T5)

Revisiting the expectations teachers had of their classes was also carried out. As the children with special educational needs were so much part of the classroom, behavioural difficulties sometimes crept in over time and teachers found that they needed to spend time with the class re-focusing on their expectations of the peers:

> We do from time to time talk about the expectations of those children and the expectations I have of the other children. Every now and then when they are not there we discuss it. (S4/T2)

> I had a couple of class sessions about how I could help her and what we thought her problems were. When it was doing things that were negative, how to react accordingly. (S4/T3)

These sessions to refocus on certain aspects of a child's conduct became more essential with the children with emotional or behavioural problems. A teacher from Rata commented on how "children cope with a lot of nonsense from other children in very suitable ways", but that "there comes a point when they can't take it either". For

instance, preparation of a class for the readmission of a child after a formal suspension was described by a teacher:

> I had half a week. I did sit down with my class in a circle at sharing time and I talked to them about what was happening and they were scared. So we talked that out and when they realised the conditions that he was coming in on and my attitude, they were very supportive of what was happening. So I guess my class did have to do some preparation. (S3/T2)

The amount of time the counselling of classroom children took was referred to by another teacher who had waited "a while for the records" to arrive from other schools, only to find that they reinforced what was happening in her classroom. Because the child had not come through the local school system no one was clear about his behavioural outbursts:

> [The result was] a lot of counselling with the class on how to deal with him, especially after he had been to health camp. Building him up to be a friend and if he did something they did not like, telling him. [I explained] effective ways of them telling him without becoming violent towards him or ostracising him. Talking about how to show him how to behave. (S2/T7)

Unscheduled enrolments of pupils can see a teacher unprepared for this class initiation. During fieldwork at Miro school a parent arrived at the school to enrol a child who was in a wheelchair. The teacher had been informed just before school started for the day and she was required to give the class an unscheduled explanation about the new pupil:

> The teacher discussed the feelings of starting a school mid-term, feeling scared and wondering what the teacher and classmates were like. She moved on briefly to describe [the condition] and used the term 'disease'. She did not have it quite right. The teacher drew a parallel with another child in the classroom who had a physical disability by saying: "You have not got [the condition] have you?" The peer answer "No". "It is a bit like the problem you have with running", the teacher continued. (FN/S2)

It was more usual in schools for teachers to have the opportunity to draw on specialist help or the use of video material to provide information to a class.

8.3 Summary and Discussion

This chapter has examined the way in which the intentions of school charters and policies were actioned. Although principals wholeheartedly agreed with the sentiments of equal rights to enrolment and education in any state school for children with special educational needs, when the discussion reached the actual mechanism employed at this time, the decisions were based on economics and logistics tempered with personal

belief systems. The effect of the government intervention in the administrative reforms was noticeable, as was also the decision-making of the Ministry of Education. As the principals had been so influential in the charter preparation and policy writing, it was obvious that there would be an association between the contents of these documents and their individual approach to enrolment and placement. By having their enrolment routines, the principals were acceding to the Human Rights Act, 1993 and not discriminating against the children on the grounds of disability, but at the same time they were ensuring that the practical necessities to admit a child were in place. In their view this was for everyone's benefit. A summary of factors relevant to enrolment and placement shown by the five schools in this study is given in Table 8.1 and discussed in the following section.

1. The principals outlined two stages of entry into their schools for children with special educational needs. The first stage was the act of enrolment and the second stage was the entry and placement in a classroom. Enrolment posed few problems, but as one parent said, "it was what happened after that" that was important. The length of time which elapsed between these two stages was related to the type of disability or educational need the child presented with. It also depended on whether the child was a new entrant with a known background or whether the child was on transfer from another school. The management of enrolment was dependent on these factors and indicated that in general, the children were accepted when financial support was available to provide the extra resources enabling placement on terms which were considered satisfactory, if not equitable, by the school.

2. All the professional staff indicated that it was the parents' right of choice to determine which school their child attended, but some principals emphasised that enrolment did not necessarily imply admission. There were certain criteria to be met before this occurred and these included assessment, the gathering of information from specialist advisers and the ability of the principals to gain funding for facilities, resources and support personnel. Because of the need to follow these procedures to ensure the child would be supported on entry into the schools, admission to the classroom at some schools was delayed at the principal's discretion. (section 2.4.1)

3. In this study the parents who were involved in these decisions were empowered to recognise the genuineness of this delay. They stated that the demeanour of the principal and sometimes the classroom teacher who would be involved at this early stage, indicated whether there was an empathy towards their children or whether the enrolment was an empty action. As was evident at Karo and Miro schools, the parental

Schools	Karo	Miro	Nikau	Rata	Titoki
Enrolment: *Principals*	Accepts right to enrol Divides enrolment and admission to get resources	Accepts right to enrol Divides enrolment and admission to get resources	Accepts right to enrol but no responsibility for delivery of required support or resources	Accepts right to enrol and immediate admission	Accepts right to enrol Divides enrolment and admission to get resources
Parents	Right to enrol Moved near to school or transport children	Right to enrol Moved near to school or transport children	Children transported to school	Right to enrol Moved near to school or transport children	Right to enrol Children transported to school
Placement: *Principals' responses*	Responses on difficulty of placement with numbers of children being enrolled and number of 'age-appropriate' classes	Responses on difficulty of placement with numbers of children enrolled and number of 'age appropriate' classes	Social difficulties reported with need to separate specific children with behavioural problems Match teacher to child	Responses on difficulty of placement with numbers of children enrolled Class sizes and number of 'age appropriate' classes Social difficulties reported with need to separate specific children with behavioural problems Match teacher to child	No problems noted Match teacher to child
Teachers' responses	P. and T. agreed no consultation but discussion on placement No concern in seeking help	Professional responsibility to accept children in class Little consultation	P. and T. disagreed on the amount of consultation and discussion	P. and T. disagreed on the amount of consultation but no concern in seeking help	Professional responsibility to accept children in class Consultation occurs
Preparation of Peers	Comprehensive use of parents, advisers and itinerant teachers to provide specific information	Peers given basic information, more specific if required	Peers given basic information, with some children considerable counselling ensues	Peers given basic information, more specific if required	Peers given basic information, more specific if required

Table 8.1 **Summary of Initiation Phase**

choice was definitely being made on the basis of the school's presentation of itself regarding children with special educational needs. As discussed in Chapter 7, a clustering of children was occurring at these schools where word of mouth from other satisfied parents or parental knowledge of the school and the programmes available, encouraged enrolment. The concerns of parents in this study for their child's safety, the attitude of the regular staff and non-disabled pupils, and the success and quality of the student's educational programme closely parallel those identified by Hanline and Halvorsen (1989). The parents in this study expressed similar concerns when seeking the school appropriate for their children. These parents had moved from the powerless position which has been traditionally reported and perhaps seen as the anomie of Durkheim, to a position of being aware of their responsibilities for change. However, the parents did not use their child to deliberately cause change and demand rights for their child. Parents had turned away from schools that they considered unsatisfactory, because their child's welfare was paramount. According to the parents, no principals had refused entry for their children into any schools. In the course of decision-making, schools had been by-passed and parents had moved residence to be near the school of their choice, especially if this allowed the children a degree of independence and freedom from car or bus travel. This movement by parents for normalisation has been termed parental entrepreneurship by Darling (1988). Normalisation is not static and most of the parents and many of the teachers of their children recognised that they were in calm waters at the time of the study, but were obviously disturbed at looking to the future when there had to be a change of school. They reported that the schools which would provide more advanced education did not appear to be preparing for their children at the same rate as the primary schools had done. The results of this lack of action, the clustering of children in certain classrooms, will be presented in Chapter 10 in the section on the maintenance of the children in the classroom.

3. The enrolment of a child with emotional problems or behavioural disorders caused some concern among professional staff, because it was felt that the school had a responsibility to other parents and pupils for their safety and educational chances. Consultation with teachers and the respective classroom peers increased when children were in this category of educational need. It will be shown in Chapter 9 that the expectations of teaching staff towards the parents of these children indicated that they frequently did not meet their role expectations. The difficulties experienced by staff with regard to this group of children is referred to in Chapter 10.

4. The actual placement of the children in their classrooms involved consultation with teachers, decisions being made on the number of children with special educational

needs in prospective classrooms and matching of children to the teacher's experience and personality. Principals differed in their approach to notifying the teachers and the varying responses indicated an expectation of teachers to accept all children in a professional manner, to listen to teacher's feelings and respond accordingly. Ward et al. (1987) state that a "successful mainstreaming policy depends more on not alienating teachers within the educational system than on winning their active co-operation" (p.75). Most principals demonstrated an awareness of sensitive consultation with their staff over placement of children in their class, but on occasions the event had more impact on the teachers than was related by those in leadership positions. This is in accordance with the research of Ward et al., who stated that there was a consistent trend for principals to adopt a more positive attitude towards the inclusion of individually disabled children, than the teachers who have responsibility for their instruction. The issue chosen by Ward et al., and the present study, to base their decision on, was the amount of stress that various categories of disability provoked. The principals appeared to be consistently less anxious than the teachers about the classroom difficulties many children presented with. This aspect of inclusion will be further explored in Chapter 10 when classroom interaction and routines are discussed.

5. There were limiting factors to placing children in certain classrooms. These included the class size and the number of age appropriate classes in the school. Sometimes a senior team of teachers would assist with the decision in the knowledge that they would be involved in the outcome. The teachers appreciated the time to organise facilities, resources and support between being informed of the placement and the arrival of the child. It also allowed them to prepare themselves and the peers. For teachers, this included: gathering information on their specific child from previous educational institutions, previous teachers, records including IEPs and sometimes visiting former schools; preparating the peers, including the amount of information and the method of dissemination. This varied with the type of educational or developmental need the child presented with. The methods used to instruct the peers varied from specialist advisers, discussions held in association with the new pupil's parents, class meetings or counselling the peers. The children were provided with differing amounts of information on the child's special need, methods of assisting and managing certain activities and actions, with the aim that the child would be welcomed into an accepting and caring classroom. As the most important aspect of inclusion was the establishment of an accepting and supportive environment, the introduction of children with special educational needs into the classroom has been the topic of considerable international research. It has been shown that it is possible to improve the

attitudes of non-disabled children to those with certain disabilities and give them a "positive mind set" prior to their introduction into the classroom (Gottlieb, 1980). The effect of information, as a technique for change is limited (Donaldson, 1980), as compared with co-operative and small group association (Johnson and Johnson, 1980 and 1981; Madden and Slavin, 1983). Melton (1980) considered the degree of openness concerning individual differences the vital factor. It "allows the children in the classroom the opportunity to address their own curiosity and anxiety about handicaps" (p.198). It can also allow for the passing on of misinformed beliefs as occurred in Miro school when the word "disease" was used to explain a congenital disability. The success of this addressing of curiosity and anxiety was vividly demonstrated when the visit of the Crippled Children's Association puppets occurred in Miro school during the study. The Skills for Adolescence programme at Nikau school also allowed for information on issues of disability or special educational needs to be integrated into regular classroom sessions. One issue of interest was whether teachers dealt with the topic when the child was present or absent from the room. This became a case of professional judgement relating to individual cases, but both approaches were witnessed and carried out with empathy and consideration.

Chapter 8 has presented how enrolment and class placement for the children with special educational needs were carried out. The priority placed on gaining discretionary hours for personnel support, resources and facilities in this Initiation Phase of inclusion has been discussed. The process of inclusion has moved from a focus on what persons in governance and management roles *said* they would do in respect of children with special educational needs, to what they actually *did.* At this level of decision making the principal's leadership, foresight and management skills within the school are involved. Although all principals accepted the 'right to enrol' clause, Karo, Miro and Titoki schools clearly divided the process into enrolment and placement, with the intervening period spent gaining resources. Nikau school accepted the right to enrol, but the delivery of the required support and services was not considered the school's responsibility and depended on getting resources allocated by the Ministry of Education, to meet the equity demands. Rata school was the only school which went directly from enrolment to placement to avoid a misconstruement of intent. The reluctance of some principals to place the children in a class until they were satisfied that the teachers and peers were in a situation where they were able to meet the obligations placed on them, was demonstrated. This showed that in many of the enrolment situations, in spite of equal rights legislation and equity clauses in the school charter, the child with a special educational need was frequently regarded as an

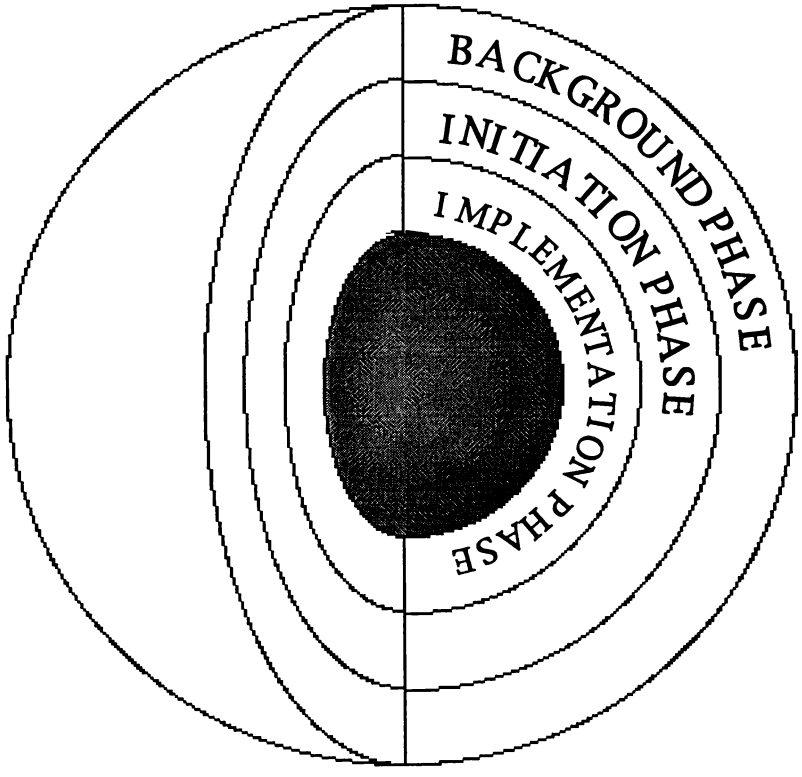
additional pupil in the regular class. The main issue was therefore whether the financial support available for a child did ensure inclusion?

This brings a third level of decision-making and change into focus. This level is on the personal plane and involves the children, their parents, the teachers, ancillary staff and specialist advisers (Figure 4.1). It also involves the personal aspect of the principals' role, where their values and beliefs strongly influence the school. It was the influence of this personal plane on the school culture and decision-making which ensured the degree of success with regard to inclusion, demonstrated in this study. This personal attitude to inclusion was able to be detected in both principals and professional staff at this phase of inclusion. An exploration of the expectations, interactions and relationships is essential to understand why some schools were confident in their ability to accept diversity, while other schools were tentative or absolved themselves from the responsibility.

During this initial stage of integrating a child into the school, it became apparent from observations and discussions that the professional staff involved with the children with special educational needs, had expectations of each other that were crucial for a satisfactory outcome to enrolment and placement. To understand how inclusion was implemented at the chalkface, two aspects of the school community required exploration. The first included the role expectations of professional staff, along with the interrelationships which develop in the schools practising inclusion. The typifications formed by these roles construct the social structure which is the school. The school culture is responsible for how these typifications develop and therefore, the second section will examine four facets of the school culture and present their relevance to inclusion. These role expectations and facets of school culture will be outlined in Chapter 9.

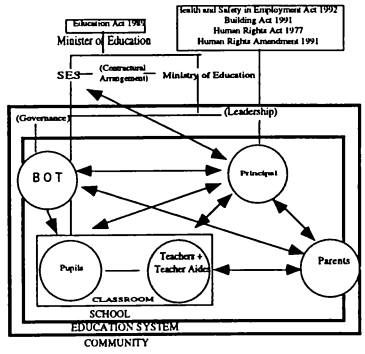
Chapter Nine

Implementation Phase



Synopsis

The school culture remains the driving force in the enactment of inclusion, as role incumbents take the ideology to more personal levels of interactions and relationships. This chapter identifies the personal factors associated with role expectations which boards of trustee members, principals, teachers, teachers aides, advisory specialists and parents bring to inclusive practices within the school community. Five aspects of the school culture were explored to demonstrate their importance to the process of inclusion. These include the accessing of resources and support, communication, teacher training and development, contact with outside agencies and collegiality. The five schools in the study illustrate the complexity which exists in these aspects of role expectations and school culture when inclusion is practiced.



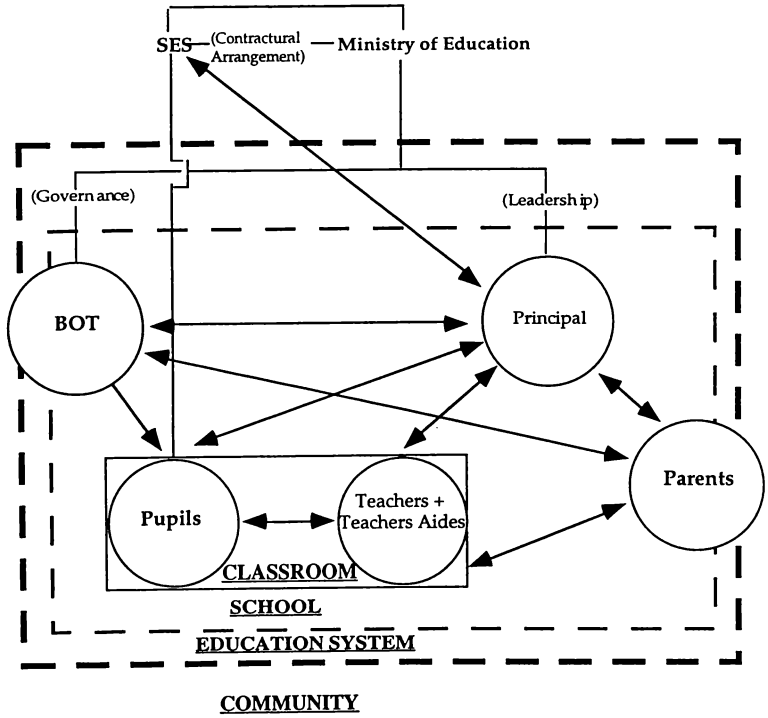


Fig. 9.1 **Implementation phase - role expectations and five aspects of the school culture: collegiality, gaining resources and support, teacher development, contact with outside agencies and communication networks.**

9.0 Implementation Phase

A lack of ease and uncertainty with government reforms influenced the manner in which children with special needs and their parents were being accepted into school communities. From a theoretical viewpoint it indicated that it was essential to place the observations and responses to inclusion in historical context, as Weber and Durkheim stated, because if one did not, distortion and lack of understanding of the events would occur. It was therefore important to this thesis to accept the indications that economic conditions were influencing the process of inclusion, but to look beyond these considerations to try to understand how and why this affected those in the school community.

A basic premise of C.Wright Mills (1963) was to orientate oneself to the recognition of the individual, not as an isolated entity, but the product of an intricate organisation. Using this proposition the school culture will be explored, including those persons who interact and support it, and who exert considerable influence on the shaping of individual roles in relation to inclusion. To comprehend further the complex interactions and relationships which surround inclusion, the analysis is presented using the role, the basic unit of a social structure employed by the structuralist-functionalist and reality constructionist theorists. In the Implementation Phase the children with special educational needs have been enrolled and admitted to a class. As the children moved into the realm of the classroom including organisational routines, group activities and interactions and relationships with peers, the professional staff were involved in both management and personal aspects of inclusion. While role incumbents take the ideology to more personal levels of interactions and relationships, the school culture remained the driving force in the enactment of inclusion. Therefore, another layer of inclusive practice was peeled away from school's organisation with the identification of the personal factors of role expectations and the factors important in the school culture that encouraged inclusion.

9.1 The Network of Role Expectations

At some time the professional staff in the schools involved in this study expressed views on their expectations of the groups of people with whom they interacted in the school. This next section will present these views as they relate to their responsibility towards children with special educational needs. Both literature and observation have indicated that board of trustee members, principals, teachers, teachers aides and

parents are the important 'significant others' in the inclusion of children into the school community.

9.1.1 The Board of Trustees. The five respondents from the school boards saw their positions as providing support for the principals in their endeavours for the school communities. The trustees varied in their descriptions of their relationships with their principals. They described them as partnerships (Karo, Rata), and the role was to either support (Titoki, Nikau) or liaise (Miro) between the school personnel, the management committee if one was present, and the principal. The governance aspect of a trustee's position was not without its difficulties and frustrations. This has been referred to in association with gaining facilities and altering the external environment in preparation for children with special educational needs (sections 7.3.1 and 7.3.2). The respondents in discussing their contact with the principal, considered they had limited influence:

> I do believe we were there to argue with him too when we needed to. He probably got his own way more than he should so whatever he brought to the meetings we would have OK-ed. (S5/ B1)

> I wouldn't know anything that went on if I did not work there. So I would say our role was nil. (S3/B2)

The trustees, who had been nominated by the principals as the representatives of the children with special educational needs on the board for this study, considered this area of school activity was "special". They thought their position was to support those who were knowledgeable. To illustrate this, a trustee member from Nikau school expressed the care that should be taken in this relationship with the school:

> It is a very sensitive issue, you can't just blunder into what the school is doing and sort of start demanding things. You have to be very careful. (S3/B1)

The principals maintained these relationships with the boards by keeping them informed, providing guidance and leadership, reporting changes with the present situation in the school, frequently posing problems *and* offering the solution. This role was explained by the principal of Rata:

> They see me as a professional leader. I make comments but I make them in a way that suggests: "This is the problem we have, this is the way we can solve it". (S4/ P1)

This principal reaffirmed that this was the way he liked it to be, as he discussed a future innovative plan he had and concluded by commenting:

> I guess I am really fortunate that I have trustee members who are receptive to that sort of thinking. (S4, P1)

The practice of advising the board on the needs of the school so that they understood what was required, was quite usual and the line of communication was through a trustee member with responsibility for special educational needs:

> It is because of the nature of the school. In a different sort of school we probably wouldn't require it. So there is the advising of that person who is there and for me to work with them as a team. (S2/ P1)

There were, however, observable differences in how the schools worked through this relationship between board and professional staff. At Miro and Titoki schools there was an expectation on the part of the teachers that the board would support their needs and provide funding when it was necessary. A teacher illustrated this by saying:

> We expect them to listen to the proposals of teachers and they will realise the school has the authority and expertise to suggest things they would like to do. It goes to the board and they always agree. Perhaps that is rubber stamping but that is what is happening here. (S2/ T3)

Both Miro and Karo were schools with management committees who kept the board informed of the children with special educational needs on the school roll and their need for resources when budget requirements were dealt with. The principal of Karo explained:

> It is a real commitment on their part. [The board] has to ensure the funding is spent wisely and really through myself be accountable for it. (S1/ P1)

The teacher with responsibility for children with special educational needs at Nikau school did not have such an obvious role, and did not attend board meetings:

> I have no speaking rights as such and so I consider, is it necessary that I should be going? I am not sure whether I should be there or not. (S3/DP2)

This ambivalence can perhaps be explained by the comment of a senior staff member at Nikau:

> We inform them that everything is fine and if not to inform them of what we have to do. A lot of the decisions haven't been in the board meetings, it has been done here at the school because the board don't have much to do with the day to day management of the school. They are told the results of things. (S3/DP1)

In a similar mode to Karo, the teachers at Rata saw the role of the board as one of support, empathy, and resources:

> Support and support me again. (S4/ T2)

> They should realise we do have children in this school who do have problems and we expect them to be sympathetic to what we are trying to do. (S4/T3)

The difference with Rata and Karo schools was that teachers placed expectations on the boards that went beyond being 'informed'. The personal knowledge of the teacher's position was considered to be very important in these schools and those expectations also included knowledge of any children who were requiring extra resources:

> It is all very well reading about them on a piece of paper but they should know these children and should come in and see them in the classroom. They should make some contact so if they are helping to write policy or deciding on money they understand. (S1/ T5)

This personal expectation contrasted with those expressed by teachers at Nikau school who did not feel that their board knew enough about their situation and work, and did not really have much to do with them:

> I don't really know what I expect from them because they are too isolated from the situation. (S3/ T3)

> I don't think they would ever know how many or anything about special needs children in our school. (S3/ T5)

> The board of trustees are just those people you hear about. (S3/T12)

Half the teachers at this school preferred not to discuss this relationship, but one did say that when a meeting took place the Board had seemed very appreciative of the work the teachers were doing. This overall reaction should be associated with the ambivalence of the 'special needs' teacher with regard to attending the Nikau school board of trustees meetings. During fieldwork in this school the principal had issued an invitation to the board to encourage it to come into the school to see what the school was providing for *all* children on its roll. He was disappointed by the pressure he had had to apply to achieve this and the response from the board.

The overall picture of governance with respect to inclusion was that the principal provided leadership in a specialist area and the boards of trustees backed the proposals with support and funding. If a management committee was in existence in the school there was the likelihood of more deliberations and interactions. This was noted in Karo and Miro schools. As the principal was vested with high leadership expectations these were further explored.

9.1.2. Principals. While the board of trustees saw their role in respect of the principal as one of partnership, the teachers had a much more extensive set of expectations for them. The overwhelming expectation was that of support and belief in their abilities as teachers. The principal was also regarded as the contact person and the organiser in the school as these teachers suggested:

> He is the one who pulls the strings. He is the key person there co-ordinating and liaisoning. (S5/T1)

> Our principal's philosophy is that teachers come first and if you keep the teachers happy you will have a happy school. So, what you feel you need you just go to him. (S2/ T8)

The principal was expected to listen, act as a sounding board, to listen to complaints and to follow them through to some form of conclusion. This meant the principal had to be kept up to date with all that was going on in the school. The teachers referred to the principal's presence being a backup for all they did and they expected support, understanding and a follow up to any problems:

> I would expect the principal to support me. I have been to talk to him about frustrations and difficulties. He is a good listener and gives you the support that you need. (S2/ T4)

> Someone who is approachable and then if you had a problem they could follow it through as well and they didn't let you suffer with it. (S1/ T2)

The principal of Rata in developing his role, commented on his personal approach to contact with the children and staff. He would visit a room in his school every day with the teacher deciding the appropriate time for this visit. This visibility was considered an important aspect of teacher support and in this thesis has been referred to as a form of pastoral care. The classroom time given by the principal of Rata was focussed on the children and showed an inclusive attitude:

> [This time] let them show me things that they felt good about. Some teachers might have felt a bit nervous about it, but once they realised that it was just a way of keeping in touch with the kids it was accepted It is not just the children with special needs, they are part of the whole deal. (S4/ P1)

Another school, Karo, took what they referred to as the 'whole school' approach and teachers considered that, to meet the challenge, the principal should have knowledge and know what to do in any situation:

> I should be able to talk about the problem. As a young teacher I don't know the procedures, then [the principal] decides what is to be done, who needs to be brought in and whatever the approach is from there. (S1/T4)

> He is the one who sets the whole framework of the thing and makes all the contacts with the agencies. (S1/ T1)
>
> I expect him to be informed and supportive. I also expect him to actually participate with these children at some time. (S1/T5)

The principal in Karo was also given the responsibility of judging the impact of the child with special needs being placed in a classroom. He was expected to protect the class teacher from pressures and if unable to function adequately, to provide adequate supervision for the child and whatever specific assistance may be necessary to change behaviours or support the teacher. His response to these demands was that he had an itinerant teacher attached to his staff to carry out certain jobs, but he also had expectations of the staff to do what they were appointed for:

> I like people when they have responsibilities to have the opportunity to carry those out but I am not always there to check or to make sure that they get that support when it is required. (S1/P1)

There were other appointed staff in the school with the responsibility to carry out specific tasks with the children with special needs, and the principal demonstrated both expectations and respect in referring to them:

> In most ways they have more knowledge than I have on those children. Working with them every day I listen most carefully to what our teachers aides have to say. (S1/P1)

While the role expectations of all staff of each other at Karo school were very high, they also demonstrated an awareness and appreciation of each other which in particular focussed on the principal:

> I know that he does a hell of a lot but I know that he is the kind of guy who does things without you even knowing and you think, "Gosh things are running smoothly" and a lot of groundwork has obviously gone into it all to make it like that. I don't think [the principal] is the kind of guy who is showy. (S1/ T6)

In summary, the role expectations of the principal in particular, but of all the staff in Rata and Karo schools were clearly defined and involved considerable team work and responsibility towards each other. This was accompanied by awareness, appreciation and mutual support.

In contrast because Nikau had a teacher whose job description included working with every facet of special education in the school, it was to this person that the teacher would turn for support, not the principal. This had the effect of cutting the principal

off from knowledge of the children with special needs in the school, even though the teachers held high expectations:

> I would expect *total* support, *total* understanding, a *total* ear for listening and any idea that I had or any solution that I had to be taken on board and discussed. (S3/ T3)

The size of the school could be regarded as a problem as the teachers looked for support further down the management scale. However, some teachers did not feel this support was forthcoming, even though the principal and the appointed 'special needs' teacher were easily accessed:

> He actually had nothing to do with any of these children in our classroom. I don't think he is aware that the children in our school have learning disabilities as such. (S3/ T4)

> It was our problem, not his. I don't think they ever come and say, you do a good job with [a child], "thank you".(S3/ T7)

> I think it is over [the senior managements'] heads. But until something happens I don't think they will do anything about it because we coped before, we always do. You need to fall apart and they see the reactions and do their bit. (S3/ T9)

While endeavouring to understand the disaffection with some aspects of inclusion in this school, particularly in association with leadership a discussion on the topic of training arose. The principal of Nikau expressed the desire for expertise in dealing with children with special needs so that he could support the teachers, who were working in this area.

> It would be great to be in a position where a teacher would feel confident to come to me and say: "I am having problems with this child, can you think of any ideas or can you put anything into place that would cater for that". (S3/ P1)

Following the theme of role expectations through in a comparative manner indicated some of the difficulties which can occur at this personal level of decision-making. While Rata, Karo and to a lesser extent Miro showed high expectations of personal support and collegiality, with the principals showing leadership which demonstrated in practice that which was important in the school culture, this did not consolidate in Nikau school. There appeared to be a disparity between the collegial support the teachers felt they should have, and the administrative action they received. The principal saw his position as one of getting funding and facilities for the teachers and thereby getting the best possible help for children in areas of special educational need. The result was that by an application for equity money, this principal was able to employ a teacher who was solely responsible for certain children with special

educational needs in the school. However beneficial this may have been in meeting the educational needs of some children it did not provide the personal support, knowledge and appreciation that teachers expect when they have children with special educational needs in their classroom.

Another example of the lack of personal support directly linked to the principal's leadership was the appointment at Nikau of a teacher to monitor the 'special needs' programme. This teacher was to make regular visits to the classroom to see how the children having special help were coping, but because of other expectations this position had been eroded:

> I could not keep to a strict timetable last year because of all the interruptions. So I was not able to fulfil that role really, although I did manage to get to quite a few rooms. (S3/DP2)

The expectations and support systems principals and teachers had for each other in the schools was vital for the implementation of the process of inclusion. Each school had devised its own individual strategy involving the board, the principal and the teachers and these approaches showed variable results. The most important consideration was the communication to the teachers that in all aspects of school governance and management with regard to children with special educational needs, the work they did was acknowledged, appreciated, and totally supported from both a caring and resource viewpoint. The next section will address how these expectations were acted out by the teachers themselves, with regard to supporting colleagues.

9.1.3 Teachers. Collegiality was the crucial point in the role expectations of teachers. The teachers all expressed that they expected their colleagues to listen to them and support them, in their role as teacher of a child with special educational needs. Colleagues were expected to act as sounding boards for ideas, for gaining knowledge from and for learning. There were, however, several aspects to this support system. The first was an awareness that their colleagues were frequently in a similar situation so although they expected them to listen to where they were at with a situation, there was no expectation beyond that as a teacher commented:

> I try not to put it on to other colleagues because I know they usually have enough with their own classes. (S2/ T5)

While this sensitivity was apparent there was also the consideration that it was important for teachers to be aware of programmes in place, so that when staff took over children for other curriculum topics the same actions could be reinforced and there could be the same expectations of the child. Without this awareness irritations

occurred when classroom teachers were expected to take responsibility for the actions of children, who at certain times were not under their responsibility.

Secondly, there were support systems based on schemes to have as many professional staff involved with as many children as possible. Rata school had a 'class buddy' system in place, where a more senior class was linked with a junior class and the children within those classes were paired. This enabled the teachers to have a closer support relationship for their children with a wider group of peers and indirectly gave themselves assistance. This approach was also associated with a very open staff room where teachers were not concerned about publicly speaking of their difficulties with children. It meant, as these teachers explained, that they became familiar with all the children and this shared responsibility was valuable for collegial support:

> I expect them to take an interest because they will have these new entrants one day. We have very close collegial arrangements and they know the children are coming through the system. They have a pretty shrewd idea of what is coming. (S5/ 3)

> I felt that kids like this ought to be shared because otherwise you can dig yourself a hole and never get out and feel that no one is helping you. You have this problem and no one really understands what you are coping with. When you have a school situation where you have experienced staff and the staff can cope if you are there to help, then you should. (S5/ T5)

Another form of collegial support was seen as teachers sought information from their colleagues who had already had particular children in their classrooms. This was a common occurrence and particularly occurred in informal conversations, as these teachers explain:

> I expect them to be supportive, to help if I require help with advice and ideas. I expect them to be informed. I think it is essential that we all know more about these children particularly if you are on duty and something happens. (S1/ 5)

> You sound off more with colleagues, somebody has to put up with it and they are very supportive too especially if they have taught the children before. (S4/ T2)

> She will give me a warning of "watch out for so and so". (S3/ T10)

Some teachers expressed their views on the 'open plan' school, for which they considered there were additional skills required, to be an effective teacher. It appeared to assist with collegial support as during fieldwork it was noted that if a child became restless or difficult, it was possible for another teacher to take over the supervision of that child without any disturbance to the class. This meant there were more staff who had knowledge of particular children and shared the responsibility for them.

Other teachers commented on how the relaxed, informal discussions in the staff room also allowed for the release of tensions and anxieties:

> It gave you someone to come in to and joke to when it was getting a bit tense. (S1/ T3)

> It is just a case of talking about the situation and what you have done. Just someone to let steam off with. (S3/ T1)

Collegial support was summed up by a teacher from Karo school from a student's perspective, when it was stated that the teacher's position was a basic support role. If support was school inclusive and involved all the teachers and pupils, according to this teacher the responsibility was shared:

> We all know the children and we all basically know what they can do. We should know what they are like, how we handle them, how we should speak to them and what we can expect as responses from them We should be support people for these children and not walk past them. (S1/ T1)

Another example of the importance of shared responsibility and collegiality was seen in the playground. In Karo, Miro, Rata and Titoki schools, *all* pupils became the responsibility of all teachers during lunchtime and morning break and teachers were expected to know enough of the background of each child to handle any situation which would arise. Frequently, the principals would be seen taking a stroll and casually relating to the pupils. In comparison, Nikau, a larger school with more formal classroom routines did not experience this relaxed camaraderie. If there were problems in the playground with children with special educational needs the respective teacher would be called from the staffroom to deal with the child. This was explained by the need for the teacher who was an expert, to deal with the difficulty according to the child's individual programme.

Thirdly, the support system was required to take into consideration the physical safety of teachers. As female teachers at Nikau school were of a smaller stature than many of their pupils, there were times when plans of action were devised for both the teachers' and pupils' safety. This gave some comfort and support to the teachers concerned, as they explained:

> I have had physically violent children in the class before. You needed to have a male colleague handle them and they have been supportive in that role. (S3/ T1)

> I knew that if I had a fight then this person would drop everything. He would come at a drop of a hat, because he knew the situation that I would be faced with. So you go to the person who would come quickly. (S3/ T6)

Finally, some parents expressed their attitude to the need for adequate teacher support which generally referred to appropriate teacher aide assistance. A parent from Miro school explained her personal reasons for supporting the teachers:

> They are very professional and they expect themselves and other people expect them to cope with every area brilliantly and nobody can. As a parent I would like to communicate that. They need to make realistic demands on teachers. Let them be good at what they can be good at. Don't make inclusion an extra thing. (S2/ PT4)

The unravelling of role expectations highlighted the importance of shared responsibility, collegiality and individual caring and knowledge at a personal level. While professional staff had outlined their role expectations for each other, the principals and teachers showed they also had their expectations of parents of children with special educational needs.

9.1.4 Parents. Parents were considered a crucial part of the school support team, because without their help the programmes could not function adequately and teachers felt disillusioned with the effort they were putting into the children with special educational needs. The communication between professionals at school and parents involved a very complex set of relationships, with individual feelings, responses and expectations on the part of everyone concerned.

From the principals' viewpoint there were two aspects of parental contact to be considered. Firstly, the gaining of resources, discretionary hours or equipment for the parent's child and secondly, the support the parents required to maintain their child in the mainstream of education. Principals spoke of meeting these expectations:

> I think I have to be always available. I have to ensure that they are involved in the decision making process and we have our management committee set up which they are all members of. (S1/ P1)

> Generally speaking parents know what they want for their kids and it is up to us as professionals to provide it. (S2/ P1)

> My role is to communicate with the parents and to listen to them. To listen to what their views are and what their worries are. They know the child best probably and it is better to get information from them about the child. (S3/ DP1)

At the parent meeting with the review team from ERO a Karo parent spoke of the "bonding" of parents and staff, and she considered the principal was responsible for this:

> We are all part of a team here. I can come here and feel part of a family. (S1/ PT1 from FN)

On this occasion a teacher aide responded by emphasising the importance of parental input, giving the view that at this school the interaction was a two-way affair:

> Parents know their children and staff are missing out if they don't listen. (S1/ TA2)

While it was apparent that at Karo school there was a partnership in operation, this close affinity, although desired by the principal of Nikau school did not materialise. He emphasised his role as that of "getting the best deal for the parents". To try to understand why intent was not enough to bring about the mutual contact and relationship, the parental role was looked at in relation to other roles in the school. The board of trustees at Nikau school considered they had no contact with parents of children with special educational needs, because they went straight to their respective teachers or the principal. Many parents did this, but from observation and personal communication these were generally not those with children with special educational needs and meetings with the principal were usually by his arrangement. That is, the parents were asked to come to school to discuss a difficulty. Parents of children with special educational needs at Karo and Miro, the two schools with management committees with parent representatives, did consider they had more contact with the board than other parents in the school. The value of the management committee in the schools as it influenced parent-school contact was obvious, but to make it feasible to have such a team in every school meant there needed to be more pupils in the category of 'special needs'. While there was considerable discussion on the value of such contact, it was the teachers who held the highest expectations of the parents and indicated the personal need for their support.

Teachers had very real expectations of their parents. These included being present at IEP meetings, support and co-operation, assisting with homework tasks, following up what the teachers have been doing, providing some feedback on their child's progress from the parents' point of view and having free and honest communication with the school. As these teachers explain, parents were expected to do their share in the education of their children:

> I expect them to come to school if I ask them. There is an open door policy and they know they are welcome at any time. (S5/ T3)

> I think it is vital to have parent support, without parent support I think your job is made extremely difficult. They need to be really supportive and involved in their children's education and concerned about it with us. (S2/ T1)

> Very close contact with the school, mainly with their children and quite often be available to talk to *all* teachers so they understand that particular child's needs. (S1/ T1)

However, these expectations were not always met to the teacher's satisfaction:

> I have more expectations from some than others but I don't place too much on them. (S4/ T2)
>
> You tell parents how their child is doing but it is not very often you have a parent give a lot back to you. Unless it is negative and then you get it. (S4/ T4)
>
> I can't remember having a parent who I saw very often or was particularly supportive. I can't ever remember. Not here anyway, definitely not here. (S3/ TA 1)

There were other teachers who had more positive communication with parents and this occurred at Karo and Miro schools. In these schools, teachers reported that parents had taken over the responsibility of monitoring their child's progress:

> We had a two way communication system and I expected that to be kept up and it was basically that I expected them to support anything that was discussed in the original meetings and try subsequent changes in the programme. They had their say in it as well. I expected them to support me. (S1/ T3)
>
> I see them every day when they come to collect their child and they tell me if something is different. (S1/ T4)
>
> Communication. They'll phone us and let us know a problem, it is nice that they communicate. (S2/ T3)

The patterns of communication found in the schools with regard to parents were very individual and depended on several factors. Firstly, the particular disability the child presented appeared to have considerable effect on the contact between parent and school. Parents with children with physical, intellectual or sensory disabilities were more likely to have a close contact with the school than parents of emotionally or behaviourally disturbed children. Secondly, if a resource or special unit with a management committee was present in the school, there was a representative body for parents and a forum for their interests and concerns. An associated parent support group or the management committee served this function and there were specialist teachers who were closely involved with each child as an individual. Thirdly, the individual differences in parents and more particularly mothers, because there was a high proportion of single parent families bringing up their children alone in this group, made some parents either more or less able to communicate with the school than others. This highlighted the perceived educational gap that some parents felt existed.

For some parents the professional teacher was imbued with power and knowledge that they feel they did not have. Parents commented on this occurrence being a barrier to communication, but at the same time stated that they themselves did not feel so threatened:

> I don't think of them being higher up, you can't think of them that way. All you can think of is your child's education and what you want. They sort of come down then and become human. (S2/ PT1)

> There are still adults out there my age who believe that teachers are up here, so it must be totally overwhelming for those parents going into a school. I have changed my attitude to teachers since I had teachers who are friends. (S5/ PT1)

Because of the high expectations placed on the parents with regard to their communication with the school through the staff, a closer view was taken of how parents communicated and what the barriers were that impeded positive interaction. One parent made a general statement that she preferred relating to the teachers who had had children, because she felt they understood the particular feelings of parenthood. This was interesting, in the light of teachers and teachers aides stating that 'being a mother' was considered one of their most valuable skills in teaching children with special educational needs:

> The worst teachers are the ones who don't have any kids of their own. It is like a male doctor telling you he knows exactly what you are going through in childbirth. (S2/ PT1)

Another parent felt that if appropriate strategies were in place then not a lot of communication was necessary. However, she felt there was a difference in communication because, whereas her other children naturally brought home the school happenings, with her child with special educational needs she frequently had to make contact with school staff to get personal information over and above the school newsletter.

Yet another parent felt that there had to be different patterns of communication:

> Because our children do not speak. The majority of them do not have speech so it is important that you have [an alternative] means of communication. (S1/ PT2)

Like other parents who brought their children personally to school and into the classroom, these parents always made a point of speaking to the person who would be responsible for their children:

> I communicated with whoever I left her with and whoever was with her when I picked her up each day so I had a lot of communication and it made it much easier. (S1/ PT2)

> I probably don't have as much contact with [the sibling's] school as I do with [the child's] school mainly because I sit outside the gate and wait for her to come out to the van whereas I can't do that with [the child]. I have to go in and get him and then we discuss; "how was he today?" and if there have been any problems or anything they need to tell me or anything I need to tell them, then that is when I do it. (S1/ PT3)

This contact made with relevant staff as the respective children were delivered to and collected from school, was noted during fieldwork in the schools. It was also noted that the parents in this group did not have a lot of contact with the classroom teacher, mainly because as one parent explained:

> The one who knows most about [the child] and what goes on in the classroom is the teacher aide. (S1/ PT3)

The principals noted the difference in parental contact for those parents of children with special educational needs. The general pattern of relationships that parents had with schools and teachers, was that they tended to spend time at school in the early stages of their child's primary schooling and this lessened as their child matured. This may be one reason why Nikau school was not making satisfactory contact with its parents of children with special educational needs except on formal occasions, such as parents interviews and school productions. When a child had a special educational need, there were formal contacts such as IEP meetings which brought the child's parents into regular contact and discussion with the staff. However, although the parents were contacted at Nikau school regarding IEP meetings, they frequently became sessions attended by the classroom teacher, the teacher aide and the person responsible for these children in the school.

While regular staff contact did not normally occur with the peers' parents, informal meetings could occur when parents delivered and collected their children with special educational needs at school. The decisive points were the age, independence and the disability of the child, as a principal explained:

> I think it all comes down to the independence because while you want them to become more independent or as independent as other children, I don't think you really ever achieve it for children with special needs. They need their parents around a lot more. (S2/ P1)

This was illustrated by a mother from Rata school who considered that she did not have a lot of communication with her daughter's teacher and that most of her school contact was for her son, the child with special educational needs.

Therefore, the individual style of the principal in parental contact and the different forms which special educational needs can take, account for the formality or informality of these meetings. For one principal the meetings with his parents of children with special educational needs were clearly focussed and tended to be formal whereas other parents tended to be in and out of the school a great deal more and were actually more involved in school activities. In contrast, another style of parental relationship was commented on by the principal of Karo school. He referred to the shared partnership and commitment which occurred at an IEP meeting when parents were setting objectives and looking at outcomes on a regular basis:

> They have had to be very strong to take the courage to mainstream or take the children into a school but they were determined that that was what they wanted. (S1/P1)

A parent described these IEP contacts as "a good time" which is "often heated because there are quite a few people involved". The demands that these meetings presented to parents were considerable:

> You have to become a different person. You have to become assertive and direct and you have to convince the professionals that their view is not necessarily the view that is the most suitable for the child. You can't be the loving Mum because your child may be disadvantaged. (S1, PT1)

Because these parents at Karo school became very involved in the decision making in the school, they were very well known to all the staff. The relationship was a shared partnership and considered by the staff to be informal and relaxed. The relationship this principal had with his parents of children with special educational needs, he said, he would like to see developed to include parents of the regular students.

There was a group of parents who felt their communication with the school was the same for all their children including the child with special educational needs. However, this same group of parents were all associated with the school as parent helpers in the classrooms, the PTA or the library and this gave them direct contact with the school on a more personal basis.

Two parents expressed a feeling of guilt over their children, and acknowledged that they felt there was a definite difference in their communication patterns with their child with special needs:

> I have really been aware at times of guilt, being aware that the staff are already severely overworked. There is this teacher, she has already

> worked beyond human capacity and we are providing her with a child with extra demands and I am not giving her much back up. (S2/ PT4)
>
> I did feel different because I felt that the child caused a lot of problems not only to fellow pupils but to the teachers and I guess I felt guilty because she was mine. So I was very aware that there was a lot of time spent in that school on her and really should she be entitled to all that much more time? (S5/ PT1)

The principal of Rata school commented on this sensitivity of parents, to having frequent contacts with the school:

> "I am taking up too much of the school time" because we seem to have a number of meetings and so we don't have the informal contact to the same extent as we do with parents of children with no special needs. (S4/ P1)

Parent-school contact was a very complex relationship, but all the parents interviewed stated that they felt comfortable making contact with their respective schools and with whoever the appropriate staff person was, for their particular concern. The group of parents who were involved with the interviews were, however, those parents who were able to be contacted and were able to articulate their thoughts and feelings. Gaining contact and interviews with parents was a variable experience with Karo and Rata schools being the easiest schools to arrange meetings at and Nikau being the most difficult. The parents who did not want to be involved or who were unable to be contacted, may have presented a different picture.

In this chapter the role expectations of persons designated as 'significant others' to children with special educational needs have been explored. The interlocking relationships have shown that for successful inclusion to occur, the emphasis in the schools has been on shared responsibility and support at a personal level. Decision-making and relationships have shown awareness, empathy, responsibility and knowledge on a personal plane. Staff members who have been considered central to the process of inclusion are the teachers aides and in the course of this study, their role has been responded to with an overwhelmingly favourable picture.

9.1.5 Ancillary staff. There was unanimous confirmation of the value of the ancillary staff in the classrooms of all the five schools in the study. The teachers aides were an integral part of the organisation of the school and were held in high regard, for the support they gave both the teachers and the individual children for whom they were responsible. The principals listened to their concerns and ideas (section 9.1.2) and the parents considered that they knew their children intimately (section 9.1.4). This section will outline the different ways in which the schools used these staff

members, their conditions of employment and the approach of the management team of the school to their training.

The identification of the population of children with special educational needs in this study, rested on their having discretionary hours for teacher aide support. The request for hours in which a teacher aide may be employed to assist with individual children included steps of assessment and recommendations by the SES. These actions were then followed by an application to the regional office of the Ministry of Education. These hours were used for two purposes. Firstly, to provide physical support in the classroom associated with specific work on independent educational programmes and caring for the functional needs of the children. Secondly, some children were provided with 1:1 tuition on specific topics, as designated by the combined recommendations of the principal and classroom teacher. Principals, teachers and parents had their opinions on their expectations of the teachers aides and their comments demonstrated a very demanding and complex role.

There were a variety of ways the teacher aide assisted in the classroom. In some cases the teachers set the work the child was to do in the subject designated by the IEP, and at other times the teacher aide sat in on the teaching sessions to provide immediate answers to questions and kept the children on task. These approaches were described by teachers in this manner:

> It makes the child's input into the programme a lot more because there is someone there to assist straight away. If he is got on task with his work, he is fine. (S2/ T5)

> Her role was individual teaching and ensuring that he had up to date resources at his listening post, keeping him on task with his work and basic life skill tuition. (S2/T2)

In all cases the aim was to get the most out of the programme that was underway in the classroom. As well as the teacher aide being a tutor to the children, the relationship was closer in many instances and they were someone the children liked to go to:

> I think they offer them friendship. They are someone who is special to them and a person the children can chatter to. They do build up a good relationship. (S2/T5)

For other children, the teacher aide was there to support them *all* the time and to assist with areas stated in the IEP. For these teachers aides there was an acceptance into group activities for both themselves and the children they were helping. The teachers aides were always involved in the classroom activities, but their role was first and foremost towards the children for whom they were responsible. An additional role for

a teacher aide that was commented on by a few teachers, was that of giving the staff a break from certain children:

> It is withdrawing her. We have really got to work that one through because if somebody has [the child] for 2 hours at a stretch, there has to be breaks. (S5/T1)

> Almost time out for me initially. Time to get myself together when the programme first started. (S3/T2)

But, according to one classroom teacher it was not only the teacher who appreciates a break:

> It is a nice time out for the class. Actually it is sad that the kids pick it up. (S4/T4)

Having someone to relate to over these children, was another aspect of the teacher aide role that teachers appreciated. It was regarded as a "real big help" to be able to talk to a person who understood the frustrations of not achieving an aim and getting better results. During the period of time spent observing in the schools, the Ministry of Education was readjusting the number of discretionary hours it was allocating and this proved very demoralising to the staff of the schools. The responsibility for many of the children with special educational needs was moving to the school's arena, with the result that the staff felt their support systems for these children were disappearing, and that they were left with the consequences. To be able to talk through the frustrations of the reduction in the hours available for their children greatly helped release tensions, but most of all there was the knowledge that teachers were not isolated with these children. As a teacher remarked, "someone else will give the extra time and give it a shot".

Having an itinerant or resource teacher based in the school was another valuable source of reassurance. At Karo school the staff frequently referred to this person's skills and her presence underpinned the entire programme:

> [The itinerant teacher] is the knowledgeable one on specific skills. Having another adult in the room makes a big difference. (S1/T3)

> [The itinerant teacher] makes the final decision. (S1/T1)

The teachers were also aware of the beneficial effect of having an extra trained person to occasionally take responsibility for the class. In Karo school, with this additional trained staff member present, the teacher aide's role was able to become more widely defined, as a teacher explained:

> She makes sure [the child] is with the rest of the children, that he is sticking to his IEP goals, reinforcing them, encouraging and praising him. She might teach specific things but she doesn't just concentrate on him, she can take a group where they all support each other and help each other. (S1/T5)

When the teacher aide worked with a cluster of children in a group situation this approach became recognised as part of the daily teaching programme. Several teachers at Karo and Rata schools mentioned how they interchanged their role with the teacher aide. This gave the classroom teacher a chance to give 1:1 tuition to the child with special educational needs, while the teacher aide supervised the class. This provided the teachers with considerable satisfaction and a chance to relate to their child personally.

The pressure of the appointment system being used in Rata school was causing some stress, according to one teacher-teacher aide, and the most difficult part was the concentrated segmentation of the day. With two children with physical disabilities and exercises to supervise daily, her schedule was very tight with a situation which saw her adjusting to a different child every 30 minutes. This particular teacher aide also took the role of social worker as she admitted, "there are lots of things that I have to do with their families and the list is endless".

For some teachers aides who saw their role solely in relation to the children in their care there was deep satisfaction. This was explained as being involved with assisting the children to achieve as much independence as possible, helping them with their self esteem and providing support to enable them to cope with everyday events:

> Endeavouring to give them as much opportunity to make their needs known as individuals independently and seeing to their comforts. (S1/TA2)

> I like to be a friend, someone they can turn to and I offer them support and hopefully boost their self esteem. Support is the main thing and encouragement. (S2/TA3)

In contrast, other teachers aides took a teacher support stance. This group included all the teachers aides who were certificated teachers and the one teacher aide who had had some training at Teacher's College. They explained this in the following way:

> I work under the guidance of the teachers. I am working with in the class and that is with all the children. (S1/TA1)

> My job is to try and get the child to be part of the classroom. This may be to physically assist a child be part of a group as well as helping them share within a group. (S4/TA1)

Teachers aides were consulted on their children by professional staff, therefore they all attended the IEP meetings and assisted the teachers and parents with working out the programmes. The teachers aides met with the teachers daily, weekly, fortnightly, or monthly and made decisions on what they would like them to do. At these meetings the use of resources were discussed and the teachers aides' ideas were listened to. From a personal point of view, the teachers aides said they enjoyed a good relationship with the teachers they worked with and felt confident to mention any difficulties they encountered, if the need arose:

> The teachers are all very helpful, very flexible and they are very ready to lend an ear or give advice which is wonderful. (S2/TA3)

Pressure of time was noted during observations and discussions with teachers aides. The lack of time hindered communication between teachers and teachers aides, because the teacher had other commitments and "trying to track them down" and "keep in touch" was not easy. A desire to have more time to spend with the teachers was expressed several times and there was an admission that teachers did not have time to spare in their daily schedule. The main reason for this contact was "to check that what [the teacher aide] was doing, was what they wanted me to do". Although it was not difficult to approach the teachers, their "busy" attitude placed some teachers aides in a situation of not wanting to take up their time. This issue of time in relation to teachers is discussed further in Chapter 10. The frustrations which arose over the contextual pressures of school existence were referred to many times, but this teacher aide gave her philosophical approach to her work :

> I don't think you can do this job unless you are a very positive and optimistic person. I think you have to be a realistic person as well. (S1/TA2)

Having found out what the teachers aides were expected to do in the classroom, interest turned to what kind of person filled this role. From the principals' viewpoint, "people resources" were considered essential to putting into place in the schools the programmes designed for the children with special needs. Several principals referred to having the 'right' people and these were defined generally as "people-people", that is those with the ability to communicate and work "alongside others":

> Most of the resources are people resources because you can do more with people, than equipment and no people. People are essential. (S5/P1)

The support staff added a "different perspective to the [professional] staff", according to another principal. Making the appointment of staff to meet the needs of some of the

children was complex, as the principal of Karo explained. For some of the children at the school, the staff requirement was for a "very good physio-teacher", for others it was for a very caring teacher who was the motherly type, while still others required a person who was more intellectually far seeing and would provide a challenge to the children. Several parents referred to the importance of placing children with whoever they considered to be appropriate teachers aides. However, the person the parents considered appropriate for a teacher aide position varied from "a motherly type" to "someone who is firm and clued up". The latter type of person was required because of the ability of some children "to get around [many people] too easily". The parents were very articulate on the type of person a teacher aide should be, as this one verified:

> The person has to be flexible to do with each child what has to be done and have an insight into each child too. It is a gift isn't it? It has to be something that a person really wants to do, because it is a role that person has to be really dedicated to, to really do it well. If it is just a job, I don't think it works really. (S4/PT 1)

Appointing the appropriate person to the staff was the task of the board of trustees, with recommendations from the principal. With the high and complex expectations of the parents to meet, combined with the level of pay they were able to offer, it was not surprising that principals found the decision somewhat daunting.

Having gained information on the personal qualities for the teacher aide position, the next area of interest was to determine what the schools offered in exchange for such a complex and demanding role. It appeared that one of the most difficult aspects of employment was providing stable hours of work. The school was required to be a responsible employer and expected to consider the needs of their staff. While employing a person to work a small number of hours every day of the week was not always feasible, principals went to considerable lengths to work out a job plan that was sensible for these employees. A situation which a teacher described as absurd, was the need to employ a teacher aide prepared to work intervals of 40 minutes throughout a school day, to toilet a child with spina bifida. From a purely logistical point of view, for a principal to try and employ someone on those terms was deemed impossible.

There were several discussions on the dilemma of having to organise a fit between the needs of the children and the needs of the school, as this principal explained on one occasion:

> It does provide some difficulties in that to slot the needs of the children and their programme into the school timetable, means that you have one

> teacher aide working with two children in two different classes where a reading programme is taking place at the same time. (S2/P1)

The size of the school had an influence on the ability to propose a sensible work plan for a teacher aide. If the school was small and a child was allotted 2 1/2 hours of teacher aide time a week "to have a person come in for 1/2 hour every day, costs them more than that to get the car out". When you had a bigger school, a 15 to 20 hour week could be organised and a programme could be structured, in consultation with the classroom teacher, to give several children regular hours. Various schemes were devised to meet these individual demands. Nikau school was able to employ a full time special needs teacher using funds from the equity grant. This teacher was regarded as "a must" according to the principal, in contrast to the regular teachers aides who were considered highly by the teachers, but were not mentioned during the principal's interview. The emphasis of the programmes in this school was on the learning difficulties of the children which have largely developed from socio-economic deprivation, and not the problems associated with physical, intellectual or sensory disability. In this programme the children went to the 'special needs' teacher and the principal described the situation in the following way:

> These kids come out of class and go to another room. They are not seen as dummies. It is working so well because these kids go back feeling better about themselves and they are having success all the time. (S3/P1)

In contrast, Karo school looked beyond the needs of individual children to provide "a whole approach", so that while looking at individual needs of children the solution was "a whole package". This meant that by combining all the hours allocated, the school was able to employ teachers aides in a comprehensive scheme that provided stability for the children, and reassurance and security of employment. This resulted in a different philosophy behind the support system provided in the school, according to this principal:

> What your aim is, is to get the children to participate as much as possible in the normal classroom programme and then you bring in the support people to do that. (S1/P1)

With this approach, the principal explained, the staff were encouraging the children to follow the programme that was functioning for all the children in the classroom, and the school provided them with individual support to do so. The principal openly admitted to difficulties associated with this outlook, as the hours each child got were not clearly defined and visible:

> It is just a different approach and we are able to do it here. Perhaps some schools are not able to do that. Otherwise you are really saying this child

> is different, take him out of that situation and why don't you have a special class for these children? (S1/P1)

A parent from Karo school indicated the trust that was needed with this approach, by pointing out the disadvantage to a child who may not have received all the hours he was entitled to in a 1:1 situation. She considered this wrong as the school use of the hours were not monitored by any authority or organisation:

> [Unless a parent steps in and takes the initiative] "the teacher aide may be off doing something in some other part of the school. That is devious". (S1/PT2)

There were several references made to teachers aides not being paid enough for the responsible job they did. This was further emphasised when those teachers aides were actually certificated teachers who were employed by the school, but not taking the same responsibilities as their colleagues. Of the 13 teachers aides in this study, 6 were trained teachers and there were additional teachers in teacher aide positions in these schools, who did not qualify to be in the study. According to one parent, appointments to the position of teacher aide, should be based on whether the appointees had the knowledge that was needed to teach the children:

> I think it is strange that teachers aides who are not trained teachers are given the children with special needs because I think sometimes these children require skilled teachers. (S3/T6)

This attitude over the most appropriate person for the job was also appreciated by those holding such a position. A teacher in the situation of a teacher aide described the irony of being "paid teacher hours for working with [a child] last term", but this year "it has reverted to teacher aide hours" and "doing the same job" for less money. This was the result of the Ministry downgrading the assistance a child required from teacher to teacher aide support. The principal in this situation at Miro school, gave his explanation for the occurrence of certificated teachers in his school doing teacher aide jobs. The "point to remember", according to this principal, was that "the teachers were applying for the job of a teacher aide". The reasons for application were all personal on the part of the teachers and included: the teachers desiring part time positions, wanting extra income, teachers using this position as a stepping stone to a full time teaching job by gaining school experience, or they simply liked "being around kids and did not want the responsibility of a classroom teacher". This was verified by one of the certificated teacher-teachers aides at this school:

> I just love being in the classroom and if I can't get a teacher's job then this is the best I can get. Obviously, I would love to be paid a teacher's wage but this is the closest I can get. (S2/TA3)

If a teacher came into the school knowing that she was to be employed and paid as a teacher aide, "then we should not feel guilty that they had a teacher qualification and we should be paying them teacher rates". A teacher-teacher aide suggested that if there was "any disharmony about it then they wouldn't employ you" and a non-teacher would be employed instead. The principal of Miro concluded by commenting "we do get emotive over it and they are underpaid".

There was only one reference to having any difficulty in reconciling the two roles of teacher and teacher aide. One teacher described the "frustration" she felt at times when she would have done something in a different way. "You have no say. It is just taught and that is the way it is" was her comment. She had made a discovery about herself, however, and that was that she was a "teacher before she [was] a teacher aide" and she took her professionalism into her job.

Only one teacher aide referred to the insecurity of her position, in the only school, Nikau, where employment was based solely on the hours granted by the Ministry. As the hours fluctuated and in her case declined, so her acceptance of "not being able to fight the system" grew. She admitted to a growing cynicism as she lived from term to term not knowing her position in the future, and at the same time seeing children who needed hours not getting them. Other teachers aides generally expressed satisfaction with their work in the schools. Discussion also indicated that there was a high degree of loyalty to the schools where the teachers aides worked as this explanation shows:

> I *like* working at the school. I *enjoy* working here and I feel comfortable. If my job ended in this school, I don't know if I would go back into teacher support. I think I would go elsewhere. (S1/TA1)

A further expression of job satisfaction was seeing the improvement in the children and their obvious pleasure at wanting to work with the teachers aides. Satisfaction came from having a child "suddenly click" on something the teacher had been working on for ages, especially when they had been really trying their hardest. Another comment was "seeing the buzz" that they get out of something that is new to them or that they have created by themselves. It also came from the appreciation the children showed for the support they were given, as these comments indicate:

> They will come up and show you things, share things and it is the way they relate to you. (S4/TA2)

> Warm fuzzies. [The child] gives me warm fuzzies all the time. She just loves everything, she just laps up anything you do and she just thrives on encouragement. She is really appreciative. (S2/TA3)

> With [the child] I am a friend now which is really nice. His attitude is improving and he knows about his disability. My role at the moment is to help him improve his memory which is really bad. (S4/TA1)

Being responsible for such a change in attitude was accepted as part of the role of the teacher aide, as was also helping students accept their problems, working through the difficulties and assisting them to help themselves. The attitude of the children with special needs to their helpers was referred to as some of them exhibited gratitude for what staff were doing for them and they were "thankful". This often went unnoticed in the classroom situation, but came to the fore in their 1:1 meetings. Having a positive response from other members of staff was important to the teachers aides but as one said philosophically, "you don't do it for thanks, but it is nice when someone comes and does something positive". For one teacher aide who was working with the children who were 'multihandicapped', satisfaction came from knowing that when the child was at school "his life [was] enriched, as was everyone else's in the class, including mine".

The demands on the teachers aides were varied and exacting, the remuneration was not great and the job lacked security for many in this position, but there was considerable personal satisfaction. During observations in the schools the researcher became interested in the personal traits of these members of staff and especially in the training they had to prepare them for this complex role. Usually the teachers aides, all of whom were women, would refer to some personal strength they considered they had. In the view of one teacher aide her main attribute was "having a natural empathy and feeling right about" what she was doing. Otherwise she considered, "it would be a waste of time" trying to do the job. Being a mother herself, was also of great value she said, because "you can empathise with the struggles the parents are going through". The teachers aides who were not trained teachers had their individual backgrounds which brought some special attribute to their job. This may have been pre-school training within Playcentre, registration in the nursing field, a dental nurse or having been a mother. All these people commented on needing strengths such as "being able to relate to people", "empathy" and "confidence".

In conclusion, the structure of the schools with respect to the roles of professional and ancillary staff, boards of trustees and the parents have illustrated the multiple expectations and contributions which are brought into the school culture. The detailed analysis of the teacher aide role was carried out as a result of the unanimous response of the contribution of these staff members in the schools. The 'whole' school was influenced by the legislation which allowed inclusion to occur, but for those involved

the responses and decision making were being made on a very personal level. When a child with special educational needs was enrolled and admitted into a classroom individual responses were set in motion. During this Implementation Phase, the school management responded to each child's needs on an individual basis directed by the leadership inherent in the school culture. This chapter to this stage has demonstrated the personal nature of the role interactions and relationships which have been summarised in Table 9.1.

The roles form the basic units of the school social structure, but the norms and belief systems which influence how the role typifications occur are responses to the school culture, therefore that must be the next area for exploration. In the next section, four areas of the school culture which have a direct bearing on these roles, will be examined to demonstrate how decision making within the school culture influences the attitude and outcome of inclusion. In the course of the fieldwork and during the interviews two aspects of school culture were repeatedly mentioned. These were the gaining of resources and the communication within the schools. Two other areas which influenced the response of professional staff to inclusion were the relationships which had been forged with outside agencies and the direction of staff development and training. These four areas of school culture will be explored, in relation to supporting children with special needs in the schools in this study.

9.2 The School Culture and Special Educational Needs.

Twelve areas of school culture have been identified by Sapher and King (1985) as being important in maintaining significant, continuous and widespread change within a school. This section emphasises the role of both governance and management in meeting four of these criteria. A detailed examination of the ability of the principals to "reach out to knowledge bases", encourage "open, honest communication" and provide "tangible support" with regard to children with special educational needs will be carried out (p.2). One area of the school culture, the "collegiality" present in the school, has been discussed (section 9.1). Another element Sapher and King suggest as important in school change is the strengthening of teacher skills. The attitudes of professional staff to the government policies and administrative reforms permeate the areas of resource allocation and communication, with decision-making at Ministry of Education level causing negative responses. The other two areas of staff development and outside agency contact are much more responsive to personal influence.

9.2.1 Contact with outside agencies. The place of the SES in relation to inclusion was examined as the possible 'knowledge base' which a principal would use. Contact with outside agencies appeared to be less formal and more regular, rather than on request and it was the personal communication on an informal basis which proved to be most successful. Schools appreciated assistance in this way.

The expertise and service offered by the SES were used by all the principals in this study and they acknowledged their value as this comment affirms:

> We have an SES person who is looking after the needs of the school, who is providing excellent service for us in terms of parent programmes, supporting the teachers, and is part of a network that is readily available to me. (S4/P1)

The contact made with the SES was generally in response to a problem, it was a role expectation the principal answered and each had their own style of communication. The SES was expected to support the school in making application to the Ministry of Education, as the principal of Karo explained:

> We rely on them supporting our case to the Ministry as well as helping with the training process. As a principal, I need them to be very aware of when we need support and we let them know and we get action. (S1/ P1)

This principal was unsure whether their success was because of the severity of some of the impairments of the children at the school or whether it was because the school had proved itself. Again, the rating of an application as 'reasonable' and showing commitment, was regarded as assisting the cause:

> You can't just rely on SES support, you have to have input yourself, and you have to be realistic as there will never be enough money. You must have the required data and set up the required structure before you go to the SES, and you will get a more sympathetic response. (S1/ P1)

One important consideration, according to the principal of Karo, was the effort of "trying to help ourselves first":

> We do IEPs well and we don't ask for ridiculous requests. If we make a request they know it is genuine, because we have assessed it carefully and we are not wasting their time. (S2/ P1)

The relationship being developed since the passing of the Education Act, 1989 has become more personal and one of mutual interaction. Working with one key person in the SES was the approach the principal of Titoki took. The many changes the organisation had experienced over the last few years had been unsettling in this principal's mind and he had sought out "one person who knows the school and will

Schools	Karo	Miro	Nikau	Rata	Titoki
Role Expectations: *BOTs*	Principal expected to advise of needs and be funded Teachers expected personal knowledge of pupils and teachers	Principal expected to advise of needs and be funded Teachers expected their needs to be met and funded	Ambiguity of role Principal expected to tell problem and solution Expectations vague Teachers felt board not well informed	Principal expected to tell problem and solution Teachers expected support, empathy and resources	Principal expected to advise of needs and be funded Teachers expected their needs to be met and funded
Principal	BOT has partnership with principal Teachers expected pastoral care, listen and solve problems	BOT liaises with principal Teachers thought principal a contact person to listen, support and find solution	BOT to support principal Staff felt cut off from their principal although admitted they could easy access him	BOT has partnership with principal Teachers expected visible support in school and educational leadership	BOT to support principal Teachers thought principal a contact person to listen, support and find solution
Teachers	Collegiality; awareness and appreciation of each other Share children	Collegial support informal Share children	Expect collegial support but more formal Teacher responds to own children	Expect collegial support Share children	Expect collegial support Share children

Table 9.1 **Summary of Implementation Phase - Role expectations**

continued over page

Schools	Karo	Miro	Nikau	Rata	Titoki
Parents	Principal expected to always be availablefor parents Expected to get resources for children	Principal expected to communicate pertinent information	Principal expected to communicate pertinent information Principal considered that parents know their children	Principal expected to communicate pertinent information	Principal expected to communicate pertinent information
	Principal encouraged team approach	Responsibility for getting resources for children	Responsible for getting best deal for children	Principal encouraged team approach	Responsible for getting best deal for children
	Teachers expected communication, support, assistance	Teachers expected communication, support, assistance	Teachers expected communication, support, assistance	Teachers expected communication, support, assistance	Teachers expected communication, support, assistance
	Parents generally met professional staffs' expectations	Parents generally met professional staffs' expectations	Professional staffs' expectations not always met, especially with children with emotional and behavioural problems	Professional staffs' expectations not always met, especially with children with emotional and behavioural problems	Parents generally met professional staffs' expectations
Specialist staff	Itinerant teacher permanently at school	Resource and itinerant teachers permanently at school	Teacher employed by school to meet learning needs of wide group Itinerant teacher visits	Itinerant teacher visits	Itinerant teacher visits

Table 9.1 **Summary of Implementation Phase - Role expectations**

work for it". This personal approach was illustrated by an adviser from the SES who spoke of the importance of building up a relationship with the school as a whole and the teachers in particular, as she provided advice, support and guidance:

> Generally, I just work through the teachers. They know who I am, they know how to get me, they know how I work, and you get a feel with each other and you are accepted. I am there to see what I can do and if I can't do anything then I will find someone else who can. That is the relationship we should have. (S/A)

To the principal of Nikau school, the SES was regarded as a provider of information on the children. who required assessment. The school could say to the Ministry, "the SES has assessed this child" and their recommendation was put in with the school's application for resources. However, within the school, the role of the SES was considered more personally supportive by the staff member who was responsible for children with special needs, giving credence to the value of networking and personal involvement. The importance of the combined personal approaches of the SES, police and social welfare which had been developed was also noted by the staff member, who inherited the responsibility for children with special educational or social needs at Nikau school:

> If you need them for anything they are on the phone and quite often one of them will get in here straight away. (S3/ DP2)

The important factors were that the help was easily accessed, was provided where and when it was needed, the teachers felt they could voice a concern informally and the principals encouraged building up a professional relationship with certain specialist advisers. This relationship was a response to the method of gaining resources and the need to have an understanding advocate for the children, as well as to the changing face of special education and the developing policies of the SES. The teachers variously described the SES as a resource which provided support, listening skills, consultation, a source of advice and a backup for the classroom management of specific children. The communication and speedy attendance at a school having difficulties was considered extremely important by the staff. Many teachers referred to the skill, the swift decision making and the driving force of the principal as being essential in getting that attention, as two staff members explained:

> They are there for professional guidance. If you call upon them, you expect them to be there to help. Once the SES is involved with a child they are very good. (S2/T2)

> To be on the other end of the telephone if they are needed. (S4/ T3)

The professional staff had high expectations of the specialist advisers and they did provide a valuable support system. The teachers required the SES to be responsive to their needs and to provide not only professional guidance, but also practical support in the form of programmes and materials. When the support was informal, friendly, within the teacher's classroom and regular, the classroom teacher was relaxed concerning the children with special educational needs. A few teachers differentiated between "guidance", which they felt was being told what to do, and "guidance within a programme" which both assisted them in knowing *how* to do certain actions and supported them. It was in the area of providing individual ideas to teachers with regard to programmes that teachers found the SES advisers very useful, as this teacher explained:

> You have so many things to think about and you do get bogged down with these particular things. You need someone to come with outside views and ideas. Some of these things sound so simple when they say them, and we think "Oh! Why couldn't we have come up with that". (S2/ T5)

The frequent and low key presence of SES personnel in Karo school, provided a different view on consultation and IEP preparation. The teachers appreciated the team approach that developed and felt comfortable in seeking informal help:

> That was wonderful support. I am aware of what she is doing and her ideas and suggestions and I try to back that up when I can. (S1/ T4)

> She is supportive, she keeps us informed about what is happening and she explains things. Like a lot of the terminology they use sometimes. I don't understand it and she explains it in simple language. (S1/ T5)

This ongoing and regular support gave teachers considerable confidence, which was not apparent in the comments of a few teachers whose request for assistance was associated with stress or classroom problems:

> I think some people think they are failing if they need to get help or that their staff aren't coping. (S2/ T4)

The professional staff considered it was valuable to have ongoing informal support, advice and intervention before problems arose, rather than wait for some difficulty to arise and then request help. This sapped confidence and created stress.

The importance of the educational role of the SES with regard to IEP writing was recognised by many teachers. Three schools in the study had used SES personnel to organise IEP training sessions.

In summation, the role of the SES in the schools was considered important and was valued by practically all professional staff. Generally, this contact was in response to a direct problem in the school although there were specialist advisers who made regular visits of an informal type to provide regular support. This regular and more personal support was encouraged by the principals concerned and appreciated by the teaching staff. The teachers regarded guidance associated with a specific programme for children as the most useful form of support the SES could provide, because they considered they needed to know what they could do in a given situation, as well as how to carry the action through. They also worked under contract to the Ministry of Education, to provide assessment which was used in determining the allocation of resources prior to consideration for discretionary hours. Two principals suggested that if the school had tried to find answers for its problems before asking for assistance they were received positively. All the schools in the study at various times had shown this in their approaches to the SES and the principals suggested the positive responses they had experienced proved this fact.

The next aspect of school culture to be discussed will be the mechanisms used in gaining resources, and the role of the principal in this procedure. Again, the personal aspects of all interactions within the school culture are noticeable.

9.2.2 Resources and support. No single item in this study caused as much discussion, emotive response, and information as this topic. Discussions on inclusion generally revolved around this topic, and success or failure at gaining discretionary hours was regarded as a personal challenge. This section will address the issue from the viewpoint of applying for the funding, the effect of having the resources, and the concerns expressed regarding this support.

There was an overwhelming opinion that funding for discretionary hours was hard won and immensely valuable. The application for these hours was the responsibility of the principal and he was the driving force behind the process. Three of the principals discussed the approach they now used in this application process, based on having data collection by all their staff to support their case, and this illustrated how the system directed the acquisition of skills:

> You have to have all the data available so you have the network set up within the school. We are pooling all the data, so each teacher is covered, each syndicate is covered and this comes into a central pool. (S1/ P1)

> It is no use if there is no data. I expect the teachers to do the work but you can't teach special needs children if you have not got the data. (S3/ P21)

To this end principals encouraged their teachers to keep many more records so it was not "traumatic to have to find them" when they were required. The principals were adamant, that it was essential to have specific data for each application, and they had learned to make a case for resources for each child. The background work with data collection, assessments and IEP meetings generally involved the classroom teacher, an itinerant or special teacher, frequently a psychologist or speech therapist and the parents of the child concerned. The most common factor referred to in this application process was the amount of time consumed by the activity, coupled with the frustration of the repetitive nature of the event. This had two effects: firstly, it meant that principals were trying to plan on a short term basis, that is from one allocation to the next; and secondly, principals regarded the procedure as a considerable waste of time because it was frequently unsuccessful. The comments made in the discussion on discretionary hours bear out the deep frustration this process evoked:

> One answer to that is painful. It is painful because we prepare cases only to be told there are no resources. We even get told that some of our children are not as needy as others and our children are not far enough behind *yet*. (S5/P1)

> I think the process can be extremely time consuming, repetitive and laborious. (S3/DP1)

There was a general lack of comprehension of the system and the criteria used in the decision making of how the hours were allotted. The system was regarded as "antiquated and not needed" by one principal, and "groaning at the seams". by another. The Ministry was excused because those who worked there "are grossly overworked people". The principals commented on the considerable frustration of passing documents backwards and forwards between the Ministry and the SES, as well as the letter writing that was involved. The government's position was mentioned by yet another principal who hastened to add that the SES was also "not to blame because they never have enough time". The principals considered *they* did not have enough time either, but they still went through what became a "very time consuming activity" not really believing that it was the most effective way of working. This frustration was illustrated in this comment:

> Each year should not be dependent on your literary skills or the lack of, or on the whims and wishes of someone else who thinks that because there is improvement we will cut them back. (S3/P1)

The mechanism was considered too cumbersome because of the time spent collating all the material from parents and teachers, and bringing it all together into a package in order to apply for the hours. There were different reasons proffered for making success more of a certainty, and one of these was to not ask for things you don't

need. The five schools in this study participated in the consultation rounds of SEPIT (3.2.6). The message that was taken back to the schools was that the resources available for special education were considered finite, that the government wanted to use these in the "best and fairest way" and therefore choices had to be made. Teachers managing 36 to 37 children daily found it difficult to reconcile the information gathering process of SEPIT with the loss of teacher aide hours from a classroom. Another outcome of these consultation rounds was that there was little support for the categories defining disability as outlined in the *Statement of Intent*. The concerns which surrounded the equitable distribution of resources remained. Principals understood that there were finite means and spoke of the "redistribution of resources that are there". The "whole area of special education [became] very emotive" rather than "what is really best and what is practical". Feelings were expressed of "not envying the team their task in making recommendations" over the allocation of resources. The suggestion was made that if schools adopted the attitude that "yes, we will enrol you but no, we will not admit you until those resources are in place" then the process of rationalisation and decision making would be hastened (section 8.1). It appeared that the principals considered that there was a need for some form of arbitration that would say "the need for this child is greater than the need for that child" and using this reasoning one principal was able to accept that some of his children's hours were cut:

> We have been disappointed but we have just got on with it. It is not a bottomless pit and some of us get something out of it and others not. The kids have still received quality time. (S2/P1)

The result was that the board of trustees in this particular school supported the need for some discretionary hours for one child, and covered the cost for a time until other arrangements could be made.

While the principal was considered directly responsible for gaining the discretionary hours, the involvement of the classroom teacher in decision making related to resource application was of interest. When a child was under the supervision of an itinerant or special teacher, the decision as to use of the hours was usually worked out at the IEP meetings with the specialist teacher taking the organising role in preference to the classroom teacher:

> I don't have much or anything to do with what is taught during that time. Knowing the objectives set out during the IEP, that is the only contact I have. (S1/T3)

> I don't have anything to do with that which seems very strange. (S5/T2)

> We have the luck of having a teacher aide who is a trained teacher so I don't actually have to prepare the programme. I fit in with her prepared programme. It is a breeze for me. (S4/T1)

This was one of several times that it became apparent that whenever there was specialist help available, the classroom teacher tended to back away from involvement with the children's programmes. This caused a teacher to describe her role as being one that was to "complement the IEPs" and "reinforce specific areas" discussed at IEP meetings (section 9.1.5). Her responsibility was to integrate the child into the class while the resource teacher concentrated on the teaching programme. This led to a tendency for some classroom teachers not to know exactly what the child was learning during these sessions, as they placed responsibility for the child with another person. However, the satisfaction which can occur when a teacher does become involved in a entire application process for discretionary hours, including the writing of the IEP using personal "data, observations" and a training session with an outside specialist adviser, is considerable. The result described by a teacher from Titoki school was that she felt "respected for what she had done".

Having gained the hours, what was the value placed on them by the teachers? Practically all the teachers considered that if the children did not have individual tuition sessions available because of the use of discretionary hours, progress for many of them would be slowed. The reason as the classroom teachers explained, was that they did not have the time to meet these children's needs in the classroom situation:

> We could meet her needs up to a point, but we just couldn't get to her on a daily basis. She just wouldn't be making the progress she is making. (S2/T4)

> If we didn't have those hours it would be a nightmare. I would be solely responsible for all her special needs. She would have an individual programme for every subject and I would have to manage that one myself, whereas now I am just the overseer. (S2/T7)

> It was great. It meant that there were 5 hours a week when she was getting 1:1 teaching. There was some really effective teaching happening over and above the minimal time I could give her. The quality learning time in a week was increased. (S2/T1)

For those children who required teacher aide support for the whole school day, the teachers accepted that if the support was not there, the children would not be in their classroom:

> There are people there all the time. There is just no argument. Otherwise the rest of the class suffers while you are getting them organised. (S2/T8)

> [The child] could not be in the classroom without a full time helper. There is no way we as teachers would be able to cope with him. (S1/T1)
>
> They wouldn't have been here without the support. It is all very well to have it down in theory but (if) you can't implement it with 35 other children. You can't teach children and run a special programme as well. (S1/T3)

During the study numerous discussions occurred on the importance of discretionary hours and the teacher aide support to the wellbeing of the child. Concerns were expressed about discretionary hours as children had their support either reduced or cut. This had a very demoralising effect on the staff who were associated with the particular children, and caused some backlash against the government's approach to inclusion. Once again the decisions made by the government and actioned at Ministry level caused emotive reactions. In this situation it was because the personal side of the teachers work with their pupils was influenced by impersonal decisions. The most frequent observation was a reference to the money saving tactics of the government. For some teachers, there was a lack of understanding of the motives behind the cutting of hours to children, when in their view, they should have been increased:

> There was no reason at all as to why they should have been cut because there was certainly the need. They certainly couldn't have written a letter saying "we feel [the child] has improved so much we feel we can cut her hours". There is no way that could have happened. She has improved but only slightly. I was angry. (S3/T4)

This particular teacher described the 'big spiel' from the Ministry of Education that notified the cut in hours. This had caused dismay because the pupil had, in her own way, tried very hard. Cynicism crept into the discussion as the teacher commented on how the child "did not rock the boat", neither did her parents come down to school every day demanding "what was happening", "kicking up a ruckus" or "going to the Ministry". With the realisation that there was a limit to the amount of money to share around, the principals had started to look at whether for the time involved, it was the best way to generate a small amount of money. According to the principal of Miro school:

> To generate income actually costs money and I am not sure whether it is a worthwhile proposition. (S2/P1)

Disillusionment was also shown towards the applications for resources when, for many of these children, their disabilities were not going to change from year to year.

For some children with individual support in the classroom, the hours were readjusted downwards. For others the responsibility for providing support was placed on the

schools. Discretionary hours for some children continued the same as usual or were downgraded from teacher to teacher aide support. One common theme on teachers' minds was that their hard work and successes with the children, appeared to be read by the local Ministry of Education as a reason to cut back on support. This caused dismay, as teachers felt they had to be careful how and when they expressed their pleasure in progress. To take the support away, according to these teachers, would mean a certain decline in children's progress. With reference to one child, a teacher stated:

> The only thing we are really scared about now is that because she has made such progress and is doing so well, she could lose [the hours]. (S2/T4)

The teachers frequently discussed their understanding of the situation. The result was that teachers doing IEPs took special care in being very specific as to the children's status. It was considered the teacher's responsibility, along with any specialist adviser, to have the details available and that they be accurate. The advice the teachers had been given was to be very specific about their aims for the children and their plans for future educational moves, because the panel making the decisions did not know the children. The writing of the IEPs and the application for discretionary hours was a considerable responsibility, which professional staff took very personally when considering their success or failure at the task. "We don't want to lose her hours", stated one teacher, as she described how if they did not get it right, they would be letting the child down. Where the classroom teachers were not involved because resource or itinerant teachers had taken responsibility, there were carefully chosen answers to describe individual reactions to losing discretionary hours.

Other teachers were more emotive concerning the cutting back of the discretionary hours their children had experienced:

> I feel really angry. I would like to see some of the politicians come into my classroom and spend a day teaching those kids. (S2/T7)

> She doesn't have any specific hours this year. Every year we fight for hours and we get less and less and less. (S3/T1)

Frustration was another feeling the teachers referred to, as they felt powerless because there was nothing they could do about it and they considered there was a lack of recognition of the problems:

> They are not valuing the needs of these children and they are not valuing what is needed to teach them. They have *special needs.* (S2/T7)

The personal level of interactions with the SES were noted, when a teacher admitted that all the specialist advisers she had contact with "are fighting for us" (section 9.2.1). They were all "on the side of the teacher and trying their best to stretch the allocation of hours as far as it [could] go". Other teachers referred to feeling guilty about not being able to give enough quality time to the children, when there were over 30 children in a room. The comment from one of these teachers was, that "those children are really left to fend for themselves in many respects, because they lack independence and because academically they are very limited". For some children, unless they had close supervision, the amount of learning or constructive involvement in school activities was considered very limited, according to some teachers. Observations in the classrooms demonstrated this (Appendix 1).

Another example of the personal difficulties the resource allocation procedures at Ministry of Education level were causing in the schools, occurred at Nikau school. The uncertainty of having hours caused considerable stress where a child with behaviour problems required almost constant supervision and caring. The lack of continuity of support caused concern as verification of hours did not come through on time, delayed payment for the employed caregiver caused embarrassment, there was a break in the programme and the child was unsupervised in the classroom while allocation procedures were worked through. However, for those students whose hours continued unchanged, there was considerable realism in the approach most of the teachers took to the number of discretionary hours their pupils received. "We could always have more but she is getting a good amount", said one teacher. Another teacher qualified this with the comments, "she is joining in, she is learning enough and what she is getting is worthwhile".

The insecurity over inclusion which existed in the schools in this study, was demonstrated most vividly in the section on resources and discretionary hours. The professional staff discussed their guilt, frustration, anger, responsibility and powerlessness with regard to this aspect of inclusion. They talked of cutbacks in hours, their success and hard work being rewarded with the losing of support as they made progress. They tried to be realistic and to justify their situation. At Karo and Miro schools they considered that they were realistic on the economic situation with regard to their pupils. However, they knew that many of their children would not be in the classrooms without the extra support and they acknowledged their dependency on it. It appeared that the greatest need was to have a principal whom was forceful at working the system and knowledgeable in who to approach, where and most importantly, when. Although the application for resources was considered an

expectation of the role of the principal as leader in the school following action at a management level, the results from this action were felt at a very personal level. Those results were observed in the interactions and relationships between the teachers and their pupils (sections 9.1.5, 10.9.1-4).

To this point, the discussion on the interactions and relationships of role incumbents has highlighted the leadership style of the principal, the importance of the support of specialist advisers at a personal level, the emotive feelings which have arisen from resource allocation procedures, the expressed feelings of powerlessness in many cases, and the demands on time in others. The importance of collegiality to inclusion was noted in section 9.1. The unifying factor with regard to all these aspects of inclusion was the communication pathways used in the school community.

9.2.3 Communication networks. The observational time spent in the schools indicated there was a link between the dissemination of information on inclusion in schools, the leadership values, and the school culture. The implementation of change and the communication paths used are open to misunderstanding, according to Fullan (1991). He considered, a cardinal fact of social change "is that people will always misinterpret and misunderstand some aspect of the purpose or practice of something that is new to them" (p.199). In the light of Fullan's comments, this section will consider how those involved in this change received and distributed information on the policy of special education, and the reactions that occurred to this communication. There are two communication pathways to be examined; those between the Ministry of Education and the schools and the networks within the schools.

Communication on the mainstreaming of children from the Ministry of Education following the Education Act, 1989 was complicated by a change of government and with it, a decline in commitment to inclusion. The result was that during the early stages of the implementation of inclusion, the changes that were occurring started causing public distress and uncertainties. At this time the media was regularly reporting on controversial issues surrounding mainstreaming and these included special school closures, the refusal of enrolment at regular schools of some children with disabilities, reduction in staff positions at special schools, and the difficulties of accessing resources. Newspaper reports detailed positive experiences of inclusion (Dominion, April 22, 1990, The Daily News, September 26, 1990) and personal instances, where mainstreaming was not considered the answer by parents and care-givers (Dominion, May 6, 1990; Waikato Times, June 17, 1990). At this time the Lough Report was presented indicating a need to address the problem of funding

locked into special schools, classes and units, which was considered to be of more benefit for supporting inclusive students in regular education (section 3.2.4). In November, 1991 the new government presented the framework of its intentions for special educational policy in the *Statement of Intent.* While research was proceeding the subject of special education and inclusion was frequently reported on television and in the newspapers, as well as in professional publications such as Rourou, Education Today, and The Education Gazette. Newsletters like Te Karere gave special education information from the Ministry of Education which kept the schools informed on changes in general, and on the allocation of discretionary teacher and teacher aide hours. The New Zealand School Trustees' Association and the Special Education Service kept the schools informed on their organisation's position on the educational changes. The result was that a constant supply of information on special education policy reached the schools. How the schools received this information and responded to it is the content of the next section, because it provided a reflection of both personal attitudes and school culture. This response has been considered in two sections. Firstly, the general response to the formal notification of government policy through reports and secondly, the personal reaction to this information which frequently was reported in the professional journals and newsletters. Particular attention will be given to the leadership role of the principal with regard to communication within the schools.

All the schools received copies of the *Statement of Intent* (1991) (section 3.2.5). The *Statement of Intent* was considered by the researcher to be a document that teachers should have been aware of, and one which could be traced within the schools communication network. Generally, all communications on children with special educational needs received by the school through the mail went onto the principal's desk. It was then distributed in two ways. Firstly, if there was a special unit or a person responsible for special needs these documents were directed there, after the principal had read them. Secondly, if there was no special unit or specialist person on the staff the documents were either filed or copied and personally distributed to any person considered by the principal to be directly concerned. Sometimes these documents were put on coffee tables in the staff room or on a reading rack. Principals frequently drew staff attention to the arrival of such communications, but often information did not reach those for whom it was intended. The result of this distribution method was that those who were interested in special education, that is the specialist person on the staff, the principal and those schools with resource units, read and discussed the information. In the same schools, regular teachers with children with special educational needs in their classrooms might never see the communication, because it became "special".

The classroom teachers were asked about their knowledge of the *Statement of Intent,* a document which outlined the government's proposed policy for special education. Three-quarters of the classroom teachers who had children in their classrooms who would be affected by its contents, had not read this document and for a variety of reasons did not follow up on promptings of its arrival at school. These teachers commented that they knew nothing of its contents. However, the principal and deputy principal frequently brought relevant information to a staff meeting and some teachers reported that possibly they had missed that particular presentation. A few teachers had glanced over the document but "could not tell what was is in it". For others the time factor was the reason they gave, for not being familiar with it:

> I haven't read it and I haven't got time. The trouble is they are putting out so much stuff like that for teachers to read and they are so intense that we never read them. (S4/T4)
>
> I have glanced at it but not digested it. So much is being thrown at teachers all at once. I'm concentrating on science and mathematics. (S5/T1)

For some teachers the question posed at the interview was the first time they had heard of the document:

> I haven't seen this document. It is very interesting because I am working particularly with children with special needs, not only in the classroom but individually on withdrawal from the classroom programmes. (S2/T4)
>
> No I don't think my eyes have seen it. I haven't studied it. They would not have gone to us because they would have gone over there [to the resource centre]. (S2/T2)
>
> No I haven't a clue about any of it. I'm sure if our teachers of special needs got hold of the information something would be done with it. When you are in a large school and they are the major minority, that is probably why. That is a lot of 'hu-ha' for a small number of children. (S3/T5)

Other teachers who did not know the document, spoke on how the frequent changes in the system had made them disinterested:

> There have been so many changes It is an attitude thing as well. (S3/T1)
>
> I am a bit naughty. I don't read them and they seem to change so often. It is a bit unsettling. (S3/T6)

The teachers who had read the *Statement of Intent* were all in deputy principal and management roles. For those teachers in special units or directly involved with children with special needs, but not as a regular classroom teacher, the *Statement of Intent* was "read and re-read".

A few teachers had kept up to date with messages from the Minister by reading The Education Gazette. In general however, the task of being informed about inclusion in schools was left to those considered specialists or responsible for that area of school management. Similarly, in the governance areas of the school the decision making was usually regarded as the task of those with specialist training or accountability, however, those persons actually holding these positions frequently considered themselves as frustrated as the regular teachers. This aspect will now be discussed with regard to other sources of information on inclusion policy.

The SES who "transmitted information to the school on both a general basis and a personal level" were mentioned positively. The ability of those personally involved in the school were praised because "they try to help us see things in perspective". The newsletter and the personnel of the SES were regarded as a useful source of information, as were also communications from the New Zealand School Trustees' Association. The NZEI set up a Special Education Committee to monitor special education, and the frequent reports in Rourou proved a very important source of information for teachers. The local Ministry received information on government policy and passed this on to the schools in their newsletter, Te Karere. However, when asked to discuss communication between the Ministry of Education and the schools, the conversation turned from content to the relationship with particular people in this organisation. Four of the principals responded positively about the Ministry of Education's representative with whom they had contact, and spoke personally on the degree of support their school had experienced. Therefore, although there was criticism of the manner in which inclusion was being implemented and of the resource allocation procedures, this was not directed at the persons who made the government's policy a reality.

One problem associated with the information given to these schools, was that with so many changes made in policy decisions, additional material was greeted with scepticism. A principal summed this up by saying:

> What we have seen are early decisions being rushed, and because they are rushed there are bad decisions being made and they have to backtrack. (S4/P1)

The changing government policy was reflected in the principals' flexibility and acceptance of having to lead their schools through whatever happened. All the principals indicated there would be no alteration in the basic values that the school stood for. However, the changes had caused a variety of emotions to colour their

approach to inclusion and the constant re-addressing of the resource allocation issue, as the principal of Karo illustrated:

> It is like a pack of cards. You are not going to get any more funding, it is just like reshuffling it. I also feel it is a power thing to a degree as I notice they are cutting funding from the bigger schools and institutions and they have reallocated from that. I am sure it is political pressure. (S1/P1).

On discussing the depth of being personally informed on special education, the principal of Rata referred to the issue having to be kept in perspective:

> It is a matter of how much you can do in the hours available and to be perfectly realistic, it is only one facet of education. But we have made an effort. (S4/P1)

There was a relationship between the principals' attitudes to the government policy, the amount of information they received and what they did with it when it reached the schools. The principal's leadership role influenced the dissemination of information and the involvement of other staff members, and this reaction to incoming information shall now be considered.

The dissension which occurred and was noted earlier in this section influenced the distribution of information, according to two principals, and the result was that 'mainstreaming' became a bad word in the eyes of the Minister because it involved political pressure. The government had tried to counteract it with information, but these principals felt it aggravated the situation:

> Then they can get the factions at each other's throats.
> (S1/ P1)

> There is so much conflict in it, it is just not operating. (S2/P1)

This approach caused many people to become 'uptight' as one group felt threatened and disadvantaged compared to the other groups. The example given, was setting the special schools against the inclusive schools:

> I think it has become a real political football and it wasn't until this implementation team came around that it was really highlighted. I have been to two of the meetings and parents were *very, very* upset because they could see that they are going to lose their rights in their approach to be able to get support. (S1/P1)

That decisions were being made by people who were "outside the whole scene" was a crucial point to this principal because as he described, "we are dealing with children, we are not dealing with products and that is the difference". This was a criticism

which illustrated the assumed gap between policy developers and implementers discussed in section 3.5.

Attention was drawn to one other factor, that of parents who have started to demand services for their children and the advocates who support them in their bid. Principals were very aware of the communication networks out in the society they served:

> Parents have become very strong about what they want for their children and you have got some very powerful lobbies that have arisen and are supporting parents to get rights for their children. (S1/P1)

It was against this background of frustration, cynicism and justification that the regular staff received their information on inclusion. It is useful at this stage to reconsider the maxim of understanding a person's behaviour in the light of the social structure and the historical time in which it develops. On the one hand, principals related the difficulties of limited finance and the difficult job held by those allocating the resources, and on the other the personal cost of parental aspirations, children's needs and teachers' support. It was here that the ambivalence experienced by professional staff working in inclusive situations was most noticeable. During fieldwork, the relationship between the communication pathways and the school culture was noted. Where there was a sense of collegiality, support, and leadership from management in relation to children with special educational needs there was a recognised and reliable communication network. As the personal level of the decision making and its importance to successful inclusion was becoming apparent, the researcher needed to understand how staff members gained their information on which to base these decisions.

Those in management positions considered the gaining of information as vital to their decision making, and they considered they required information in more depth and of a different type to the classroom teachers:

> I rely on other people to feed me information on all those areas and that does happen. We rely on [the itinerant teacher] to bring forward any information that she feels we *must* know about or *should* know about. If any new publication comes out she refers it to us. There is the principal who is also 'watch dogging' and who is also reading a lot of the information that is coming through the schools. (S1/T1)

This reliance on principals and management staff was referred to by many teachers, lending credence to the fact that this group of professionals had to be up to date with all the changes in policy. It also reaffirmed that inclusion was occurring in these schools to the degree it was, because of the personal values of the principals. Teachers

commented on their principal's "high interest" and their being "a little bit lucky" because of this fact:

> [The principal] has expertise in that area. He is our resource person. (S5/T1)

Unless new statements or documents were personally delivered these were usually claimed by staff from the special units or specialist staff, if they were on campus, and the result was the classroom teachers did not receive this information. It was frequently 'lost' if there was not personal delivery. In Miro school, copies of information went to the nominated trustee representative on 'special needs' and the resource centre, and the classroom teachers did not receive the information unless the senior resource teacher passed it on. In this way information on inclusion became 'special'. There was often personal decision making in what information was passed on and this was referred to several times by teachers in different schools:

> [The principal] brings them in and says "you might be interested in this". Things seem to come directly through to the unit and we seem to be fairly lucky. (S2/T3)

> I guess whatever comes in is passed on to us if [the principal] feels it is necessary. (S4/T2)

> [The principal] is very good at passing information on to people. If it is curriculum specific he will put it in the person's cubby hole, if he feels it is worth telling everybody about he will do so. If it is worthwhile, he will file it and know where it is if someone asks about it. But for something like [inclusion], that is something that is never brought up or highlighted. (S2/T5)

Therefore, where there was no designated staff member detailed to handle incoming information on children with special educational needs, it generally fell to the lot of the principal to decide what to do with it.

Staff meetings were another avenue for information dissemination, but teachers admitted if they were to gain anything from the information being passed around they had to become involved:

> Word of mouth. You hear something floating and you'd think I'd better find out something about that. (S2/T1)

> I am told, I don't go in search of it. I suppose we are not well informed as individual teachers on what is happening in the future. (S4/T3)

> I don't go out of my way to hunt it down I suppose you could say, but what is available to me I would read. (S3/T5)

While some information was put in the staff room and in some teachers 'cubby holes' by the person responsible for children with special needs in Nikau school, in Karo school a staff member took this responsibility very seriously. The staff depended on this contact and responded to it positively:

> I have three children and I have to rely on [the person] a great deal to guide me on the information on special needs. I certainly think she keeps us informed. She does a pretty good job. (S1/T5)
>
> [The principal] is very good at passing on the information. I get a lot of stuff. I feel I should be doing an awful lot more reading. (S1/T3)
>
> [The person] is really good. She lets us know what is happening with current events and politically with children with special needs. (S1/T4)

One point which requires emphasis is the importance of the selection of the persons to receive information, because the responsibility for its dissemination depended on their interest, drive, organisation and enthusiasm. A "very good communication network" was how the principal of Karo school described his school's information distribution system. This principal read every piece of information on special educational needs which came into the school, it was photocopied and the deputy principal had the responsibility of personally giving it to the appropriate people on the staff:

> Anything that involves teachers we discuss. We went through the special education policy booklet and we went through it in a parent's meeting and we invited people from the community to come to the meeting. (S1/P1)

This principal also shared any information he received exclusively, with other principals in his cluster group.

At Rata school, the staff representative was used to report on the board of trustees' meetings to the staff and the minutes of the meetings were freely available. The principal ruefully admitted "the trouble is people don't read them". Another view he held was that unless teachers were heavily involved in the area of interest they would not show too much concern:

> They are wanting to get on and do their own job, they are too busy teaching the kids. Unless they directly see that they are going to lose something, they don't seem to worry too much. (S4/P1)
>
> I believe that most teachers themselves are so busy just getting on with their work that this change should not directly affect them in the classroom. It is to do with resourcing for those children and as long as they have what they have at the moment, it is the bare minimum, they can live with that. (S2/P1)

This principal likened inclusion to the changes that happened with *Tomorrow's Schools*. It did not have "a tremendous effect in the classroom" provided the children were adequately resourced. If this was the case, the teachers carried on classroom activities unconcerned with any changes. For other classroom teachers the response was that it was not their concern. These teachers admitted a dependency, in that the teacher responsible for special needs in both Karo and Nikau schools were collecting the information and knew what was going on in this field. A teacher from Nikau school commented:

> As long as [the person] knows what is happening then that's fine. I suppose in some ways I haven't got the time to dive into things like that. That is his responsibility and that is in his job description. (S3/T4)

To "keep right out of it" was also the approach of the principal of Nikau school. His reliance on the staff member responsible for special education in this school had pitfalls, as he explained:

> If they get it back to me, fine. If they don't, well, it is not a good thing to say but that honestly is what happens. (S3/P1)

Although the principal considered the school was adequately informed, he queried whether in using this system, he had taken the necessary steps to keep himself informed.

A newly certificated teacher, when asked why the policy information from the government was not read, answered in terms of practicality:

> I don't because I am not really interested and they don't help me at all. I don't take a lot of notice of the government stuff, it doesn't help me in the classroom and I want to know how to deal with *the* children. I tend to take the things that are relevant to me. (S4/T4)

A certain degree of cynicism crept into the teachers' comments as they discussed information received in the schools, as these teachers indicated:

> I suppose I have switched off because I am tired of them saying something and doing the opposite. So you begin to take no notice. [The Minister] has made it quite clear that it doesn't matter what you do. You tend to get on with what is under your nose. (S3/T7)

> We are aware that it is happening and the government has said that it will happen. We are realising that there are lots of problems but you just have to grin and bear it and do the best you can. (S3/T11)

> People are looking at it and saying, "Oh! They've changed it again" (S5/T5)

Many teachers *were* interested in the type of information they received, but there were very personal influences at work. Some claimed that there was a lot of material around, but not of the kind they required while others felt that appropriate literature never reached them. There appeared to be a lack of concerted effort on behalf of many of the teachers to personally gather information on special needs and a few teachers did not appear to know, or were not motivated to find information. The material gathered by those who did seek information was directly relevant to the issues they were dealing with in the classroom.

In conclusion, the communication of information within schools demonstrated a very varied system which was associated with government policy changes, it was related to the personal style of leadership and whether there was one person responsible for special needs in the school. The enthusiasm and organisation of that person was crucial to the reaction of the professional staff to their conception of being informed. The school principal was the person most likely to view every piece of information that came into the schools and he usually made the decision of where this information would be dispersed. If there was a special unit or resource centre or teacher of children with special educational needs in the school, then that area or person usually received the information. The result was that very frequently classroom teachers did not receive communications on children with special educational needs, even though they had these children their classroom. The principals who addressed this problem felt the teachers were only concerned with communication of a practical nature that directly affected their children. This included the funding and the discretionary hours that they would receive to assist them in the classroom.

Only Karo school had an information relaying system in place which caused teachers to comment on it in a positive manner. If the teachers were not receptive to the incoming information the most methodical system was not effective. If the information was practical in the teacher's consideration, or staff were heavily involved in aspects of special needs, the teachers were receptive. Most teachers commented on their use of the general media in gaining information. The response to the teachers actually pursuing their own information ranged from them doing independent research and reading, to an acknowledged lack of motivation in this area (section 2.3.1). Staff meetings were used as a venue for disseminating knowledge but these were only as useful as the teacher's demonstration of interest.

Principals freely discussed their attitudes and reactions, to the changes in government policy over the years since the passing of the Education Act, 1989 and the

communication they had had with relevant agencies. Where communication was at a personal level, be it from the Ministry or the SES, the principals spoke positively and warmly about their contacts, but the issues of government policy and resource allocation were not regarded with the same enthusiasm. The parents' presence as a powerful lobby group, was referred to by the principals.

Because policy changes had been so frequent and the practical aspect of pupil support, especially with regard to discretionary hours was considered in a negative light, many teachers spoke with cynicism on receiving information on special education from government sources. Also, the policy of inclusion had become involved with the changes of *Tomorrow's Schools* and the massive amount of paperwork and reading that the professional staff were expected to complete. The result appears to be that special educational needs in the schools were not given a high profile, except by those directly involved with the responsibilities of decision making.

9.2.4 Teacher training and staff development. The implementation of the policy of inclusion in schools, meant that many teachers, for the first time, were integrating children with very specific needs into their regular classroom. Some children, recognised as having special educational needs, had been receiving their education in a regular school setting, but generally it was a new experience for many teachers. Staff development was a routine occurrence at the schools in this study as it helped the staff to prepare for curicula activities, their changing roles and helped them perform more effectively. However, the schools varied in their approach to preparing teachers for inclusion. Professional staff indicated they had received little formal training in inclusive education but their 'life experiences' brought valuable skills to their work.

The leadership role and the expectations that the staff held for their principals have been discussed (section 9.1.2). In fulfilling the function of management and educational leader, the professional staff expected their principal to gain resources and support systems for their classrooms and to know where and from whom, to seek help when they needed it. In this section the acquisition of skills in the area of inclusion will be examined, firstly from the principals' viewpoint and secondly from the teachers' experience. In this way the personal nature of inclusion as educational change will be demonstrated, as well as some of the stresses that have arisen as special educational needs are incorporated into regular classroom management.

While principals generally agreed that their role had changed since the Education Act, 1989 was passed, they acknowledged that the skills required for their job description had all been acquired by experience. Only the principal of Rata had continued his academic development by gaining a higher educational qualification. The remaining four principals had looked to the needs of the children and those professionals who were in associated advisory roles, for their training. They had gained knowledge and experience by working alongside these people. They had been in constant communication with those skilled in providing support and resources, and developed appropriate policies to highlight the specific direction the school was to take in meeting specific needs. One of the key factors in ensuring that the professional staff had to learn new skills was, according to one principal, that the schools have been left to their own devices:

> On the basis of that you either sink or swim.(S2/ P1)

Another factor assuring that new skills were acquired was requirement that they apply for discretionary hours and for resources. Not only did the application to the Ministry of Education for discretionary hours require detailed work done on each child, it also required a correct knowledge of the procedures:

> I have made sure that I know what the rules are. The Institute has given me great insight and confidence in knowing what to do and because I have worked with so many people I know how people think. You don't get it right all the time but you know "how hard to go, when to go, and when to back off". (S3/ P1)

The principal of Miro felt he required greater expertise in the how to "better access the powers in Wellington". To know how to bring issues to the fore and to emphasis a need requiring extra assistance, meant that the local Ministry of Education was called in by this principal. On another occasion the Member of Parliament was invited into the school. Because of the importance of being successful in gaining resources for the children, the principals of Titoki and Rata schools felt the additional expertise required in their job should be given higher priority than it is given now.

> We have tended to become slaves of the trivia, "fill out this form, have it done by next week" because the bureaucracy says so. "Jump" and you know that if you don't your kids are going to miss out. (S5/P1)

> It is a bit like Lotto. If you are not in you can't win. I make no hesitation that I work hard for the teachers and apply for things and I make them fill out forms, but I will always make sure that we are in, because I know how critical that help can be. If you want help you have to make a case for it. (S4/ P1)

But training and background don't necessarily make for success in gaining discretionary hours or resources, as this principal stated:

> It doesn't matter how smart this principal is, just because I sign the things I don't [necessarily] get anything.(S5/P1)

The five principals interviewed all considered their experience and training had been acquired 'on the job', and there had been limited opportunities to take specific training in children with special educational or social needs. They placed importance on knowing the rules for applying for grants and discretionary hours, of knowing who to contact with specific problems and on having applications in the appropriate hands.

As staff development and training has been regarded as a central issue in the implementation of inclusion, information was gathered on the personal skills of the teachers and teachers aides (section 9.1.5). These personal experiences which they referred to were regarded as the strength of their skills in having children with special educational needs in their classrooms. The 'experience of life' was a term used by many teachers to describe their gaining of information on this specific topic. It was obvious from the many comments, that the experience and skill achieved by "being a mother" had given many teachers and teachers aides confidence in handling the diversity of the children in their care:

> I'm a parent, just all those experiences. (S3/ T1)

> Being a mother, my own knowledge of children that I gleaned through my own children growing up. (S2/ T4)

More life experience had been gained by teachers in their personal life as they worked as volunteers, a situation which frequently included some training for C.C.S., I.H.C., and Marriage Guidance. Two teachers had taken training courses, one in SPELD and the other the St. John's Certificate in First Aid. When teachers were asked for an indication of the *extent* of training in any aspect of managing children with special educational needs,the reply was almost always "none". In many cases the question caused mirth, and a comment such as, "training, training, what's that"? After such a comment there was always some further explanation offered, to explain what they considered was a deficit in their skills. Teachers referred to the experience of teaching as being their background for handling inclusion:

> It is basically a learn as you go situation. (S1/ T1)

> I have had no training of any standing. I taught at a very difficult school for three and a half years and learned very quickly. (S3/ T2)

Relying on their instincts, on classroom management strategies, practice and "bitter experience" or "working blind" were some of the experiences teachers expressed. There were references made to a "hands on" approach using the children as "guinea pigs", and if there was failure in one approach, trying another. This was called "self teaching". The approaches were described by teachers in the following way:

> It is what you are picking up and learning as you are going along. (S3/ T12)

> Learning from your mistakes, sounding off with other teachers and hearing from them what they are doing and have done. (S2/ T1)

On further probing, the teachers revealed that approximately one-third of them *had* undergone limited exposure to courses in special needs during teachers' training. The overwhelming comment concerning these courses was that they had been interesting, but the teachers did not feel that they were applicable to their present situation. They considered training should be practical and immediately relevant to their classroom whereas the knowledge they had gained was not focussed:

> We did a course on individual differences but that just covered a variety of things like asthma and epilepsy. (S1/ T2)

> Last year I went and got my folder out to have a look but there was no real training on teaching them. We would look at different disabilities, caring difficulties and helping agencies but not at the actual teaching of these children. (S2/ T5)

> I did 'Children With Special Needs' at Training College. It was very 'airy-fairy'. It was very good but you do not know what kind of children you will have in your class. (S1/ T6)

Some teachers felt that under these learning conditions the instructors could not tell you exactly what to do in your class, because they did not know the children the teachers would get, anything about their disabilities, or where they would need help. Generally it was agreed that at Training College you could learn about different disabilities, about the different agencies and what they could do. However, until the teacher was in the school situation and saw how the school used the agencies and made the best use it could of the resources it had, then training "didn't come into it at all". These two comments illustrate this:

> It gives a good general background, but I don't see how it can be so helpful that when you get into the classroom and have a child with special needs you suddenly need to know what to do. (S1/ T6)

> It is all very well going on courses because until you have a child you have to contend with, to front up to Monday to Friday, 9am. to 3pm then you realise you are dealing with them. (S2/ T5)

The majority of teachers knew exactly what they felt they needed in training experiences. They were needed particular people to give them individual assistance with specific children and their difficulties. It was preferable for this to be done in their classroom, where the instructor could comprehend the total situation. According to the many teachers who proposed this approach, as more children with special needs came into the regular school system, there needed to be a provision made to bring in people to give ideas and talk to teachers. Two teachers commented on this approach:

> Each year you get a specific child with special needs and often each child has specific and individual needs. I think having that support with specialist people is really important, having them beside you because you are so busy doing so many other things. (S2/ T1)

> It is easy to give training all the time but we need experienced people in the room to work alongside you. That would be my preference, to work alongside a professional on that specific case. (S5/ T3)

Whereas the more mature teachers were aware that they had years of teaching experience behind them to give them confidence, there was some empathy with young teachers who were still learning their profession. As much training in the area of children with differences as could be gained was needed, according to these teachers, so staff could feel supportive to others, comfortable in their work and could handle all situations:

> I look at it from the point of view of the young teacher who suddenly has the principal announce that a child with special needs will be in her class next week. If the teachers are going to have these children there has to be some development in the classroom situation. (S1/ T1)

Behind this statement was years of teaching experience. The personal approach of this teacher was that children with special educational needs required an organised commitment, but at the same time the remainder of the classmates had to receive their fair share of quality education. For some teachers who were interviewed, their fears were very specific and frequently were associated with a lack of confidence in handling certain situations which might arise. There were limited times when the classroom teachers were on their own with severely disabled children. In this situation because the teachers had total support from ancillary staff, they never really took full responsibility for these children. This meant that they never learned to manage the epileptic fits of one child or the asthmatic attacks another child may have, as a teacher explained:

> I was concerned if [the T/A] left the room. I'd think, "I hope she comes back because I don't know what to do". (S1/ T3)

Many months later, in a staff training session at Karo school, the majority of teachers present admitted they had never touched certain children and were very nervous of handling them. This indicated to the staff that with adept ancillary staff there was a possibility of not becoming involved and it was only when the situation arose, that teachers felt the need or desire to go and learn more about their particular children. A report was given of a staff member having gone to a course from this school and passing on the information to the other teachers but this action did not give the necessary practical training and confidence.

The teachers aides indicated a similar position to the pattern of staff development commented on by the teachers. Of the 13 teachers aides interviewed, 6 were trained teachers with a variety of formal experience amongst them. The teacher support course at the Hamilton College of Education was being attended by two teachers aides and another had started a course on children with special needs, while Playcentre courses provided the background for yet another teacher aide. Again, "being a mother" was considered important, according to the comments, particularly in that it helped the teachers aides in relating to parents.

Inservice training took place in all the schools in this study and the awareness of the need for staff development was expressed:

> The itinerant teacher keeps track of the courses. She goes to a lot of them but if necessary informs the rest of the staff. All the mail comes through me so I am aware too. (S1/P1)

> It is a matter of 'upskilling' and 'empowering' the people to give them confidence in dealing with all situations. How do you empower teachers who haven't coped with difficult kids, or teach junior kids where they very rarely ever backchat the teacher, how do you deal with it? (S4/P1)

The main effort in teacher education in the schools had gone into teaching the writing of IEPs. As these schools had experts in the writing of IEPs on their staff, they shared their expertise with their colleagues. As boards of trustees and principals were responsible for providing staff development opportunities, the approaches at each school were investigated. Two schools had been involved in a training scheme on assertive discipline techniques. The school with the visual resource unit had given informal sessions to the teachers on having children with visual impairments in their classrooms. One teacher had attended a SES course on integrating children into the school. Although all those in leadership positions agreed that a skilled staff was essential, only the principal of Karo considered that the school had to be willing to budget for training in the area of education in special needs. To prevent financial

embarrassment to the staff and because he felt strongly that teachers aides were underpaid, this principal ensured that his school supported the ancillary staff in gaining skills. For this, a budget was in place to pay all course costs and this included the fees of the teachers aides taking courses at the College of Education.

Some queried whether the schools had the resources to do staff training as the cost of courses was increasing and the allocation of funds in the budget for staff development was considered limited. However, there was one other aspect to staff development which was referred to and that was value for money, with references being made to the number of children who would benefit from a teacher with certain newly acquired skills. Nikau school had a system of self assessment and self appraisal, in which staff members were expected to state the area they would like to have development in. In this situation, as this comment suggests, staff development was regarded as much in terms of value to the school, as it was in the development of the person:

> If the need becomes apparent and if a course comes up and we are aware of it, we think: "Yes, that would be a useful thing to have in our school". (S3/ DP1)

Therefore, with limited funds, a teacher would take the course and share it with the other teachers on their return, but as was noted earlier in this section, this did not give the practical expertise many teachers required to give them confidence. Therefore bringing specialist advisers into the school, was the direction in teacher development used by Miro, Rata, and Titoki schools. These advisers were from organisations such as the Crippled Children's Society, the hospital Child Development Centre and SES.

The principals had their own priorities and concerns in staff development. The principal of Rata was aware of the needs of the teachers who did not manage certain children on a regular basis, but were called upon on some occasions to do so. Because of the specific nature of the needs that most children presented with, the principals of Miro and Titoki both referred to professional development as "on site training" with specialist advisers. The principal of Miro school felt that the basic initial training of the teachers aides should be the responsibility of the SES, but accepted that they did not have the resources to take this job on. In contrast, a special education adviser commented from another angle and expressed the frustrations that could accompany the training that was achieved:

> For us teacher support people in schools it is so frustrating. When you have spent a lot of time training someone who is unskilled to carry out quite difficult goals, and you try to skill them to do the work with the child. To watch them be gone by the end of the term and then you start

> over again - for us it is an inconvenience but for the child it is dreadful. (SA.1)

These were the skills and experiences which principals, teachers and teachers aides brought to classrooms and the opportunities the schools provided for staff development. As the teachers in particular felt that their training in children with special educational needs was limited, they were asked to consider the training that they would like to have to enable them to meet the demands of their position. These ranged from assistance to gain more effective organisation in the classroom and routines that may help a teacher meet the children's needs more effectively, to ways to help the child work more independently. If teachers were under stress or felt they were not coping, they were more likely to seek help associated with training and usually the request was of a practical nature. Once again teachers recognised the value of on the job experience:

> Last year I felt as though I had been thrown in the deep end but I felt my way gradually and now of course the experience I had last year I can bring to bear in the classroom situation this year. (S2/ T4)

Some teachers wanted to have time to go and visit other classrooms in their own school. This they felt would enable them to gain from the experience of other teachers, as they observed how they handled various situations:

> The best way of training I feel is to watch each other in the classroom with children with special needs, to actually gain ideas from other people. These are practical ideas from within the school and we don't have to go motoring off all over town for that. (S4/ T1)

There were, however, wishes expressed about meeting and sharing experiences with teachers from other schools. The teachers at the school with the resource unit acknowledged how fortunate they were, because they could talk to the resource teacher informally in the staffroom:

> I'll come in here. I'll often talk to [the resource teacher] and that is a privileged position of our situation. You have that professional backup. (S2/ T5)

Similarly, the staff with a close liaison with special education staff on site recognised the importance of this informal information seeking in specific areas:

> I find that just looking at what [the person] does sometimes with [the child]. I think: "Oh! why didn't I think of that". Sometimes they are just simple activities that you have overlooked because you have 33 children in the classroom. (S1/ T5)

The answers to this line of questioning provided information on what the teachers valued, as for example having an itinerant teacher or special adviser on site, or the recognition that they had the help they needed within the school if only they had the time to utilise this source of support. For most of these teachers, as some explained there was no interest in working specifically with children with special educational needs. It was only when they had a child in the classroom that they considered that they might want further information:

> You don't really know what you don't know, and you don't know what you need, until you go to do something and feel you have no skill. (T1/ T6)

> It is not until you have someone with particular needs that you become aware of the need for it. (S2/ T5)

> The trouble is that when you are ignorant you don't know how much you know. So how do I know what I need training for, because I mightn't be aware of what the possibilities are. (S5/ T3)

While in the schools during the fieldwork stage of the study, there were several occasions when the loss of the inspectorate was mentioned. Their value was recognised by principals in particular, because they had been a group of professionals who were visiting many schools. They had made suggestions to staff about programmes and events they had witnessed that were proving successful. There was now considered to be a lack of such a communication network between schools. It was suggested that there was a need for the formation of a support network for teachers involved with children with special needs, to bridge this gap:

> It would be nice to have somebody who is aware of successful programmes in classrooms that could actually communicate to us. I think knowledge of teachers that we could observe who do successful programmes would be good. (S5/ T3)

The teachers and teachers aides were generally very aware of the skills that they would like and how in many cases their needs could be met. This final section considered what teachers had done about their recognised needs in teacher training.

Approximately two thirds of the teachers had never actively pursued the gaining of extra skills in connection with children with special educational needs. The rationale presented by most teachers was that the personal development had to be associated with the particular problems they were dealing with and it was child specific. Teachers had referred to the interesting nature of some of the courses they had done but their direct value did not elicit many comments. There were individual reasons offered as to why teachers had not been active in seeking courses that may have been useful. Some

teachers felt that the level of responsibility they were handling was enough without taking on any more obligations. Another issue was that of time:

> There isn't time or money. (S1/ T5)
>
> What teacher is able to do their job in a forty hour week? We are not a business and we are expected to cope with all the social work, mainstreaming, accounting, health and hygiene and community consultation. (S2/ T2)
>
> I give enough. (S3/T4)
>
> I have so many other things on my mind. We can only cope with one priority at a time. We can't specialise in all areas. We are not super teachers. (S5/ T3)

There were a few teachers who took the responsibility of training on their own shoulders and took correspondence courses or university papers in appropriate topics, or made use of library material to gain extra information. Another reason suggested by some teachers for not seeking training, was their lack of having any desire to work specifically with children with special needs:

> I am not ready personally to become solely involved in special needs. I haven't been in a classroom long enough. (S2/ T8)

The general opinion expressed by the teachers was that if they "pushed" hard enough or could give a sound case as to why they wanted to do certain courses, then they would be supported. A few teachers suggested that staff accepted things too easily and were inclined not to push for training in certain areas of school management:

> It is part of our job to have these people in our classrooms; we just accept it, without actually asking for training. But if it was a curriculum topic they would send members of the staff on a course to learn how to integrate it into your school. (S4/ T2)

In conclusion, the professional staff considered they had had little or no training which gave them expertise in the teaching and management of children with special needs. The over riding need was for practical, child specific learning situations carried out within their own classrooms. Although this had been achieved for some teachers, the coverage was very uneven and appeared to be associated with specific disabilities. The presence of a specialist adviser or teacher with whom a teacher could have informal contact was regarded as very positive support. Generally the size of the teacher's class, the time available for training and the method of applying for courses and finances to cover the cost through the boards of trustees, was not conducive to seeking development in the area of special educational needs. Unless a teacher was not coping and required training to change the classroom situation, special education was

not a high priority area. Other topics such as curicula changes and special subjects would be chosen because it affected more children and was considered to have greater use to the schools. Another consideration was that courses were required to be done in personal time and only those with a particular interest in children with special educational needs had the necessary drive and energy.

In section 9.2 four aspects of the school culture: contact with outside agencies, gaining resources and support, communication and staff development have been examined in relation to inclusion. A summary of the analysis is presented in Table 9.2.

At this stage of the thesis the possible 'ownership' of inclusion by the schools was becoming clearer. Karo and Rata schools had openly addressed inclusion or individuality in its documents and actioned it, in the interactions and relationships of the school community. Miro and Titoki schools had in some ways met these issues but the presence of the resource centre and special unit respectively, had made the inclusive practices more complex. Nikau school by generalising 'special needs' to a wide group of its pupils, had avoided or side-stepped many of the issues. The reactions of this school to government changes in education had infiltrated the ethos of the school community with negative responses to inclusion being a consequence.

Before moving into the classroom to gain the perceptions of change as it affects the professional staff and pupils, it was necessary to gain a clear idea of what the "equal rights to enrol" clause in the Education Act, 1989 meant to all those involved in the school communities.

9.3 Responses to the Clause: "Equal Rights to Enrol"

Responses were recorded during the interviews from every professional staff member, board of trustee respondent and parent, concerning the clause in the Education Act, 1989, which gave "people who have special needs (whether because of disability or otherwise) equal rights to enrol and receive education" in the state school system (Part 1: section 8). As this was a central issue in the research it was important to know where everyone involved stood in regard to human rights, educational legislation and special educational needs. The responses demonstrated several major points: firstly, the feelings of complexity and frequently confusion which the concept of equal rights, enrolment and entry to schools aroused; secondly, although there was almost total acceptance that the rights of these children must be

Schools	Karo	Miro	Nikau	Rata	Titoki
SES	Try to help themselves before seeking help Have key person prefer to deal with	Try to help themselves before seeking help	For emotional and behaviour problem assistance usually crisis provoked	No specific comment	Have a key person prefer to deal with
SES	All principals see data collection as vital, followed by assessment and finally make application for resources				
Resources	Principal realistic concerning resource limitations but still expressed frustrations	Principal realistic concerning resource limitations but still expressed frustrations	Expressed frustrations over process of gaining resources	Expressed frustrations over process of gaining resources	Expressed frustrations over process of gaining resources
Communication	Well organised communication dissemination system Person responsible Staff meeting discussion	Communications to principal, then if appropriate to resource centre	Person responsible but principal may intervene or not distribute	To principal and distributed at staff meetings Admitted system only as good as the staff who make use of it	Communication to principal and then to special unit or class or staff room
Teacher training and development - *as delivered*	Teachers and teachers aides consider their training to be the 'experience of life' and particularly 'mothering' important as basic training for teaching children with special needs All consider they have had 'on the job' training in 'special needs'				
Teacher training and development - *as desired*	All principals would like knowledge to access resources, believe in data collection and correct application procedures. Teachers would like instruction from particular people, giving individual assistance with specific children in their classroom where instructor would understand their difficulties Instruction desired in more efficient organisation of classroom, assisting to build independence in children with special educational needs. Would like to visit other classrooms in own school or in other schools to pick up hints, ideas and practically based schemes. Many professional staff miss the inspectorate or equivalent				

Table 9.2 **Summary of Implementation Phase - Aspects of the school culture**

recognised, there were generally 'provisos' attached to that acknowledgment; thirdly, there were comments which indicated that the respondents felt a gap existed between the policy makers and those who were responsible for enacting the decisions made at government level; fourthly, there were comments which indicated that there were many professionals who regarded inclusion as an 'ideal', a 'theory' or who "agreed with it in principle" and then following a "but", justified their position. These themes will now be discussed.

Those people who spoke of the complexity and the confusion that the process of inclusion frequently provoked, not only came from all the schools in the study, but held a wide variety of positions within the school community. When this response was compared with other methodological aspects of the research, as for example the observations made in the schools, the results showed that familiarity or success in particular personal instances did not necessarily indicate an overriding acceptance of inclusion. This result was read as an indicator of the personal nature of the educational change which inclusion had wrought. In some instances, for example, it indicated an association with other parts of the personal interview or observations, such as an awareness of the teacher's situation with regard to collegial support, training, pastoral care and resources.

In contrast, the overwhelming responses which accepted the *rights* of the child to enrol and counteracted the statement with a "but", were definitely related to the school, the school culture and the leadership qualities which were experienced. Those teachers who were in Karo school where they felt they had adequate support, both in resources, ancillary staff and collegial assistance, agreed with the substance of the clause and indicated where they stood in relation to their children. The remainder of the professional staff from other schools, who were in the majority, remarked on their acceptance of the philosophy but referred to the need for parental support, teacher training, adequate assessment, the need for resources, and in particular, teachers aides. There were some references to the fact that labelling was associated with gaining resources and that physical disabilities would receive full support, as compared with intellectual, behavioural or learning disabilities. There were a few comments about the more articulate and knowledgeable parents who knew where to go for help so as to get more assistance for their children. The allocation of the resources, which were acknowledged to be limited, created considerable discussion and some criticism. Was it, as one teacher suggested, that "help [was] given to those who make the most noise"? Of greatest interest was the finding that although many of those interviewed were reticent about the right of any child to enrol in the school system and

provided suggestions of what was required to make inclusion possible, when it came to personal questions on the management of their children with special educational needs in the classroom an entirely different and more positive picture was given. This was supported by observations made in their classrooms. This suggests there is considerable ambivalence to inclusion in the schools where the negativism which has arisen from inadequate government information, liaison activities and a fluctuating resource delivery, has become associated with some positive personal experiences.

This leads to the third response to the clause in the Education Act, 1989, which provided a variety of comments attempting to understand the government's or Ministry of Education's attitudes and resource provisions. This approach provoked a set of responses which were linked to the role the respondents held in the schools. For example, in Nikau school where the principal firmly held this "governmental responsibility" approach, the attitude was expressed by the majority of the staff. For this group of professionals there was a direct link between the enrolment of the children in the school and the responsibility of the Ministry to provide the necessary support so that "other children's progress was not hindered". When the principal took this stance the staff usually reiterated the same theme. Therefore, in one school in particular and to a small degree in other schools, the lack of support and funding was placed directly in the government domain with references to "discrimination" and several comments on the use of special schools, classes and units as an alternative solution. This resulted in the claim of "talking politics", when "time, money and resources" were referred to.

Finally, there were responses to the clause which provided the "ideal" , "basic intent" or "theory" responses whereby the idea had merits, but the respondents felt it had not been thought through adequately. The gap between government policy and the reality of the classroom was illustrated by the comment on how: "The theory was fine but it was putting it into practice that they never think about. They are all writing their little policies". This indicated there was a considered lack of reality in the ideology of inclusion which was in some way expected to limit the rights of some children. This was illustrated by the comment that "the whole thing is pie in the sky. The philosophy of it is wonderful and they do have rights, but rights with limitations". The justifications which went with this approach were the rights of others, the extra money, time, stress, energy, work and in several responses, a recognition of the 'special nature' of the needs of these children. Although there is not enough material to substantiate the claim and there was no effort made to find any correlation between the substance of the clause and the teachers' attitudes, the observations made in the

classroom indicated that the staff who took this approach were highly motivated teachers who took considerable pride in their pupils' achievements. This has implications for future educational change and inclusion.

9.4 Summary and Discussion.

The Implementation Phase of inclusion in the five schools in the study, has been investigated using five of the twelve norms considered by Sapher and King (1985) to be part of the principals' and teachers' belief systems, if change is to be effected in the school. These included:

- collegiality inferring real support;
- being able to tap into information sources for specific knowledge;
- honest and open communication;
- being involved in decision making with particular reference to the roles of the principals and teachers in gaining resources;
- the strengthening of the skills of the teachers.

During fieldwork in the schools these five aspects of management influenced in some way, the day to day organisation with respect to children with special educational needs. The vision building attributes of the principals were discussed in Chapter 7, where it was shown that in the preparation of charters and policies, certain schools placed an emphasis on the individuality or uniqueness of their children. In the same chapter the level of dependency of teachers and boards of trustees, on the principal for his educational leadership and expertise was demonstrated. In this chapter an analysis has been made of whether the "highest level of abstraction" which Everard and Morris (1985) refer to in relation to visionary ideas, is indeed combined with "the most mundane of detail" (p.178).

The governance role of the boards of trustees set in writing the goals and objectives of their respective schools in regard to inclusion. The role incumbents elaborated on the details in the rationale, purposes and guidelines of the policy statements. It was the principal who instilled in his staff the trust and confidence to initiate any changes which arose as a consequence of these considerations. The schools and their boards of trustees throughout the early educational change considered the government was indulging in political manipulation and there was suspicion of political intentions (Hall and McGee, 1991, p. 45). The climate of change in the schools in this early period following the passage of the legislation was one of frustration and cynicism regarding

the changes to the charter framework without their consultation. This was the stage at which the power-coercive strategies identified by Chin and Benne (1964) describe the compliance of the school governance to the "greater power", direction, manipulation and leadership of those in government. Against this background of change, the ideology of inclusion was introduced and although some schools were already involved with children with special educational needs, the values and belief systems of many schools were tested. The leadership of the principal was paramount as newly elected boards of trustees faced policy decisions based on their limited knowledge of disability and special education. Against this background there was both a collective step required to be made on behalf of all children with special educational needs, as well as an individual response each time a pupil was enrolled at a school. The collective action of each school was demonstrated in the school charter and later in their respective policies. This chapter has examined five aspects of that collective action, together with the expectations of those people involved. These are summarised in Tables 9.1 and 9.2.

1. During the course of this research an ambivalence to inclusion was demonstrated whereby the participants first directed anger, frustration, annoyance, and many other emotions towards the government and the Education Act, 1989. It was possible that soon afterwards, the discussion with those people involved in the school community would continue on the 'rights' issues of disability at a personal level in relation to their individual children. In both the Initiation and Implementation Phases of this research the principals used strategies identified by Chin and Benne (1964) as 'normative-re-educative' and 'empirical-rational'. The former invoked socio-cultural values and ideas of fairness, rightness, choice, human dignity and acceptance and the latter provided a justification, in that it made sense and was in the best interests of all concerned if one took into account the information that was available. The results were that the principals of Karo and Miro schools were able to discuss the reality of the situation, with limited resources and the "pie that can only be cut so many ways" attitude, and associate this stance with the schools "trying to help themselves". This approach was also carried to staff in the request for data collection and assessments so that applications could be made for resources in the appropriate way. Periodically, in the course of fieldwork and interviews, the frustration of the powerlessness in association with the expectations of boards of trustees and teachers would surface. The strategies of 'power-coercion', 'empirical-rational' and 'normative-re-education' were at odds with each other in these circumstances. Inclusion is an ideology which has caused change to occur in the school at a very personal level .The main criticism by professional staff has been that the government, through the Ministry of Education,

has maintained control over the funding or resources, thereby limiting the decision-making of the local community and schools. Repeatedly during this study a barrier has been shown to exist in the view of professional staff between the school and the Ministry of Education, with feelings being directed at that arena of decision-making (Figure 4.1). While some schools became fixated by this happening, other schools have focussed on the issues of rights, choice, dignity and acceptance, and have succeeded in meeting most of the educational needs of their children. The effects of these different approaches will be shown in Chapter 10, as the professional staff adapted their management styles and classroom routines to meet new demands. Benne (1949), when he described the essential norms of a democratic ideology, described how educational change is frequently made by persons in power who are distantly removed from those who will be affected by the anticipated action. In the view of Benne, planned change should include participation of all people influenced by the social change, and the manner in which change is introduced should be organised to include their insights and participation. The observations and views of professional staff indicated that they had not felt at all involved in the development of government policy regarding inclusion. While they could argue 'rights' issues, the basis of their arguments always ended at the practical workings of the ideology for teachers in the classrooms and "getting of the best deal" for the children on the part of the principals. Therefore, if the premise of Benne (1949) is accepted, the ethics of planned change have been compromised as the norms of the democratic process have not been combined with an understanding of the means of change and the social structures, in this case the schools, which will be affected. In allowing the introduction of inclusion, government policy vacillated in its commitment to the ideal, in fact with the change of government there appeared to be a withdrawal from responsibility. Inclusion progressed, however, using the past experience of educationists, the work of specialists in a wide variety of child related agencies and parental encouragement.

2. The ability of the principal to tap into appropriate information and resource sources was a norm described by Sapher and King (1985) as part of the belief system underlying the school culture. In the present research this mainly involved contact with the SES which was under contract to provide the Ministry of Education with background information on individual children and to assist with the introduction of inclusion to the schools. Schools also had contact with agencies involved with disability support services, welfare, police and legal advice. Allocation of resources to those children with "reliably identifiable physical, intellectual and/ or sensory disabilities" were noted by the schools as being different than for the children with "learning and social difficulties who required access to quality education" (Statement

of Intent, 1991, p. 12). The result was that during fieldwork it was noted that the former group of children were frequently well supported in the classrooms with a teacher aide, and the communication amongst the staff working with these children was relaxed. The second group of children frequently became the subject of the lengthy, time consuming applications for discretionary hours. This resulted in schools finding themselves in the situation of having their principals regarding the application for resources as a challenge, with either personal satisfaction or failure and disappointment being the outcome. The successful drive for discretionary hours has become a major factor in the satisfaction schools have expressed regarding inclusion.

3. Against this background schools have been maintaining inclusion with a fair degree of success although professional staff have felt they neither have properly resourced nor supported. There were, however, consequences resulting from this entire process. One consequence was the association of the management of the children with the support that was hard won and possibly insecure. Principals had taken on managerial responsibility and become increasingly involved in administrative aspects of schools, therefore the enrolment of a child who required very specific and intensive resource provision was inevitably looked at both from an economic aspect and presumably, the child's position. There were slight indications that the worth of different students in association with efficient resource management and school budgeting, as discussed by Heward and Lloyd-Smith (1990) may have been touched on. The explanations provided by the principals of their role demands and their 'vision building', demonstrated the ambiguities of the system. This lack of ease between role demands parallels the findings of Chandler and Utz (1982). At this stage it is appropriate to consider whether in the present economic climate, some children with special educational needs have been placed in a disadvantaged position in their attempt to gain equity. Whether the education system has done a disservice to these children will be further explored in the next chapter when inclusion at the chalkface is presented. However, it is the leadership of the principal in setting the groundwork in the school community with regard to values and beliefs in the individual worth of all students, including those with special educational needs, which has underpinned the whole process.

4. Leadership is a very individual characteristic and this was evident in the manner in which the principals faced the issues examined in this study; gaining resources, approaching outside agencies, building communication channels both from the Ministry of Education to the staff and within the school, and encouraging teacher training. Supporting these management areas and essential with respect to inclusion,

was the collegiality that the principal had encouraged in the staff. Basic to this collegiality was the importance placed by the principal on pastoral care. Although this attitude applied to all aspects of school life including staff and student interactions, inclusion did not become so emotive if teachers genuinely believed that the principal understood the extra work, stress and pressure that having a child with special educational needs in the classroom imposed. This was very obvious during both fieldwork and interviews in Karo school. In comparison, Nikau school, where the staff felt cut off from their principal even though they could access his support if they required help, indicated the subtlety of this interaction. The visible presence of the principal in and around the classrooms was the most effective form of personal support that could be provided.

5. The section on role expectations demonstrated the high level of emotional support expected by staff of each other, and in Karo and Miro schools, this was observed in practice. If a teacher recognised that a colleague was having a difficult day with a child, another staff member would step in and take over the responsibility. This also happened in Titoki school but on a formal basis, where there was an organised arrangement for the shared care of one child. The two other schools, Nikau and Rata, had a plan of action which could become quite complex with some children, to give their teachers release if the need arose. This collegiality and sharing of responsibility without feelings of guilt, inadequacy or failure was one other crucial factor in successful inclusion. Teachers who felt they had sole responsibility for a child were more likely to be express feelings indicating pressure and dissatisfaction with inclusion. This was evident from two levels of observation. Firstly, the degree of pastoral care available in the schools meant that teachers felt they could tap into the skills of the principal in listening, conflict resolution, and solution seeking. Secondly, if the staff felt they could discuss the difficulties they were experiencing with their colleagues they released tension, frequently found a solution from suggestions proffered and they felt supported. This became apparent with the expectations of parental contact as well, when teachers expressed satisfaction with quite difficult situations where parents were fully notified and provided support, assistance and encouragement. Where the situation was less involved but there was limited parental contact or interest, teachers became disillusioned to the point of approaching a state of resentment. Tension and stress were related to some of the pupils with special educational needs in Nikau school, and on observation two reasons seemed apparent. Firstly, there was a lack of shared responsibility for the children and secondly, pastoral care was limited in this school. The principal, however, showed considerable leadership in areas not related to children with physical, sensory or intellectual

disabilities, and concentrated on children with socio-economic deprivation, and behavioural and emotional disorders. This provided a particularly clear picture of the importance of an appreciation of the school culture. The affect of this has been referred to in both Chapters 7 and 8 as it has influenced the charter and policy development, and the enrolment of pupils with special educational needs.

6. The presence of a resource centre, special education unit or classroom in the school grounds strongly influenced the school culture with respect to inclusion. On one hand, there was a greater degree of acceptance and understanding on the part of the professional staff and the students, but on the other hand there was a 'special' separateness that was very difficult to break down. The staff of one of these units described how in spite of the genuine welcome of the regular school towards their unit, once the initial interest was over they found themselves drifting towards segregation. They had to make a continuing effort to keep themselves and their children included, in spite of the intensity of the efforts of the principal and the school community. Ward et al. (1987) discussed various aspects of inclusion when special units were attached to the school. They found that teachers and principals were more tolerant of 'mainstreaming' in schools where no such units or classes existed and Center et al. (1985) suggested that it was because staff considered that if they were on site, they were a better alternative than regular classes for atypical children. The reasons for the mixed reception of acceptance allied to segregation will be further explored in Chapter 10, when the personality profiles of children will be discussed. The lack of collegiality in these situations was demonstrated in the following comment, "I am of the opinion that the benefit is greater for the regular children than it is for my children" (S5/ T4). One implication is the need for more attention to be placed on assisting with social interactions and relationships between all children, and for this to occur adequate 'people' resources are needed. This was apparent in Karo school where recognition of the uniqueness of children was deeply embedded in the school culture, and where there were sufficient ancillary staff who took a particular interest and pride in integrating all children into the school community. With adequate support the climate was created to acknowledge those who were different, to value them and to incorporate them into the fabric of the whole school. This was an example in action of Wolfensberger's (1991) 'social valorisation'. The combined factors of collegiality and pastoral care created a strong framework within which this climate could be nourished. However, inclusion is an evolving process and incoming information strongly affected the attitudes the professional staff expressed.

7. In the schools where pastoral care and collegiality were commonplace it was noticeable that communication skills were finely tuned. Communication was analysed in this research from two aspects; firstly, the dissemination of national policy and government reports and secondly, the manner in which the school informed the staff of information relevant to their integrated children. The attitudes and reactions to government policy have been noted in Chapters 7 and 8. In this chapter, the leadership of the principal in handling the information positively and constructively has been related to the norms of the school culture. Although open criticism of governmental actions occurred from all levels of the professional staff, in some schools it appeared to become an overriding issue. This occurred to the extent that children with special educational needs were almost regarded as a burden without their support services, whereas in other schools it was a financial constriction to be lived with. Therefore each school developed its individual communication pathway. In Karo school, any communication from the Ministry of Education was directed from the principal's desk to the person designated as responsible for this group of children, and in turn personally passed on verbally or in fact, to the teachers. All the staff felt well informed and not over-burdened with information. The "open, honest communication" of Sapher and King (1985) applied as a norm in this school culture. In contrast, Miro school with a resource centre directed the information from the principal's desk to this facility. Teachers in regular classrooms with children with special educational needs, who did not qualify for resource centre services, frequently did not become involved in discussions other than to be told of the outcomes of the allocation of discretionary hours. The high interest of the principal of Titoki in special education kept his staff totally up to date, often in an informal manner. At Nikau school, however, the communication pathway frequently broke down as information was handled by the person responsible for special educational needs. Any requests, difficulties or notifications were dealt with at that level and filed. During fieldwork this role incumbent changed and the importance of the responsibility, drive and enthusiasm of the nominated person as being vital for the well being of inclusion, was verified. The job description was not altered to accommodate the fact the person took over a regular classroom and its additional responsibilities. Communication depended on the capabilities and drive of an individual person, and the teachers considered that they were not at all well informed. This was very apparent when some staff commented that they did not know until some incident occurred in their classroom, who the children with special educational needs were. In yet another situation a teacher did not know her child was on an IEP.

The professional staff discussed communication from two angles; they were either annoyed at not being involved in decision making and discussion, or they had enough to manage in their daily school life and were not interested. If the information effected them they considered that they would be contacted, and it was the responsibility of designated persons on the staff to keep them informed. This indicated how integrated children could become a minority in a classroom of up to 37 children. A facet of communication that is difficult to define is a knowledge of how much information any professional staff members required, to adequately perform their roles. Of interest in the management patterns of integrated children was the frequency with which principals and syndicate leaders considered that their staff were better informed, managing the classroom routines and involved with the children more than the teachers considered they were. Ward et al. (1987) in their study on the attitudes of principals and teachers indicated a similar finding. The results in the present study were dependent on the amount of actual support in the form of discretionary hours the teachers experienced. As discussed in the literature review (section 2.4.3) the experience and personal interaction of teachers was important in determining their attitude to inclusion and to this end a further aspect of the school culture, that of upskilling staff, was investigated.

8. As Benne (1949) considered that for planned change to be ethical those involved should receive adequate preparation, a disparity is demonstrated with regard to teacher training, staff development and the reality of inclusion (section 9.2.4). Responses from the professional staff in respect of teacher training indicated two related factors. Firstly, the school personnel considered the reality of the economics of the provision of courses or how much it would cost. Secondly, there was consideration given to the number of pupils who would benefit from the money spent, or what the direct cost was to the schools in terms of usage for dollars. Each school had its direction and policy on staff development as the boards of trustees budgeted in the new administrative climate. Courses which were associated with curriculum changes and would provide information to a wide group of staff members, were considered more relevant than a course which would meet the needs of limited numbers of teachers and children. These needs were explained by the teachers, as the very specific nature of managing the individual children integrated in their classrooms. Against this outlook, however, the principals all stated they required skilled staff to meet the school's obligations towards these children. The answer to staff development was as varied as the professionals who were involved. Some took the matter in their own hands and took personal responsibility for either formal study or informal research. Only Karo school had a staff member monitoring all appropriate opportunities for training, to the

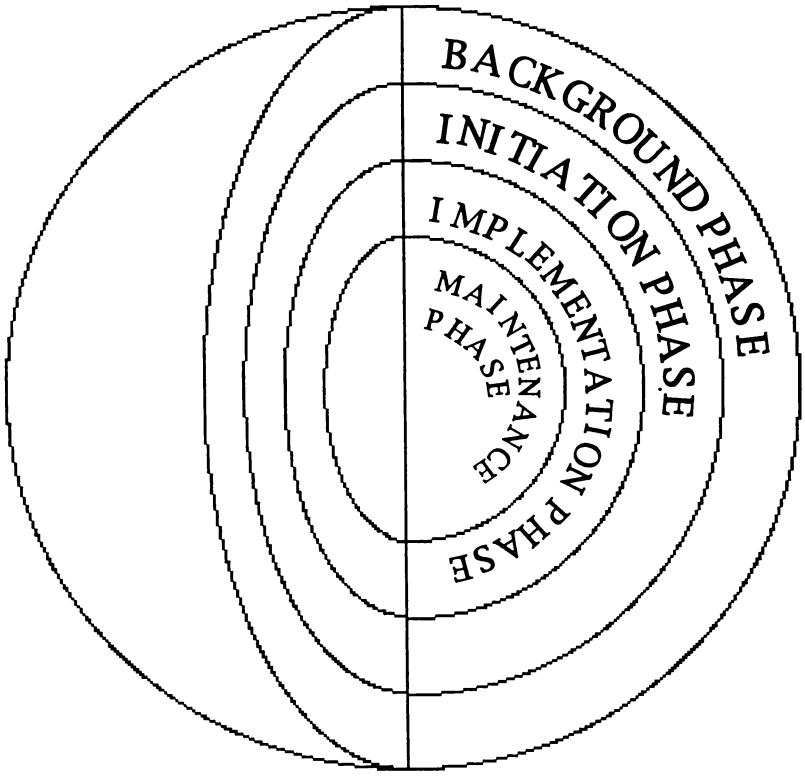
point of directing staff and parents where applicable to gain knowledge. In this school the board of trustees also took responsibility for paying fees. According to the principal, this ensured that the staff realised that they were valued and acknowledged; therefore it was indirectly a form of pastoral care. All the schools invited specialist advisers into their community to assist with the 'on the job' training of staff, but it was the relationship and formality or informality of the occasion which the teachers related to. An individual professional, however well trained or intentioned, was not well received if the visit was of short duration and formal. The teacher could not conceive how such an approach could determine the problems they were experiencing and the 'off the cuff' suggestions sometimes did not get the attention they possibly should have. Teachers referred to working through the suggestions with little effect. The informal visit of a familiar adviser, some of whom were regarded as 'friends', possibly after a meeting initiated in the staffroom and followed by a sharing of experiences, yielded positive results. It was the different approaches of the schools associated with the norms of the school culture, noted by Sapher and King (1985, p. 2) as "reaching out to knowledge bases" and "tangible support" which in the opinion of the researcher made the difference. The timing of the intervention was also crucial. There appeared to be a difference in teacher acceptability that they *had* received training. This was based on the regularity of the meeting, the experience of good rapport between the parties and whether the teachers felt unchallenged when requesting extra help. However, if matters reached a crisis situation, the teachers felt unable to cope and a 'summit' meeting was called, this was not viewed as training even if this is what ensued. It is suggested that this explains the reason why the majority of teachers felt they had no specific training to manage children with special needs in their classroom, when probing elicited that there had been considerable ongoing contact with knowledgeable persons. The significance of the involvement of specialist advisers and the influence they can exert was referred to by Thomas (1985a and 1985b). He considered the close support of advisers valuable, when teachers lacked confidence in their ability to integrate 'handicapped' children. The apprehension of some teachers in finding a child with special educational needs placed in their classroom was referred to in Chapter 8, but so also was the growth in confidence which came with association and experience, and this shall be further explored in Chapter 10. Until skills are upgraded and the number and quality of resource personnel are increased, Ward et al. (1987) considered there would be little reduction in teacher anxieties concerning inclusion.

In this Implementation Phase of inclusion, various aspects of management have been examined within a framework of normative aspects of the school cultures. The

enrolment and placement of a child with special educational needs has specific implications touching on many areas of school culture The research has outlined the role expectations that people associated with the process of integration have of each other, and has directly highlighted the importance of collegiality in the positive outcomes of inclusion. The significance of the principal's leadership in supporting and encouraging the professional staff in integration practices, has been reinforced. The ability of the principal to apply for and win resources for the students and to know whom, when and how to approach outside agencies and specialist advisers had a positive affect on the attitude of the professional staff, and their ability to actively practice inclusion. The ability of the principal to provide pastoral care to the staff within the school was vital in the development of collegiality, trust and confidence. Finally, staff development in inclusion was generally considered specific to individual children and was particularly effective if it involved informal, personal, 'on the job' training which involved teacher support. The next chapter will move into the Maintenance Phase of inclusion and examine the day to day classroom routine, the importance of personality characteristics in children, and their relevance to integration, peer acceptance and support.

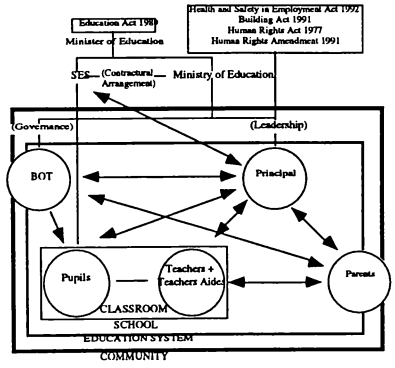
Chapter Ten

Maintenance Phase



Synopsis

The reality of inclusion was explored in this chapter. The management of classroom routine was considered basic to the practice of inclusion. How teachers achieved routine with a diverse group of children was examined with particular interest being taken in task comprehension and task completion. These two areas of the learning process appeared to place the major strain on teacher ability and time demands during the observational period in the schools. Other factors which influenced inclusion included positive and negative traits which students bought to the classroom, as well as the frequent use of peer support and peer tutoring. Whether the inclusion of children had an effect on the academic progress of the peers and the choice of venue for 1:1 tuition were two additional aspects of classroom interest.



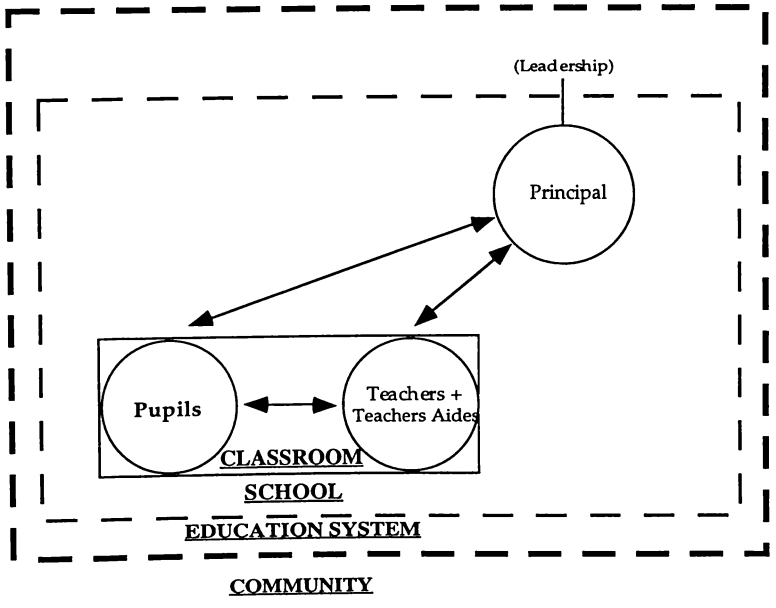


Fig. 10.1 **Maintenance Phase - classroom routines task comprehension and task completion, time demands and effect of these on teachers and peers.**

10.0 The Maintenance Phase

Until this point of the thesis the perception of inclusion by all those persons involved has shown considerable ambivalence. On one hand there is the recognition of the rights of the children and according to the schools, a determined effort to instigate the inclusive process, but on the other hand the perception of this philosophy is in terms of the allocation of resources. In this chapter the reality of inclusion is examined. Hughes et al. (1985) suggested that the classroom is the final testing place of the success or failure of educational change, with the teacher as the judge. In the light of this statement, inclusion will be put to the test in this chapter. The personal interactions and relationships of the classroom will be revealed in relation to classroom routine, task management and personality traits. The question is whether the ambivalence demonstrated in the governance and management of the schools, extends into the classroom.

In the Maintenance Phase the children with special educational needs were placed in a classroom, their resources had been allocated and their support systems were in place. The actuality of inclusion which is experienced by every person in the classrooms, varied widely: firstly, according to the different schools and their principal's leadership style; secondly, according to the speed with which the Ministry of Education had responded to the assessment and recommendations of the SES; thirdly, according to the arrangements of the support services which were closely associated with the degree of educational need presented by the child. Once in the classroom a series of interactive experiences began for pupils, teachers and teachers aides. These experiences occurred at a very personal level, and showed both consistency of events and considerable diversity of interpretation. The different ways the classrooms defined and interpreted the needs of the children, were dependent on the support systems which schools were able to put in place and which were largely dependent on funding allocations.

For instance, while there were many children who experienced inclusion in a very positive manner, at the same time it was apparent that some teachers experienced extreme time demands or a lack of work satisfaction. The factors which accounted for these happenings were dependent on: the school culture including leadership, communication and collegiality experienced with respect to inclusion; contextual features like the number of children with special needs in the classroom and class size; the form of special educational need presented; the amount of ancillary staff, special

teacher support and special advisory help that was available, and the teacher's career experience.

During the observational stage in the schools, certain general and individual aspects of inclusion were noted to be important in inclusion and ultimately made acceptance easier for some children than others. The personal attributes of the children and integration practices in classrooms were monitored at the five schools, in an attempt to understand how teachers included children with widely diverse skills and development into the classroom routine. All the schools had programmes in place which supported the integration of the children with special educational needs into classrooms. One of these was the use made of peer support and peer tutoring by all schools in the study. Therefore interest was focussed on the perceived success of inclusion in the schools and the variety of organisational approaches which were made to encourage the ideology in the classroom.

10.1 Effect on the Children in the School

The children with special needs were accepted by their peers, and it can be said that this was because of the positive school attitude and educational climate, which were created by a commitment towards these pupils. With appropriate support and resources, teachers and peers gave the assistance necessary for these children to maintain a daily school presence as similar as possible to other children's.

The professional staff at Karo, Miro, Rata and Titoki schools spoke of how positive the policy of inclusion had been for all the pupils in the school. In Nikau school there was not such a consensus of opinion over positive gains made to the pupils of the school. This could possibly be due to the small number of children with physical, intellectual and sensory disabilities and to a greater number of children with social, emotional and behavioural difficulties, often associated with learning disabilities. Two trustees from this school reflected a lack of confidence in inclusion, as they explained:

> [With regard to the teachers] it is not necessarily their fault, they haven't been prepared for it. The children at the school have little understanding and little tolerance of children with special needs. (S3/ B1)

> I think the children who are in the class must be affected by having students who have some special educational needs. Maybe it is positive that they learn to be tolerant, they learn to accept differences, they learn to care and they learn to give help but also I think it must affect how much time they would spend with the teacher, as well as the behaviour and what goes on in the classroom. (S3/ B2)

The trustees from the other four schools were more positive, but also demonstrated some reticence over the inclusion of children with special needs into their schools. While they did agreed that it may put more stress on teachers, they also considered that the children had a more accepting attitude:

> The children tend to accept things and take it in their stride. (S4/ B1)

> It probably doesn't worry the school children as a whole. The co-operation between children is better because children generally want to be helpful and friendly and if they know there is somebody who needs a bit more help than others, it doesn't bother the children helping. (S2/ B1)

The teachers from Karo, Miro, Rata and Titoki schools, however, were more positive about the inclusion of children with special needs in their classrooms, and the effect it has had on their other pupils, *unless* the disability was emotional or behavioural. They spoke of children becoming more responsible for other children, of being more caring and more sensitive to other people's needs. According to the teachers, it had made children more comfortable with those who are different to them and more tolerant of differences in people generally. Teachers from Nikau who discussed the relative merits of inclusion, were not so positive about the philosophy in spite of the support programmes they organised in the classrooms. They mentioned the need for resources, support, and teacher training with considerably more feeling than the teachers of the other four schools, as this remark illustrates:

> I have almost got to the stage that, is there any point in saying it because we know we won't get it anyway. There are just so many dollars to go around. Mainstreaming is here, it is a 'fait accompli' without the support we need in hours and resources. (S3/ T1)

Professional staff responded by commenting on how it had brought out the best in some children in both classrooms and playgrounds. This had allowed the children with special needs to be accepted as being people in their own right, according to these staff members:

> I think it is very interesting because you see sides of children you normally may not ever see. I shouldn't be surprised but there is another side to this kid. That caring attitude has come out in him towards [the child] and he would be the first there to stand up if anything happened to [the child]. (S1/P1)

> It has helped other children's self esteem. I have noticed that some of the children who have problems relating to others, can come to [the children], talk to them and feel comfortable. These children offer protection and make friends within the school. (S2/ T3)

To the staff, it seemed that often some children with special needs brought the best out in those children who had trouble relating socially to children in the classroom. The

principal of Miro spoke of the children being better equipped to understand the needs of children with disabilities:

> They don't see them as oddities, they see them as one of them except they don't walk properly or they need a wheelchair to get around and they accept it. (S2/ P1)

> They look upon these children as classmates, as children that are really the same as them other than that they have special needs. They are an integral part of the class, they are not separate and they are children first and part of the group. (S1/P1)

This attitude to normalcy was also referred to by the trustee from Rata and the principal of Titoki school:

> I don't think it has had much effect on the school as a whole because we try to treat them as normal children. (S4/B1)

> We encourage children to see everybody as having needs and rights because children have differences in their learning and perhaps in their physical appearance. It shouldn't make any difference as to how we treat them, because they are still people within. (S5/ P1)

The deputy principal of Nikau felt the school was reaping the benefits of having children with special educational needs enrolled at school. Changes in behaviour had been noted because they had introduced programmes specially designed to build self esteem and caring for each other, like Skills for Adolescence, Reaching Out and the DARE programme. The success of these programmes was acknowledged:

> The whole tone of the school changed, the children appear to be different and they are very supportive towards children with special needs. (S3/ DP1)

A teacher from Karo school referred to a visit from a group of people, who were to be on the ERO review team, who asked her class how they felt about having the children in their classroom:

> One of the standard 1 girls really amazed them by saying "I feel really lucky". (S1/ T3)

However, not all approaches to inclusion and the integration of the children with disabilities were as positive as this approach. Talking about children with severe intellectual disabilities, one teacher who worked in a special unit stated:

> They say that the children will come to accept them but it doesn't work that way. It is an idealistic outlook. (S5/ T4)

In Chapter 9, a teacher at Titoki school referred to inclusion being of more value to the peers than to the particular children she worked with. As there were widely differing

views on various aspects of inclusion in spite of a positive approach to the effect on the schools, it was necessary to understand what influenced the acceptance of these children.

10.2 Factors Which Affected Acceptance

Because of the differences the schools demonstrated with regard to inclusion and the individuality of children, comparisons on acceptance could only be made in a general way between schools. A more useful exercise was looking at the children individually and ascertaining what factors assisted, or alternatively hindered inclusion. This approach also indicated reasons for the noted ambivalence to inclusion and for additional support being required in some classrooms. Factors which professional staff highlighted as affecting acceptance of children with special educational needs included age of enrolment, use of mechanical aids, and the personal attributes of the children. A limited number of comments showed that the acceptance some children experienced was related to community responses to disabilities.

10.2.1 Age of enrolment. The age at which pupils with special educational needs entered the school had an important bearing on the acceptance and integration of those children. For children who started school at age five and progressed through school with their peers, there were noticeable advantages over those children who were enrolled later in their educational careers. Many teachers spoke of the acceptance of certain children because they had always been in the class, their classmates knew them well and as they progressed through school, teachers were all knowledgeable and comfortable with them. Miro school was very matter of a fact about the presence of children with severe visual problems in their classroom, as a teacher explained:

> We had not gone overboard about it. It was all very low key and this was happening in our classroom. Other new entrants would come in and you would find them sitting and looking at [the child]. One day I remember [a peer] who had been there several days sat next to [the child] and started looking, and then he realised "he can't see"! Other children didn't make it so obvious, they didn't even notice and they certainly accepted them in the classroom. (S2/ T6)

Similarly, professional staff of the schools expressed how familiarity, understanding and confidence were acquired over time:

> If they come in as new entrants I think it makes a huge difference because you are taming and training all entrants, and they just become part of the new entrants programme. Their problems are the same as any new entrant's. (S5/ T3)

> The children have been a long time with [the child] so the children haven't had to make the adjustment in the classroom because they have known her for so long. (S4/ T1)
>
> In this school the kids seem to accept all these children because they have been exposed to them and because they are involved with them. (S1/ T2)

It was acknowledged by the staff that children follow by example. This became obvious when children entered the schools later in their primary career and were noted to have specific reactions to children with severe disabilities and special needs already present. It was suggested by staff that it takes a period of time for these children to adjust to the presence of children who are so impaired, and generally the new pupils observe how other children react, and follow suit:

> They sort of make a big deal out of it when they see [the children] for the first time whereas from the others there is no reaction at all. It throws them a little bit and they are not sure how to react. If nobody else makes a big fuss then it is not the thing to do, so you don't either. (S1/ T4)
>
> We see with new children to the school they always gravitate to our children immediately for some weeks, especially the older ones in Standard 2, 3, and 4. Then they get that out of their system and go. (S1/IT)

Familiarity bred acceptance, but the help of interesting mechanical aids usually aided and abetted recognition It was, however, questionable whether all the children appreciated the attention they brought.

10.2.2 Mechanical aids and independence. According to professional staff, the children who were in wheelchairs had an obvious appeal to their peers:

> A wheelchair child doesn't cause any problem that I know. Some of the kids really love the wheelchair, they like 'stropping' them around the school seeing how fast they can let them go. Kids really love that. (S3/ P1)
>
> She was always with us because someone was pushing her. She took advantage of people but the kids liked to push her anyway. (S1/ T2)
>
> [The child] in a wheelchair was very well accepted. I think his wheelchair was a prop that he used to draw children to him. I noticed the difference when he was on callipers and crutches. His magnetism wasn't so strong. (S2/ T7)

But in Miro school, the use of a wheelchair as a plaything was discouraged because of a policy of making the children as independent as possible. The principal of Rata drew attention to the independence a child could lose, as peers saw the children as having "extraordinary special needs". Eventually one child in his school reached the stage

where he told his peers to leave him alone, because he became annoyed at children trying to do too much for him. There were times, according to the staff, when they had to intercede and tell the peers to leave children alone and let them be independent:

> Sometimes I have to be firm but kind and say (the child's) alright, "let go his hand" because they are wanting to hold his hand while I am wanting to do things. And the girls are fussing around [another child] trying to make her laugh. (S1/ TA2)

> They would fight over who was going to wheel him around the playground and take him for walks. In fact he was fussed over too much. They had to say to the children "Leave him alone" and let him be independent. (S3/ T11)

> As well as being independent they are very determined, which is important to have. Determination and not to be walked over by other children, not to be dragged here, there and everywhere. They have rights as well. (S2/ TA1)

Crutches were regarded with fascination and comment in the early days of inclusion for some children, according to professional staff. There were many references to the appeal which the helplessness of a few children had to their peers and how it brought out a 'mothering' instinct in them:

> A lot of the girls it brings out the motherly nature in them, it is almost like they are playing with big dolls and some get a bit patronising at times. (S1/ T4)

> I especially noticed when they first arrived that the children would tend to mother them and with these guys their way to respond was to do things for them. Now they know that they can get on and do things independently and [the peers] treat them more as individuals, as people. (S2/ T5)

> It has been a good learning experience to see this growth and what these children are able to do. I think in the first instance that is what they wanted to do, to mollycoddle him. (S4/P1)

A reference was made by the principal of Nikau school that there are always the one or two students who are derogatory towards other pupils, and a number of responses indicated that the fault was laid on the intolerance demonstrated by the community. This intolerance was considered to reach into the classrooms and the responses of some children to difference.

10.2.3 The community responsibility for acceptance? There were a number of responses made by professional staff, placing the blame for a lack of acceptance of many of these children on to parents in the community. This comment was excused occasionally by the staff who remarked that these parents came from a

time when differences were noted and associated with non-acceptance. One other reason offered was the presumed concern that these children may take time from the classroom teacher, and the remaining children may receive less attention. This issue of time and meeting the needs of classmates will be addressed later in this chapter. There were, however, references made to discrimination, which teachers suggested as coming from the community:

> We have them over in Room [number] and that I don't think is the best. They tend to be labelled 'handicaps'. Now that has come through parents to children, it certainly hasn't come from the staff. (S5/ T1)
>
> I believe that children are accepting and the prejudices are created in children's minds by adults. (S2/P1)
>
> You get a lot of things coming out of the kids' mouths you know doesn't come from the kids but it comes from the parents and we have a large cross section of parents. (S1/ T4)

The benefits which would accrue by having children learn to accept a change in values in the community and an understanding and acceptance of people with differences, would go a long way for the peers when they reach adulthood, according to several respondents from Karo school:

> Looking back on my childhood, we just didn't see children with disabilities, severe intellectual and physical disabilities in the community. Our children will not experience this because they are brought up with it. (S1/TA2)
>
> I think the children have the right to go to the school of the parent's choice and I strongly believe that integration is the answer for all of society, if society is going to accept people with disability as having a rightful place in society. It has to happen at the beginning and in the schools so they are growing up along with regular kids and in a regular setting and not seen as vastly different. (S1/ P2)

Community involvement and support was very much in the minds of the principals of Karo, Rata and Titoki with their 'open door' policy and invitation of parents to come into the school and see inclusion in practice. The value of parental involvement during extra-curricular school activities will be referred to in section 10.2.5. It was often in the more relaxed atmosphere of, for example, a school camp that both peers and their parents recognised the challenge that being in an inclusive school was for some children. However, in the early stages of primary school some surprising reactions from the peers were noted by teachers

10.2.4 Other reactions to inclusion. In the junior school, some children exhibited jealousy over the attention that certain children with special educational needs received from itinerant teachers or ancillary staff:

> It was really quite interesting to watch. "They get all the special things. Why do they get special this and special that". There was quite a lot of jealousy. (S2/T12)

> They get special attention and other children object to that. (S1/ T5)

There were several comments from staff on taking their children with special needs to outside activities involving other schools, which did not have children with such obvious disabilities. The teachers were very aware of the reactions of both staff and children from other schools, where inclusion was not a normal happening in everyday life. They reported staring, not knowing how to include their children in activities, and some discomfort in interaction. Many of the staff at Karo stated they had developed an awareness of the degree of acceptance experienced in their own school, as this teacher aide explained:

> As a person who works with children with disabilities, maybe we need to go out more to other schools and see how they work, just to appreciate what we have got. (S1/ TA1)

Parents, however, were very aware of how their children were accepted by other children, how those children had to cope with children with special needs in the classroom and often they realised it was with limited teacher or teacher aide support. The parents who were interviewed were all supportive of the teachers, they referred to the number of children in the classrooms and over half commented that the effect on the classroom depended on the support structure in place for those children. These parents also spoke of the difficulty teachers had with the diversity of children in the classroom, before they started to include children with more specific needs, like their children. Two parents spoke on the rights of children and the rights of parents to have a choice, and the need for other options to be available, if they felt their child could not be adequately served in the present mainstream system:

> Then there should be provision for them in terms of special education and special schools. (S2/ P5)

> I think there may be some children with very severe disabilities who may need more specialised teaching as a team, than they would be getting in the normal classroom situation. They may need some sort of compromise in special units in schools. I just don't think it works for all. (S2/ P4)

These reactions to alternative placement were unusual but were presented by both professional staff and parents. There was approval and almost unanimous excitement

over inclusion in one place, however, and that was when the school became involved in non-academic activities.

10.2.5 Extracurricular activities and acceptance. Observation of the children in the playground or during physical education or sports sessions indicated that some children, who were experiencing difficulties in academic areas of their schooling, enjoyed and occasionally outshone their peers. Because of this anomaly, teachers were asked to consider the extracurricular activities that children with special educational needs participated in, which they considered assisted inclusion and acceptance. The activities were recreational or sports related, and included the Special Olympics and school camps.

School camp was described by the principal of Rata school "as the only overt thing we do that is deliberate and different". It was a time when the school gave the children with special educational needs the opportunity to do what everyone else did, to the best of their ability. At school camp children were expected to look after their own routines and equipment. Teachers considered camp a wonderful teaching situation because of the level of self care skills required, and the need for the children to establish routines. There was a total commitment by schools in this study to the value of school camps for *all* children, but especially for most of the children with special educational needs. It was a time when many children accepted challenges and were exposed to new experiences that their home background had precluded. The camp existence was also considered to have had good effect on some of the classes, because all the children were in close proximity in bunk rooms or tents for extended periods of time and had to learn new understanding. According to a teacher, since camp the children in a class from Rata had come to share a child's successes:

> They will come up and say, "Have you seen [the child's] work, she has done such and such. You will enjoy it. You are going to get a nice surprise". (S4/T1)

The fact of simply "being there" was considered one child's "biggest challenge" even though he would not participate in any activities. The adult leading each of the units the children were allotted to, were seen to "make the difference" as encouragement, patience and time in a small group for an extended period of time assisted inclusion. As a teacher reported, the result was that the children "supported these kids all the way":

> Camp was a wonderful experience for [the child] she just blossomed. Camp was her thing and she saw herself as an independent person there. (S4/T1)

The year before this same child had, along with her classmates, written a story on what she wanted to achieve from camp. One line stated, "to find a friend". A peer had explained how "she doesn't have any friends. She was a friend, but when I wanted to play with my other friends she hung around". This demonstrated the pain of forming friendships for some of these children. A year later, there had been a considerable change in the social abilities of this child and the teacher considered the other children had come to understand the difficulties she was facing. Some of the children with very specific needs went to camp with parental support. Although some of the children frequently stayed for only part of the camp, did not do all the activities and frequently had considerable physical support, the schools accommodated the needs of the children. According to a principal, this was because they were part of a class and everyone was to participate:

> He went to school camp with his parents and they ensured he did everything. Oh! He enjoyed it and so did the parents! (S2/P1)

There were a few reports of children avoiding their parents or asking them to go home, so the children could carry on their activities! Titoki school made an effort to take a special class to camp because "it was one time these children could be mainstreamed". For these children it was considered a social as well as an academic time, and feedback from staff and parents indicated that the effort was well worth it. For the children with special educational needs it was necessary for them "to be part of it", as long as the school could physically handle the logistics of the event.

There were a few contra-indications for children not going to camp. Either the children posed a safety threat to themselves or their peers, or their behaviour indicated that they were unable to consider the well being and enjoyment of others. The parents were notified in these cases, of the teacher's reluctance to take their child on camp. The schools tried to involve all the children regardless of their disability and this could be a worry to those teachers who very occasionally felt the activity was not suitable. With support from the staff of Miro school who persisted in the plan, and parents who responded positively to the demands of the occasion, there was a "turn around" in a teacher's attitude towards children with disabilities. It was in a discussion on school camps that a principal noted that probably one of the biggest changes he had noticed, was in the teachers' attitudes:

> Prior to mainstreaming teachers almost resented having a child in their class. The straight answer would be "no, thank you very much". Because of the reality of the classroom, the teachers just get on and do the job and

> when positive things happen they rejoice that something has happened to their child with special needs. (S2/P1)

However, the principal concluded that the way inclusion has happened has been unfair on teachers. The basis for this judgment was "just the expectation that they will do it, with no training and minimal resources".

For the children who were well co-ordinated, the school sports gave them an opportunity to 'shine', to be part of an event and to get involved. These children were most frequently those with learning disabilities with or without emotional and behavioural difficulties. The individual endeavours were best seen in the close knit school community, as frequently these children could not cope with numbers of people and did not have skills to perform competitively. Responding and relating in team events posed a problem for many children although they were encouraged to try. Negative behaviours were demonstrated by some children who could not cope with the lack of structured organisation and their associated disinterest. The result was often a tendency 'to play the fool'.

It was usual for schools to take *all* their children to sporting activities and to involve them in any way they possibly could, even if it was watching activities and conversation:

> They will actually be involved and the other children encourage them to be part of it. (S4/P1)

> All those children are included and it seems to me that children automatically go to help them if they can see that they are having difficulty doing something. (S2/P1)

At Rata school the staff made sure there were activities that all the children could be involved in. According to the principal, the important thing in this school was that every "contribution [was] accepted without fear of failure", because of values recognised in the school culture.

For a limited group of children attendance at a physical education programme at Teacher's College proved enjoyable. This activity, however, did not help these children become accepted, because they were seen to have a privilege denied to their peers:

> One of the kids wanted to know "why do they get to go to Special Gym". Most of them would have had a field day because they have such fabulous equipment. I wouldn't say that has helped them become accepted. (S2/T8)

Attendance at the Special Olympics proved to be a highlight of the school year for some children, which they shared with their peers as they talked of their experiences and showed their medals:

> She felt really good about that. We were able to say to the other children "Look what [the child] has done, she got this ribbon for doing this". (S2/T5)

> One of the things she did that really built her self esteem and she got a real buzz out of, was when she went to the Special Olympics. (S2/T1)

That there was still some confusion over inclusion in one school, was apparent when teachers aides arrived to take the children with disabilities from the school teams lined up and practicing for Kiwi Sports. These children were to go to a practice for the Special Olympics. Observations recorded in field notes indicated that the teachers had gone to some effort to have all the teams evenly matched for *all* children according to age, sex and ability:

> The classroom teachers appeared momentarily confused as they recognised the irony of the situation. (S2/FN)

These were some of the incidental factors which affected the inclusion of children in the school. The most noticeable aspect was the response to extracurricular activities where the lack of classroom structure, relaxed attitudes and adequate personal support ensured a perception of success for everyone. During fieldwork there was a notable difference recorded in acceptance of various children with special needs. This difference did not relate to age or the type of disability, as some children who were considerably impaired were very accepted by their peers, while other children with a lesser impairment were having difficulty being accepted. The next part of this chapter presents the considerations of professional staff on this occurrence.

10.3 Attributes Which Positively Influence Inclusion

There were many children attending the schools in this study who had considerable impairment, but were highly respected by peers and teachers alike. One of the obvious reasons for this was the children's ability to relate to other people, in particular their peers. Other factors which encouraged acceptance, according to the teachers, included appearance, children trying their best in all situations, the peers having some knowledge of the disability, and the use by the school of specific programmes to encourage integration. These attributes were acknowledged as those things which the children could bring to the relationships within the classroom to support themselves.

10.3.1 Providing feedback. Frequently the children had been with their peers for some time and had become accustomed to each other. If this relationship developed within a supportive atmosphere, the acceptance of the child with special educational needs as just another classmate was made very easy, as a teacher aide explained:

> If it is no big deal for the teachers then it is no big deal for the children, they just fit in the classroom. (S1/ TA1)

In addition teachers spoke of the importance of children having a "happy personality" and a "cheery nature", as well as having friendliness, warmth, a giving nature and an ability to co-operate. The more outgoing the child was, the easier the teachers felt it was for them to socialise with their peers in a positive manner. According to professional staff, the children who were able to hold a conversation, to relate to others and talk, as well as possess a "personality" were considered sociable and more easily integrated:

> No matter if [the child] was disabled or she wasn't, her personality was there. She was just a loving, accepting little girl [who] sort of drew people to her, she would have done that anyhow because she was who she was. (S1/ TA1)

> She is quite a sociable little girl and she likes to have people around her and chat to them. (S1/ T4)

> [The child] has her huddle of friends. She chats away, she is interested in other children. I think that is a big thing, she wants to know what they are doing and what their interests are. (S2/ T6)

If children did not relate to their peers they were ostracised, according to the principal of Nikau. Teachers referred to the children's communication skills and sociability as important, so there could be some contact in the classroom. It did not matter how minimal that contact was, as long as the child contributed something to the classroom community:

> That could be why the children have this thing about her because she does not give anyone anything. (S3/ T1)

> If they don't react it is very difficult for the children to know what they want. They need the feedback. (S1/ T1)

> He is responsive and he is happy. He responds to them and their efforts to get him to laugh. (S1/ TA3)

If the children with the special educational needs were pleasant, wanted to be part of a social group, were willing and open to be accepted they were integrated very easily. The social behaviour of these children played a big part in their acceptance and in

receiving help from their peers. In contrast, a teacher described how she had found it difficult to come to like a child, a happening that had caused her to worry:

> It did take me a long time to learn to like [the child]. I really did have to work at liking him because he doesn't give much back. Often it is a very one way thing. (S2/ T5)

There were several children whose relationships were one way, and peers accepted that was the way it was with those particular children. A teacher aide described it as a "kindness thing". According to teachers, this skill at maintaining friendships, being co-operative and friendly was very finely balanced in children with emotional or behavioural problems and frequently their inability to maintain peer relationships was their responsibility:

> [The child] was accepted at times, but most of the time he was rejected because he didn't have the skills to maintain a friendship. He was self destructive. He would set something up or be part of it and then he would devastate it. (S2/ T7)

> He would fall out with one group and take up with another group but it was always with those [extreme] groups of children, those who have intelligence or those who haven't. (S3/ T6)

As well as interactive behaviour, the appearance of these children had a bearing on their acceptance within the school community.

10.3.2 Appearance. Some teachers felt that if the child's physical appearance was not so different from the peers' it made integration easier, as they explained:

> If they look good and looks do have something to do with it, it is a fact of life isn't it? (S3/ T7)

> What helps these ones is that they don't look any different. They are actually intelligent, they talk and they can do all the verbal things. The fact that they have a learning disability doesn't show on them. (S5/ T2)

Acceptance went beyond looking like their peers, as many children had some quality which was appealing. For one child it was his colloquial language, as he would greet them with "Heh! Good day mate!" According to some teachers, there were also physical attractions like having large expressive eyes which made some children very noticeable beyond their obvious physical disability. Other children with special needs had a certain attribute that appealed to peers and teachers alike, and broke down any reserve. A sense of humour was frequently commented on, and was really appreciated.

Appearance and being able to interact were considered favourable attributes, but one further trait that was recognised by peers was the effort children put into any activity.

10.3.3 Independence. Any amount of effort that a child made, despite obvious disability, was warmly received by a child's peers. The teachers commented on how they warmed to a child who was keen to learn and interested in their schooling, even if there were substantial difficulties:

> He'll help himself which I think makes him more accepted. I don't think they treat him at all as being different. (S2/TA4)
>
> If they have interests similar to their age group and are willing to get involved in things. If they don't stand back and they won't be left out. (S3/ T5)

The children with disabilities can become aware of their lack of achievement but if they are trying, according to a teacher from Nikau, it becomes extremely positive when things go right.

Children also responded to a child's "sense of persistence", according to another teacher. One of her children tried to be very independent and didn't seek help easily, always trying to attempt a problem before going to a peer for help. This was regarded as a very special trait by her peers. The willingness to have a try was important to acceptance, because a teacher considered the children thought "they are one of us", if they were prepared to have a go. The ability to "have a go" was considered important by adults and children alike, but so also was having enough knowledge to comprehend the meaning of having a different appearance, behaviour or ability.

10.3.4 Knowledge to understand. The act of inclusion involved the whole school community in a learning process, so that everyone felt comfortable and knew how to deal with the varying situations which might occur. More emphasis was put on helping children to understand about certain children's disabilities in some classrooms than in others. It was a very individual approach dependent on the teacher, the peers, the child and their disability. Teachers stated the aim was to help the peers understand why the children were as they were, what the problem was and what they could do to help:

> I think some knowledge and understanding by the peers of the child with special needs is important. Like where they are coming from, where they are at, and what their disability is and their needs are. (S2/ T1)
>
> I think the children need to appreciate the things that she can do. The class knows that she has problems, they know there are a lot of things that she

> doesn't join in with and they need to understand and they accept that. (S5/ T1)

Some peers found the children's behaviour difficult to understand and teachers made opportunities to have class discussions and talks from visitors, so they understood the part they could play in assisting some of their classmates.

Knowledge also allowed the peers an understanding, which enabled them to take considerable pride in the efforts made by some children with disabilities :

> When they have completed something they will get quite a bit of congratulations. A "well done" sort of thing. (S3/ T10)

> If a teacher can pick out a child's strengths that helps them be accepted. The kids know that she can really do some good drawing. (S4/ T1)

With these attributes many teachers created an atmosphere of peer support and pride in the work of others and they fostered a climate where children did compliment each other in the classroom. This provided valuable feedback for *all* the children. There were, however, certain traits which acted against the integration of children with special educational needs.

10.4 Attributes Which Act Against Integration

The actions and behaviours which limited acceptance in the classroom were those considered antisocial by other children. A large number of the teachers had experienced these situations, and while these events applied to *all* children, most incidents were reported in connection with children with emotional and behavioural problems. Many of these traits required action from the professional staff and indirectly or directly, this action was tied to the use of scarce resources. Therefore staff attempted to ameliorate these negative traits in a variety of ways. Although Karo, Miro and Rata schools faced these problems, Nikau school by its attempts to meet the needs of children with emotional and behavioural disorders was most affected.

10.4.1 Specific negative actions and behaviour. According to professional staff, children strongly reacted against having their classroom disrupted and became quite angry over that happening. Children had difficulty dealing with behaviours like physical or verbal violence and this caused considerable worry to them, as these teachers explained:

> These people may lash out and hit them and because they look different they may react differently. I think that is a real fear in children. (S1/ T1)

> [The child] used to be physically violent and had to be manhandled out of the classroom and that is detrimental, but the peers used to forget quickly and get on with things. (S3/ T1)
>
> He was the terror of the school and he thought he reigned supreme and they were quite scared about that until we talked about it as a group. (S3/ T2)
>
> He was extremely strong when he was in a mood. The peers learned not to interfere and they learned not to step into the problem. They only did that once. (S3/ T3)
>
> I think that when [the child] would scream and yell and throw things. It was alright if he was dishing out abuse but if someone turned on him he couldn't take it. (S3/ T6)

Aggression which involved pushing, stealing of things from others and physical abuse was referred to many times, with pinching being a fairly common form of attack. One teacher explained that although some children proved difficult for the peers to handle and the peers were advised not to become involved, when it did occur the children were given guidance in appropriate behaviour:

> The kids handle it, they will walk away or they will come and see me which I have told them to do. I mean no one needs to put up with that. (S3/ T5)

It was considered that children were not too worried about these difficulties, as they could cope with most situations. The concern as expressed by these teachers, was that if the child looked different or did not follow the accepted behaviour, that child may do something the peer could not cope with and it was this concern of not coping that made children nervous:

> They are more likely to accept an odd looking child, a child with a physical disability than a child with really unusual behavioural characteristics. I find those unusual behaviours quite likely to attract attention and they are difficult to explain. (S5/ T3)

As described by professional staff, this event was related to children not understanding, or being aware of the various actions that may occur. It was important that children be given information to cover any action they may experience, they said:

> The kids just go along with it, you don't have to teach them. They only need an answer. (S1/ P1)
>
> Some knowledge and understanding of that child, their disability and their needs and where they are coming from and where they are at is very important for the peer. (S2/ T1)

To this end, several parents reported they had been invited to their respective schools to talk to the peers in the class where their child was placed, and to answer any questions they may pose. The result, according to a teacher from Karo school, was that you took the children 'on board' and in most situations they felt a responsibility for their actions. This approach was very dependent on the stage of a child's development, according to a teacher from Miro school, who considered children with special educational needs were easily accepted at primary school, and also as young adults in high school. Some apprehension was expressed by teachers and parents about "the middle stage", when children were discovering themselves, when there was a lot of peer pressure and when they were learning to be independent people. This was a stage when the tolerance and acceptance levels for someone who was different, were considered more difficult. This intolerance was expressed by the children who travelled to their special class at one school on the bus provided by the Ministry of Education. The teacher had tried many approaches to deal with the problem but admitted failure:

> If they don't look intellectually retarded then not a lot is laid on them. My kids call the bus the 'nerd bus' and they hate travelling on it because they don't want to be associated with kids who don't look the same. (S5/ T2)

Peers were also considered to have trouble accepting someone who was too demanding, who was considered ego-centric and had been the recipient of considerable attention:

> A lot of kids have probably been over handled at primary school and they go to intermediate and they are on their own and that is a problem. They have almost got a learned helplessness attitude, as a lot of them in the past have been mollycoddled. (S3/B2)

Children who were intolerant and not caring about the rights of others, those who were aggressive and impatient, especially those children who interrupted and disrupted classroom activities, were very distressing to their classmates and caused resentment. This was not necessarily loud disruptive behaviour, but children demanding so much of the teachers' time that it disrupted their conversations and learning sequences, with the result they could not give undivided attention to their classes:

> When they do things to get their attention and to be accepted. They seek attention and in readily seeking attention they turn everybody off. (S3/ T7)

> The whining, wanting attention all the time and tantrums. It would turn you off any child. (S5/ T5)

> They can just destroy whatever is happening in the room and because they ruin it, we just won't do it. (S4/ T4)

In discussing negative behaviour, teachers commented on how peers may take time to come to terms with some behaviour and to make a decision on the acceptability of some children:

> The kids were just drawn to him and as they started figuring out his standard of speech, his swearing, his starting up of gangs and chasing kids around in his wheelchair, [but] that group that was drawn to him diminished and only the hard core gang remained. (S2/ T7)

> [The child] doesn't listen and he does other things that turn children off. "No, I don't want to do that". "No, that's boring, that's dumb" So he has kind of switched kids off. (S2/ T6)

Some children with special needs were seen as a hindrance to what the peers wanted to do and this required sensitive handling. As time progressed the children in one school became less keen to look after a child, when they saw it meant they could never have a proper game of cricket. A teacher stepped in and saw that this child was occupied on occasions, so the peers were not frustrated and had time to themselves.

While having a different appearance was difficult for some peers to come to terms with, when it was associated with hygiene and clothes, it took on a negative aspect in relation to acceptance.

10.4.2 Daily living skills. General appearance was considered by teachers to be very important in the acceptance of all children. This was considered a parental and home issue, and was considered very difficult to handle. There were standards of hygiene and dress that peers expected in their classmates, although allowances were made for some children, as professional staff explained:

> Nobody else seems to notice that [the child's] clothes don't fit and are filthy except me, and nobody in my class has made comments about [another child's] hair. (S4/ T2)

> Children dressed in an inappropriate manner. It is important for children to have clothes that fit and are clean and to have hair cut occasionally. (S1/ IT1)

> It is sad to say personal appearance is one. (S3/ DP2)

> Rather than blaming the child it is the parents who neglect [who should be blamed]. If a child is scruffy, unkempt and also lacks intelligence, then I think the parents' role has a big contribution to make. (S4/ P1)

The negative part played by children's appearance associated with hygiene and dress was placed firmly with the parents. When related to acceptance it was considered an unnecessary problem which schools did not find easy to manage.

10.4.3 Parenting as a negative factor. Parenting was referred to several times in the discussion on children's acceptance. The difficulty of assisting parents with an understanding that they were not meeting their children's needs, was a difficult topic for schools to face. A deprived background, frequently learning difficulties, low self esteem and the children often having to resort to scrounging for basics like food, hindered acceptance by their peers. Sensitivity towards these children, according to the principal of Karo school, meant that "you need to be careful with the background of each child and [remember] each child is different".

The parent's role, particularly with children who were on special programmes for behavioural problems was another aspect of parenting referred to. Frequently it was difficult to get the parents to accept that they had a problem, and that their home situation was not very good, according to the principal of Karo school (section 9.1.4). The result was that as children needed to get their peers' acceptance they did things to attract attention, which were detrimental to the whole school. There were, however, additional factors which made life very difficult for some children in forming relationships.

10.4.4 Additional factors which made inclusion difficult. These factors included social skills and most importantly, the need to keep children safe from their own actions.

The schools were responsible for keeping a limited number of children safe at all times, over and above the level of safety expected for their peers. This proved a worry to the staff concerned, as a teacher explained:

> She was very passive and would do anything she was told even to the point of things that were unpleasant or naughty, or putting herself in danger. That happened regularly unfortunately. She seemed to bring the worst out in the regular children, because she was so compliant and so nice that the children took advantage of her in a not very nice way. (S5/ T4)

The difficulty of understanding speech proved a barrier to some children's acceptance and led to some children not having friends and becoming 'loners'. However, even when a child had good speech, appropriate behaviour and was accepted there could still be difficulties in relationships with peers. Social skills such as eating behaviours upset some children and other actions were noted which often made a child unattractive to others, such as dribbling. The physical appearance, however, of a child did not make such an impression as the unusual behavioural characteristics certain

children portrayed. Unusual behaviours attracted attention and were difficult to explain to others. In time children learned to keep clear if they wished to avoid being involved in actions they didn't understand and this was noted on many occasions during observations in the schools:

> As we went through various team games there was much rolling on the ground, making physical contact with the peers, pushing for a place, 'acting out' and having two turns. Showing off repeatedly and being a nuisance. The peers backed off and let him have his way. Finally, after 30 minutes of this a very big boy stands over him and tells him to "shut up". The child returns to the classroom. (S2/FN)

An additional factor of a logistical kind which came to the researcher's attention on several occasions, was the physical problems which arose due to the staff gender imbalance in the schools. Female teachers made up the majority of staff of the schools and they were at times challenged by their physical stature, not only when managing emotional and behavioural difficulties with students, but also in handling mechanical devices. Several teachers referred to the difficulties experienced with managing wheelchairs and lifting children so that school outings could be achieved. Where possible parents were requested to assist so that their child could be included. A deputy principal spoke of her concern at having to handle an adolescent boy between wheelchair and the car to achieve an appointment. The occasion was considered embarrassing for both parties and these situations demonstrated the need for male ancillary staff.

In this section, a variety of issues influencing acceptance which professional staff were required to manage in the schools have been explored. These have included: age of enrolment; the use of mechanical aids; community responses to special needs; the positive and negative personality traits of all children in the classroom as well as their behaviour. This section has demonstrated the complexity of inclusive practice in the classroom, because many of these issues of acceptance must be addressed before teaching and learning can commence. These issues also place demands on the resources and support systems of schools. The responses of professional staff to all these issues are related to their satisfaction with the support they consider they have to achieve a smoothly running classroom and school. By examining the use of extra-curricular activities it has been shown that once adults and children are away from the classroom situation other interactions and behaviours occur, which are favourable to acceptance and naturally to inclusion as well.

There was a short step from extra-curricular activities to play. Therefore socialisation at morning interval and lunchtime was considered another testing time for inclusion,

because there was no organised interaction or encouragement of relationships for the children. Did the success of the relaxed structured extra-curricula activities filter into the playground? No school had a policy on the inclusion of children at playtime.

10.5 Playtime

For some children, the age gap with their peers widened as chronological age and social age showed differing levels of maturity. There were times when social inadequacies became very obvious to the staff. For example, as a teacher explained, gravitating to the "disabled people in the unit" or to the younger children in the school, was a way one child coped with the social isolation she experienced:

> She has to go down 3 or 4 years to make an impact on children in a social context. (S5/T5)

Several teachers reported a change in social activity, as children who were once integrated with their peers gradually became left behind:

> Once skipping around and holding hands she could become very involved in. Now playing netball and reading books and playing more advanced games, she can't keep up. (S2/7)

> Socially [the child] is far behind her peers and she doesn't have friends with other children in the class plus she is so hard to understand. (S2/ T6)

The teachers commented on how some of these children tended to congregate together, as well as move to an age level requiring less sophisticated skills. This was noted during observation of school playgrounds and by teachers:

> During lunchtime [the child] is playing down in the junior school with balls and blocks. (FN/ S5)

> She does tend to hang around with the little children but they are very kind to her but she doesn't seem able to respond.(S5/ TA2)

> They obviously feel different but they seem to be happy together. (S2/ T6)

> [The child] is starting to socialise now. She is still going to the young children but she is with other children. (S2/ T4)

This social interaction was repeated at lunchtime breaks and the children with mixed social abilities did appear to enjoy each other's company. It was noted in observations that in some instances, at frequent intervals, peers came and spoke to the children for very short periods and then went about their play. These children were not isolated, they just did not maintain a conversation or activity over any length of time, as recorded observations showed:

> [The children] were together with peers calling in and talking for short periods of time. They played with a skipping rope, with peers coming and going frequently. (FN/ S2)

Interaction with peers was able to be maintained in the structured classroom, but at playtime children sought their own companions. Although 'buddies' were used in three schools in the study, there was a reluctance to engineer social situations, as this teacher explained:

> You can't do that without it backfiring. It is important that the children do things for themselves as far as friendships and interactions with other children. (S4/ T3)

Periodically when discussing social outcomes, comments from professional staff demonstrated that there was some ambivalence to inclusion even where the ideology was fully implemented and appeared to be working. According to a limited number of teachers who felt this way, the answer for the children with special educational and developmental needs, was not to be found in inclusion. These teachers felt children would get a great deal more out of their education, if they were in a special unit within a school.

> Look at [the child], he has been mainstreamed all his life yet he is not accepted by the other children. The other children do not relate to him. (S2/ T2)

Similarly, a teacher in a special unit expressed her personal opinion concerning inclusion:

> The benefit is greater for the regular children than it is for the children in my room. (S5/ T4)

Without structuring situations, but with the ethos of the school expecting interactions the children managed their play in their own way. None of the schools in the study had a playground policy or any documented plan to encourage the formation of friendships. However, some schools had introduced selected programmes to encourage children to develop self esteem and to accept differences in others

10.6 Programmes Which Support Integration

The use in some schools of specific programmes to encourage self esteem, as well as caring, tolerant and accepting attitudes to all students, played an important role in assisting teachers to support positive attitudes to inclusion. The programmes used in Nikau school were Reaching Out, Skills for Adolescence and the DARE programme,

while Karo and Miro schools used an Assertive Discipline programme. A modified form of this programe was used in Rata school. These programmes became part of school policy and students were well aware of the consequences of breaking the school's rules. The result was a reduction in negative and an increase in positive behaviour, and this had an important part to play in the relationship of the children with disabilities and their peers.

10.7 Peer Support and Peer Tutoring

A knowledge of the rules of classroom and school provided all pupils with a plan of action and teachers with a rule of consistency. This consistency and action formed the basis for peer association. Some form of peer support was used by *all* the children in the every day organisation of the schools in this study. A variety of approaches were regarded as peer support, and encouraging some children to be responsible for the academic, social or physical activities of other children was a recognised scheme of school management. It proved to be a major way teachers managed the diversity of their students in the classroom. Although there were no written school policies on this issue, there were clearly defined activities that were used by professional staff to encourage independence, leadership, school community involvement and classroom cohesion. These approaches were allied to the spoken and enacted policy of Macdonald (1981). Peer tutoring, however, was less widespread and although all the schools admitted using this approach in their classrooms, its use was not well defined and was dependent on a teacher's classroom routine.

10.7.1 Peer support. The use of 'buddy' systems was the main form of peer support in use. This approach took two different forms; the first involved entire classrooms in the senior school being closely allied to classrooms in the junior school, and the second was an individual buddy system. Through the first approach the school catered for things as diverse as absenteeism to reading, and from playground support to social activities. This enabled the younger children in the school to know personally and receive encouragement and friendship from an older child, and for the older child to accept a leadership role and be responsible for others. The children with special educational needs were part of this support system. This general 'buddy' system was also used in the classrooms where a 'leader for the day' was used and every child in the room took a turn at certain classroom responsibilities, including the children with special educational needs, who sometimes required extra support to fulfil this function. In Karo and Rata schools, this policy of placing expectations on everyone, appeared to make providing support relatively easy and a shared experience:

> If we look at a physical activity, it can be a lonely experience for [the child] but to take another child just to be there and a different child every day, walking with them is enough. While we do involve a child, it is not the same person all the time. (S4/ P1)

> Anywhere they can fit in and assist him or get responses from him they are quite at ease and they usually approach him. [The teacher aide] looks around and chooses someone if there is anything that she feels they are able to do. (S1/ T1)

In a more individual approach, the schools encouraged all their children to be supportive of other children. This informal situation was partly classroom routine, as the teachers requested certain pupils to take responsibility for others. This was apparent in classroom observations during fieldwork. A pupil was requested to "go and look after [the child] while she was doing [a task]" (S5/ T1). In other schools teachers explained the sense of responsibility children developed within this system:

> There wasn't *a* child, there was sort of a group of children. It wasn't me selecting them, it was more them. (S1/ T2)

> I try to move her around so she works with different people. I'll explain to them what [the child] is supposed to be doing and just get them to keep her on task while they are doing whatever they are doing, and then they can come to me if [the child] had a problem. (S1/ T4)

A more formal peer support system was also used in Karo school, where peers of the children with special educational needs were asked to volunteer their services. These children were rostered to give staff release time for morning break and lunch. The peers accepted it as a routine associated with these particular classmates and the older children recognised it as part of their school community role, as the principal explained:

> The senior students know that because we have these children at the school, that they are going to have an important role in looking after them. They accept it and it is not pushed on them. It is up to them to volunteer and to my knowledge we have never been short of anybody to do so and they enjoy it. (S1/ P1)

The parents of these children with special educational needs were consulted on this form of peer support, and they had given their approval. Every day the children providing support worked in pairs, so the safety angle was covered if anything untoward should happen in the classroom or playground.

The relationship of peer support was very important in the schools' management of inclusion. This was illustrated when the parents of a peer in one school were approached for their approval in setting up a peer supervision scheme, before the staff

took their son into their confidence. An explanation of the background and the expectations placed on the peer were provided as the child concerned, according to the principal, "daren't be let out of our sight for a moment" and always needed someone with him. This support was generally provided by volunteers or an informal request of the peers by a teacher. A teacher explained that while volunteers or a roster system were often used, usually the class was consulted, and a communal decision made on how to provide support:

> It was a bit of a set up which required class agreement. There was usually a child who volunteered. I just had to be aware that I did not use the same child all the time and encouraged other children. (S2/ T1)

The idea of choosing of a 'buddy' for a child was discussed by several teachers and the consensus of opinion was that for it to be successful, the pairing up had to be initiated by the children themselves. A principal considered this mutual initiation was important also:

> When [the child] started they chose someone for him. They tried to choose someone really caring but he wasn't interested in them. There was a group of boys and they wanted to climb trees, and he was up there with them. (S2/ P5)

Teachers suggested that finding a buddy happened naturally sometimes and at other times it didn't, and at those times the teachers would ask someone to help. For social interaction a teacher would often deliberately group or 'buddy' up a child. Frequently just a prompt was required but during fieldwork in the schools, it was noted that certain children with special needs always experienced difficulty in gaining partners for activities:

> [The child] is last in line and without a partner. (S2/ FN)
>
> [The child] needs a partner and she is set up with a buddy by the teacher. (S2/ FN)
>
> I think more often than not I do tend to choose [the child's] partner or I'll say who will be a partner for [the child] or there are always volunteers, they are good at that. (S2/ T6)

Teachers used various ploys to avoid the situation of a child being left alone and several admitted they avoided the general line of "take a partner", because it invariably ended with the child with special needs being left out. Instead some teachers were observed to choose the child with special needs as a leader, a peer usually very rapidly chose to be a partner and in a subtle way the situation of being left out was avoided.

Another facet of peer support was the protection peers gave to their classmates in the face of negative behaviour, which usually originated from pupils from outside the classroom. A teacher at Miro school stated:

> He was a very lucky boy to have had some of the people he had to help him and if anybody teased him he'd laugh. I don't think he absorbed what was said, but the peers would take very deep umbrage. (S2/T2)

Peer pressure was a very strong controlling influence in the school not only to help avoid negative approaches to many children, but also to gain actual support, according to the principal of Karo school:

> If the kids are willing to do it and volunteer, they don't look upon it as a chore they look upon it as a privilege. It is a totally different concept. Peer pressure is really overwhelming. (S1/ P1)

Peer support also took the form of giving positive encouragement when children did well at an activity. Sometimes this reinforcement required teacher prompting, but at other times the children were genuinely excited by a child showing improvement or success, as a teacher reported:

> They are very encouraging. I always hear them encouraging [the child] at P.E. time. They are just that kind of group of kids. (S3/ T5)

The Skills for Adolescence programme provided Nikau school with the vehicle for providing peer support and as the programme was taken in every classroom, it resulted in the peers volunteering to help any child out. An attitude of co-operation was expected by all the teachers:

> I expect my whole class to treat others as they would expect to be treated, which children are terrible at doing. That is constant and works with the whole philosophy of being in this classroom. (S3/ T2)

> My class runs as a group class room where you don't work on your own. It is a class programme and the method by which I teach. (S3/ T3)

> Support in a co-operative climate. I think it is imperative that they feel helped and supported by their peers because I put the pressure on pretty heavy at times. (S5/ T2)

Peer support in various forms was accepted as the norm in all the schools, and teachers used a variety of strategies to encourage pupils to help each other. An awareness grew in both teachers and pupils as to the use of peer support and it became a very personal form of interaction. The crux of the use of this strategy was an awareness in professional staff of when they were using it, which children were involved and for what periods of time and this demonstrated that sensitivity and training in this technique were essential. At various times teachers aides were used to

encourage peer interaction and this action was observed to be skilfully used at Karo school, in both the classroom and playground. When a teacher requested a peer to assist with a specific topic in the classroom, as opposed to being supportive and encouraging, it was assumed that peer tutoring was taking place.

10.7.2 Peer tutoring. Peer tutoring was used frequently in classrooms in many situations both formal and informal, and certain topics proved useful for this approach. Other than using teachers aides this was another way that teachers managed the diversity of their pupils in a classroom with large numbers of children. Informal usage has been considered here as peer support.

Activities which lend themselves to peer tutoring are those which can be done on a 1:1 basis. Reading proved to be the most suitable topic for peer tutoring and one third of the teachers interviewed used peers in this way. Maths was another activity suitable for peers to work on together, because one of the problems teachers faced was with children who could not read the instructions to find out what was required of them. According to the teachers, peer tutoring was used in physical education, art, craft work and unit studies, but no topic was considered as useful for peer tutoring as reading:

> It is easy in terms of the subject just to hear a child read or in physical education just to help him with a ball on a 1:1 basis. These sorts of activities are the ones that lend themselves to peer support. (S4/ P1)

> With academic work guidance, with physical activity, encouragement and with social interaction involvement. (S1/ T5)

> She took quite a lot of responsibility and she did a lot of teaching with him. She taught him his alphabet and she would keep reinforcing what was being done with him. (S2/T2)

The use of group or co-operative work in the classroom enabled many children to be assisted on tasks which they were unable to complete on their own. Again this assisted the teacher in managing to meet the needs of diverse children in the classroom. Where there was a need for a lot of discussion, there was a possibility for the child with special educational needs to contribute, with the other children assisting. This frequently required a teacher to adapt topics so that they were meaningful to these children as well as being achievable, and by meeting the child's needs it was possible for the work to be done with peers. By using a teacher aide to prepare the child ahead of time on topics for group discussion, one teacher felt her pupil was able to be integrated into the regular classroom. Flexibility was demonstrated in the use teachers made of peers in the classroom, as they explained:

> It is good to use [the peers] when you need to. I wouldn't want to say to [the peers] every reading time but it is good to know that if I am working with another reading group, I can use them. (S2/ T5)
>
> Working in groups or working in pairs, that is working with different peers in the groups all the time. Peer support goes on all day. (S3/ T2)
>
> All the children in here have skills of one sort or another and I highlight them. I always highlight their strengths so they are brought out and others can use them. (S5/ T2)

As had been noted in fieldwork and by the responses of the teachers, peer support or tutoring was used frequently in the classroom, whenever it was suitable and for a variety of learning experiences. Although there had been repeated references to the peers placed in this role, further information was sought on the selection process and the attributes of the 'tutors'.

10.7.3 Selection of peer tutors. Although some teachers used peer tutoring and peer support as an integral part of their classroom routine and involved all their pupils in the process, in other classes selected peers worked with children with special educational needs. How these particular children came to be in this position, was a question asked of the professional staff. Basically, the awareness aroused in the peers to the additional support some children in the class required, came from the teachers and their classroom management. This provided a classroom support system. However, the peers who worked on a 1:1 basis with other children were either self selected by volunteering their services, or selected by teachers because of certain attributes. There was a wariness in the selection, as this teacher noted:

> We tend to include as many children as we can in all activities. If there is interaction that we think can be made we'll either invite or ask certain children to work with [the child]. The only thing that we have to be careful of is that the children's own academic work does not suffer, because they are always working with [the child]. (S1/ T1)

One point frequently mentioned by teachers when discussing the personal support some of these children gave, was the need to rotate them so they did not miss out on activities they should experience. This was because very often the same children put themselves forward to help. The reason for this was frequently the caring nature of these children, as this teacher stated:

> I just had to be aware that I did not use the same child all the time and encouraged other children. (S2/T1)

However, according to a deputy principal, peer tutoring could also become a work avoidance issue:

> We will see that doesn't happen because some children will use it quite often, to not do what they should be doing. (S1/ T1)

The teachers frequently commented that they did not do the selecting because it was the pupils who put themselves forward. They displayed qualities that were needed like being very reliable, helpful, capable, sensitive and patient. Other qualities suggested were tolerant, caring and accepting. The teachers chose the responsible children for academic activities, as they frequently had personality and an ability to cope, both socially and academically. A teacher described the character of the desired peer tutor:

> I make sure they are sensible children. They must be trusted by these children and they have to be accepted and be tolerant. (S1/ T5)

Some children would present themselves as a partner for outdoor activities, as opposed to classroom work. However, the more academically advanced students were often selected for peer tutoring, according to both teachers and principals:

> I think in our case it would be the brighter kids who would be asked to do that role in an informal way. (S5/ P1)

> They are mainly the more intelligent children because they seem to know how to help her without telling her what to do, whereas some of the other children tell her what to do rather than help her. (S1/ T4)

> I often ask "would you check [the child's] work on the computer". She does that with other children's work in the class because she is often finished her work first, or doesn't mind or can catch up. (S3/ T4)

While there was an awareness that the more able child was being frequently used in this supportive role, one principal considered it an advantage to *that* child, because they had to clarify their own thoughts about the topic, in order to get the message across to the child with special needs.

Meeting the needs of pupils in a classroom where there was a wide variation in potential saw a variety of schemes in use based on the peer tutoring and support principle. Some teachers used rotation on the class list as a source of the peer to assist for the day or it might simply be the peer who was closest or doing the same thing. Most frequently though it was personality combined with caring and consideration, and these were often the children chosen to be leaders by all the children. Occasionally the "strong kids" would be chosen because "they would not be led off task", and this was important when the children requiring support were emotionally or behaviourally

disturbed. Sharing the task of assisting these children with special educational needs was emphasised by many teachers:

> They were never over used. We did make sure that there were turns and I would say no one ever did it against their will. (S3/ T7)

> While we do involve the child it is not the same person all the time. (S4/ P1)

The selection of the same group of children for classroom responsibilities concerned two principals in particular, and caused the principal of Rata to comment on the need for the rotation of these students:

> It would be very easy for the school to take a fairly elite group of pupils and give them all the responsibilities and the peer tutoring. You could pick one or two who could do it well, they could almost do a teaching job but it is not good for their academic progress if they are neglecting their own work. We have to be careful and we do it by saying "let's have a lot of children who can do this". (S4/ P1)

The age of the children was considered to be important, as children could not help much as long as the activities were so difficult that explanations had to be given. As the children matured "they came into their own" and according to one teacher, "some of them will take over" particularly at playtime and lunchtime. Age played a role in the school with adolescents, where the classrooms worked with an acknowledgment of difference and an acceptance and support of all peers. In adolescence there was little selection of peers to assist certain pupils, as all the students were expected to support each other, but several teachers did refer to the use of good role models. This provided a different approach as the teachers explained:

> All groupings have to be mixed and they can't be in the same groups that they worked with before, so it is a constantly changing movement. (S3/T2)

> The whole lot were always mixed up; mixed ability, mixed ethnically, mixed gender, whichever way you like to turn the mixer, I mix them. It is just my classroom philosophy. (S3/ T3)

> The responsible ones and the role models where there is something for him to look up to. I work out groups in a lot of different ways. I'll evenly dispense the class on a lot of things: form, sex, and attitudes, a lot of things come into it so the groups are very evenly spread. (S3/ T5)

The reference to 'responsible' people was made several times in Nikau school. The spoken policy from this school was that children should help those with special educational needs no more and no less than any other child in the room:

> We have them working together but not having them jeopardise the person who is helping. So it is not just them being a labourer if you like. I have

> an idea that I don't think teachers should be asking children to do their work. I believe in co-operation and sharing, but I don't think we should be making use of children because they are children. (S3/ DP1)

The area of peer tutoring and peer support required careful monitoring, according to this deputy principal. The professional staff suggested there was a fine balance between mutually interactive peer support and the benefits of learning achieved by using peers as teachers or assistants. With the wide variation of capabilities in a classroom there was the possibility, according to principals and teachers, that some children would inevitably take on responsibilities that as pupils in the school, they should not be expected to. As has been already noted, no school in this study had a written policy on peer support or peer tutoring, although there were spoken and enacted policies.

10.8 Summary and Discussion.

By the Maintenance Phase of the process of inclusion, the governance and management stages of the change are in place and issues which require identification are individual, personal and demonstrated in the classroom. It was here that inclusion would be legitimised. In discussions at this phase of inclusion and in the course of observations in the schools, the issues referred to became child centred, less dependent on the school culture and more homogeneous. The differences which were demonstrated were strongly influenced by the school culture and the leadership they experienced, and this was shown in how the professional staff reacted and indicated their feelings towards inclusion. Underlying the perception of inclusion was the response to the amount of support the schools felt they were given, and it was the influence of the leadership which balanced the reactions of the staff. Therefore, while the professionalism of staff sought to understand, support and meet the needs of the children in a very similar manner, the validation of inclusion, release of stress, directed arguments and emotions differed, according to the school community in which the staff were employed.

The inclusion of children with special educational needs in the schools was regarded as a positive occurrence by professional staff, except where the children showed emotional or behavioural problems. Teachers showed reticence in accepting the policy of inclusion for these children because they did not feel the resources allocated to them were sufficient to maintain a smoothly functioning classroom. As the research findings of Thomas (1985a and b) and Pieterse and Center (1984) have suggested, a positive attitude to integration on the part of the teacher is a necessary prerequisite for

successful integration. Pieterse and Center (1984) also considered integration to be most successful when those associated with governance were "firmly convinced of its ultimate benefit to both disabled and regular peers" (p.19). These premises were found to be true and this study has attempted to extend these views and unravel the interdependency of relationships, actions and responses to understand how teachers manage the logistics of an inclusive classroom. To understand the many facets of acceptance of a child with special educational and developmental needs is a base from which teachers can move on to organise their classroom routines. This section has outlined these factors which were found to strongly influence a classroom. They shall now be summarised and discussed in the light of relevant research.

1. All those who participated in this research were in agreement that the presence of children with special educational needs had added a new dimension to the school community. The professional staff and boards of trustees' respondents all referred to characteristics of sensitivity, tolerance, caring, feeling comfortable with difference and personal development being demonstrated in all children at their schools. Many staff commented on how the school regarded these children as one of the regular pupils, except that they had special educational needs. Having determined the change that inclusion had made on the ethos of the school, it was essential to identify the factors which affected acceptance of these children.

2. Inclusion was influenced by general as well as individual and personal factors. These included: age of enrolment, use of mechanical aids, drive for independence, the influence of the community which formed the catchment area for the school, and personal reactions from peers. Of these the age of enrolment as a criterion in effective inclusion was perhaps the most important. The children who had spent their entire primary education in one school, were accepted by the school community through the knowledge staff and pupils had of them. Children entering later were not as naturally integrated, however inclusion usually came with familiarity and time. Mechanical aids like wheelchairs and crutches posed a novelty interest to many peers, an occurrence not always appreciated by the children concerned or the staff. Familiarity with equipment was commented on by Melton (1980) when he discussed "de-mystifying" their association with disabilities by allowing peers to experiment with them. Melton emphasised the need for peers to understand their usefulness, and to have this experimentation accompanied by interpretation and information by a teacher. In this study a teacher had allowed her class to experiment with a hearing device under the tutorship of an adviser for the deaf. There were a few occasions the 'acting out' of behaviour associated with wheelchairs and devices was not appropriate from an

independence or safety viewpoint, and a child was seen to be assertive over his feelings in this area. There were some negative reactions to children with disabilities and these were attributed by professional staff as "children being children", to parental prejudices and biases, and reactions from peers that were related to their feelings towards the allocation of the teacher's time and materials. The values and practice of the school community made for varying degrees of discomfiture, when they ventured out into other school communities where the policy of inclusion was not practised. In association with these general factors which influenced inclusion, there were positive and negative traits which were of a personal nature.

3. The negative attributes demonstrated by individual children which caused staff to express feelings against the policy of inclusion, included having the class disrupted and acts of physical and verbal violence. The peers had learned various strategies to manage these events, and generally, although the children could accept the physical, sensory or intellectual disability it was the unusual behavioural characteristics shown by some of these children which caused problems. To overcome these concerns, schools had included parents together with teachers, in providing information to the peers. If the children with special needs showed intolerance, impatience, and unawareness of the rights of other children there were frequently problems of acceptance of those children in the classroom. The relevance of these traits to the classroom are, firstly, in the recognition of self concept and esteem, and their relationship to peer acceptance (Semmel and Cheney, 1979) and secondly, in the recognition of the unique reactions that occur which are dependent on specific disabilities (Rich et al., 1984).

4. There were positive attributes in children with special needs which assisted their integration in the school community, just as there were negative occurrences that detracted from this integration. Children who were able to provide feedback in a social situation found forming a classmate relationship easier, and the majority of the staff referred to the personality of a child as being vital to a child's acceptance. If the child was cheerful and had a happy disposition, and desired to be accepted in the class community, there was generally no difficulty. For those who could not provide feedback there were acts of 'kindness' as peers communicated and attempted to relate naturally, but generally not for extended periods of time. To have a similar appearance to the peers made inclusion easier, but there were often some qualities that the peers valued, that appealed to them which made socialising easier. A sense of humour was a most admired attribute for acceptance. Peers really appreciated and tried to assist or give praise to children they recognised as trying their best, whatever that level of skill

was. This happening was frequently preceded in class by explanations of the child's disability and how the classmates could assist, so everyone understood the situation. This approach frequently led to the peers taking considerable pride in the effort that these children put into their school day. Such peer support was valuable for *all* children.

The value of the social responses of children who are 'disabled' has been emphasised by Gresham (1982) and Rosenbaum et al. (1988). Both see the importance of reciprocity in relationships as vital to integration, as it has been described by professional staff in this study. Rosenbaum is concerned with the limited research available into what attracts or inhibits children in forming relationships, and comments on the role of children in conditioning attitudes towards themselves. In contrast, Gresham places the emphasis on social skills training to increase the likelihood that children with special educational needs will interact with and be socially acceptable to their peers. This approach denies the reciprocal quality of social interactions, according to Strain and Shores (1983) who state clearly that if maximum social skills are to be displayed by children they must have the basic opportunities to respond. It was this opportunity which all the schools in this study displayed with regard to the inclusion of children with special educational needs on school camps and sports events. The extremely positive reactions to success of these occasions for pupils, parents, teachers and principals, indicated that the chance for these children to interact with peers outside an academic situation allowed for alternative skills to be recognised and accepted. At this time the children were challenged by the "appropriate risk-taking opportunities" and the removal of the "limit[ation] of choices" (Giorcelli, 1992, p. 89) that were likely to occur in the organisation of a school day. It is suggested by the researcher, that at the more relaxed venue of camp all people involved with the children have time and the personal endeavour to gain a realistic understanding of inclusion. Four schools emphasised the individual support systems they put in place to achieve this activity and herein lies the success of the venture. However, as positive as this approach was to normalisation for children with special educational needs, no official resource support was provided by the Ministry of Education to achieve these goals. This again draws attention to the unresolved problems of resource allocation, where identifying students was considered counter-productive to encouraging schools to take responsibility for their students. Some professionals felt it made students 'special', but there were situations where funds were not available to enable schools to carry out a proposed challenging inclusive plan.

5. Playtime was a time when the success of integration was openly demonstrated, as children naturally congregated and related on their own terms with only minimal adult intervention. The children who showed slower social development than their peers invariably left their age mates and sought companionship with those at a similar stage of socialisation. An alternative was that children with special educational needs sought each other out for company, or very often the peers made contact with these children, but on a frequent short term basis. Interactions and relationships during this period were very dependent on the social skills of communication and response. To assist with encouraging self esteem, caring, tolerant and accepting attitudes, some schools had included programmes as part of their school curriculum or disciplinary policy, but no school had a playground policy in place. Peer pressure had the effect of incidental support for some children to prevent negative occurrences, as well as a positive effect of providing volunteers for daily assistance in the classrooms. Age played a small part in the use of peer support in the early stages of schooling but with progression through school its influence increased. By adolescence, age was important in group support where a recognition of differences within a cohesive classroom provided support for all students. Age could, however, act to segregate children in adolescence, as cliques developed and friendships based on 'likeness' made the child with special educational and developmental needs a marginal person.

Affirmative action has been the approach used in the research of Pieterse and Center (1984), where they discussed the value their children had gained from intensive instruction to acquire skills necessary for entry into school at appropriate age levels. These included pre-academic and communication skills and school- related behaviours like group participation, response to direction, task orientation and social adaptation. Although this research was carried out a decade ago, these authors draw attention to the fact that teachers generally do not possess the strategies to ensure effective social and instructional integration. They refer to the need for resource teachers or itinerant teachers to be present to assist with this objective. This study is in agreement with these suggestions, as this aspect of integration was neglected by all but Karo school, which used ancillary staff support with good effect.

6. General appearance was another factor considered important, and for children to appear neat and tidily presented was an advantage to those children in their relationships with the peers. Staff and principals referred to the importance of adequate parenting in this connection, because if a child experienced a learning problem to appear ill kempt and inadequately clothed exacerbated a non-accepting situation. Reference has already been made in Chapter 8 to the preparation given to peers by

teachers when children are placed in the classroom, and the essential element here was for teachers to have adequate and accurate information. Preparation and information sharing, according to Melton (1980), should be part of a community attempt in meeting the requirements of inclusion. While schools in general met these criteria there appeared to be no recognition by the government through the Ministry of Education of the time teachers spent in the role of preparing peers, training in this area was not apparent, there was no resource allocation to encourage these preparatory sessions and they were included as part of the daily curriculum activity.

7. Peer support was used by professional staff throughout the schools in the study. There were no written policies available in any school on this topic, although there were considerable enacted and spoken policies reported to the researcher. Various systems of peer support were used by the schools including a 'buddy' system, a 'leader of the day' approach which lent itself to rotation of the children providing assistance, and finally the use of a roster system which also implied sharing. Parental involvement occurred at times when support systems were put in place. The peer support systems in place in the schools provided regular, ongoing co-operative learning situations which were beneficial to the acceptance of children with special educational needs in the classrooms. Recent international research has differentiated between social acceptance and the formation of friendships (Hamre-Nietupski et al., 1993 and 1994). While it was not possible to determine the differing contributions made to each of these social events in the course of this study, the positive attributes discussed in section 10.3 appeared to be the main forces behind the development of friendships.

Co-operative learning was considered by Johnson and Johnson (1981) and Madden and Slavin (1983) to be associated with self esteem, academic achievement, and social interaction, whereby students worked together and encouraged each other. The schools in this study had all in some way accepted this learning approach for their children, and combined it with a recognition of individual differences which was more pronounced in some schools than others. Schools like Karo, Miro and Rata used a group approach in learning associated with ancillary staff support for both children with special educational needs and other children who required specific individual assistance in various academic and social areas. This created the optimum conditions for acceptance. Johnson and Johnson (1980) suggested that competitive and individualistic learning experiences promote a process of rejection. This became apparent from the reactions of the students in the older age group in the intermediate school who felt their time spent in a resource room made their difference obvious to

their peers. There were very occasional episodes during the observation stage of the research, when certain children were marginalised so as not to 'spoil' group work. It was more common for students in the group to nominate an area for specific children to work on as 'theirs' and this received teacher recognition, peer encouragement and frequently praise. Individualistic work and competition did promote separateness in the classroom and therefore the results of this section should be placed in the context of international comments on achievement, competition and assessment, and the place of schools in a market economy (Dimmock and Bain, 1991; Heward and Lloyd-Smith, 1990).

8. Peer tutoring was recognised as students working together on a 1:1 basis. The topics which lent themselves to this form of support were fairly widespread, but reading, maths and physical education were the most common. The selection of students for the task of peer tutoring was based largely on several criteria. Firstly, the students selected themselves by volunteering. Secondly, the teachers accepted them because of certain attributes such as being capable, caring, and responsible. Frequently, these students were personable and appeared to be the leaders amongst the children. Thirdly, the more academically advanced children were selected for peer tutoring because they tended to finish their work first. Several references were made to children who seemed unlikely in a peer support role, but who had been given the chance to show a side of their personality not seen previously. Accountability of the peers towards inclusion was seldom mentioned in discussions. In this present study, the teachers' use and regard of peer tutoring were examined. When schools place an obligation on the peers to learn to accept similarities and to respect differences, the regular classroom takes on social as well as academic learning, according to Strom (1981). Therefore, in Strom's research great emphasis is placed on not depriving classmates of the opportunity to be responsible, and peer tutoring was regarded as one way to develop a positive self concept. While Eiserman (1988) details the need for training, lesson preparation and presentation in the use of peer tutoring, none of these approaches were used in the five schools in this study. The contribution of peer tutoring to inclusion is, according to Strom, that "teachers are not overwhelmed by the variety of children, materials and curricula" while the child with special educational needs is "ensured of having a 1:1 relationship in learning" (p. 436). The result is that regular students "gain co-operative attitudes and self respect". The increase in the amount of high quality instruction time peer tutoring presents, was also commented on by Fenrick and Petersen (1984). They drew attention to the fact recognised in this study that interactions which are not reciprocated decrease over time and by changing the emphasis from play to teaching, a rewarding way of interacting with the peers is

presented. Strom (1981), Fenrick and Petersen (1984) and Custer and Osguthorpe (1983) all record favourable feelings of respect, admiration, competency and social benefits from peer tutoring programmes. No one criteria was discovered by Kennedy and Thurman (1982) as to which children will offer their services to peer tutor.

The recognition by Kennedy and Thurman of the strong set of values and attitudes which children bring to school concerning those perceived as different had importance for this thesis. Parental training in the pre-school years was the strongest influence on children developing a sense of welfare for others in their opinion. This agrees with the comments made by professional staff in this study on the community, and more specifically the parents' role in influencing the acceptability of children with special educational needs in the school. It also supports the comments made by several professionals and parents, regarding the future hope of acceptance of all differences in people, as peers who have experienced inclusion become parents themselves.

The attitude to peer tutoring in the schools, was not as formal and all encompassing as that suggested by Strom. Consideration was given by professional staff in this study to the need to monitor the use of children in these roles carefully, because children must not be seen to do teachers work. There could, according to the teachers, be an avoidance issue to their own work by some students. Frequently, the same children were chosen because of their personality attributes, or because they were academically able and finished their work ahead of the class. Peer support and peer tutoring was an integral part of the integration of children with special needs into the school system, the usage of this approach was widespread in the schools and there was an agreement on its effectiveness.

9. The promotion of friendship was not actively pursued because it was considered by professional staff to be a relationship for the children to work out. They thought their interference did not usually lead to success. Teachers noted that in primary school friendship for all children was a very fickle affair involving constant change and emotions. Friendship is defined by Stainback and Stainback (1987) as "an ongoing reciprocal liking and behavioural involvement" (p. 19). These authors consider that friendships do not just happen, they have to be "developed and maintained" and that takes a certain amount of skill. The positive interactive style they describe is similar to the positive attributes to acceptance, as detailed in this research. The findings indicated that children need to understand the areas of interest which they share with others, to be able to take the perspective of others and to listen to their peers. The schools demonstrated that there was a place for sharing, help and support for others and for

assistance with conflict resolution. In some schools the presence of teachers aides with skills in facilitating these outcomes, demonstrated the effectiveness of inclusion for the school community. Many children, whether with an impairment or not and especially at a young age, showed difficulties in sharing, playing games by the rules, resolving their arguments amicably and rendering basic needs of assistance. The 'buddy' system in place in three primary schools placed all children in a situation whereby they learned co-operative and friendship skills as a part of classroom routine. The result was that responsibility was placed on all children to meet a norm required by the school culture. The basic requirement for each school is therefore, to have staff who have a high commitment to co-operative learning, social interactive skills and peer tutoring and will carry out these tasks (Hamre-Nietupski et al., 1993 and 1994). This has implications for teacher development and inservice training (section 9.2.4)

While peer associations and relationships are receiving considerable attention internationally, there is very limited knowledge on the mechanics of classroom activity when diversity of child skills and development is allied with classroom routines, curricula and pedagogy.

10.9 Classroom Routine

Organisation of the classroom was influenced by the acceptance of children with special educational and developmental needs, based on the factors which have been explored in sections 10.2 to 10.4. These factors influenced the total effect on the school community and one area, that of playtime, was looked at closely to see inclusion in practice in an unstructured environment. In this chapter, acceptance, mutual support and friendship have been emphasised as being essential for inclusion and adults have supported and where necessary intervened, in meeting all these aspects of inclusion. The next section looks at the basic organisation of classroom management: setting a routine and two aspects of teaching, task comprehension and task completion and their place in inclusion.

Classroom routine, as observed during fieldwork in this study, was based on a planned and smooth transition from activity to activity which required that children had advance knowledge of or an ability to read cues given to them. Generally, it was assumed that children understood these routines and had the ability to abide by them. Within any classroom in the schools, there appeared to be an assumption that a child had the ability to change activities when directed. This involved both cognitive and physical activity, but there was also an acceptance of a maturity level relative to the age

of the child. During the time spent in the classrooms it was obvious that these assumptions could not always be met and therefore interest centred on what action the classroom teacher followed, when the children were unable to meet these ideals. The involvement of teachers aides in meeting these aims for some children was vital in classroom management. Again, the organisational responses were fairly similar for all the schools, but the personal reactions to the situations were influenced by various aspects of each school's culture and the support of ancillary staff. In examining classroom routines, it became apparent that for successful inclusion to occur, the personal association of the teacher with the integrated pupils was a key factor.

10.9.1 Management aimed at classroom routine. Although the presence of the children with special educational needs in the classroom made the peers more aware of each other and promoted a caring, tolerant atmosphere, the teachers had to look to certain areas of *their* management skills to meet the diversity of their pupils. They remarked on the need to slow their instructions down, to be clear in their demands and not to assume or take anything for granted. That some teachers found it difficult to take into consideration the different abilities of children to comprehend classroom routines was a point an itinerant teacher commented on:

> Especially in terms of instructions. So many classroom instructions are so complex they haven't got a hope of following them but you can't always be working down at a lower level. (S1/IT)

How did the teachers meet the needs of certain children who were faced with school related demands for the first time? While children in the class had to be considered in whatever the teachers did, for certain children it was essential "to keep things as simple as possible so it [was] manageable for them". The teachers needed to be consistent with their instructions for all children, but especially for the children with special educational needs. They were required to give "short directions" and to "follow up on those directions". "You cannot have things skimmed over", stated a teacher. A few teachers admitted to feeling apprehensive and "a little scared of the unknown" at the start, even though they now considered it had been beneficial to the school, teachers, pupils and parents. Another teacher admitted that she was "a bit out of her depth". Teachers spoke of their early responses, such as not expecting these children to react as quickly as other children or expect them to obey class rules. There was an admission that teachers were "a wee bit more tolerant" towards children with special educational needs. There were admissions of making allowances in the beginning for some of the children when they knew they should not have, as a teacher described:

> Allowances for the calling out, when they were just as capable of putting up their hands as everybody else. (S2/T8)

The effect of training was noticed in the schools where assertive discipline programmes were in place. A considerably more relaxed attitude to routines in the classroom was noted. A teacher described how she regarded it as a "consistency measure" for herself, because it gave her the framework to be consistent with *all* the children with respect to classroom and playground rules.

While there was an admission of initial apprehension and of making special allowances for the children, the next step was to devise programmes to encourage some of the children to learn classroom routines. These were usually planned with the help of advisory personnel from SES or special teachers from the local Guidance Unit and implemented by teachers, in the course of their regular teaching sessions. The planning time was part of the teacher's out of school life and the implementation of programmes was done in the midst of regular classroom activity. The lack of independence of some children affected the classroom routine. An intensive programme was put in place for a child who was unable to acknowledge that there was a difficulty in his never knowing what he was supposed to be doing in class. He was learning to change his passive approach of being in a classroom "doing nothing" and "disrupting nobody", to doing an activity for a positive reason. In this individual case, extra teacher commands and the distractions of large numbers of children around the child proved unsettling. Making individual choices was a problem for other children and in these situations, in the final instance, the teacher had to make the choice for the children to break the 'impasse', as the teacher explained:

> He couldn't get himself organised to make a choice. We talked about options and choices. The [peers] had already established their routines and he had to fit into that kind of activity so we talked of routines. "How I fill in my class day?". "What do I do?" "How can I make it easier.?" "The decisions that I make?" (S3/T2)

In general teachers admitted that having children with special educational needs in their classroom had influenced the routine they followed. The type of disability the children presented with influenced the management of classroom routine most of all. However, it was shown that routines could be maintained to the expectations of the professional staff, when people were employed to carry out "time consuming management skills" with certain children. Therefore, it was considered necessary for resource people to be available to enable the teaching staff to continue their teaching sessions uninterrupted, as this teacher commented:

> We geared our timetable, so that his time with the teacher aide was when the other children really needed to concentrate, so the in depth teaching times were not interrupted in any way. (S2/T2)

The presence of these support people in their classrooms had been the biggest change they had come to terms with and it was accepted as part of learning at the beginning, as this teacher describes:

> I wasn't prepared for the extra people in the classroom supporting him, looking at him, trying to help but really it was all experience as [we started] to establish routines. (S2/T6)

For children who lacked motivation and made no noise, their only interruption to the class routine came in the form of the guilt teachers frequently experienced, when they realised the child was not involved in the programme (Appendix 1):

> She has got quite skilled at switching off and she disappears into the background then gets away with doing nothing. (S3/T1)

> They can hide away in a group. if they appear to be handling it and aren't causing any problems, the quieter ones will get missed because you are so busy going around the others. (S3/T10)

Children reaffirming their position in the class and seeking the teacher's attention did not affect the classroom routine, but it did interrupt the teacher's concentration. Usually these teachers dealt with it by ignoring the child until appropriate behaviour warranted a response. However, on occasions there was a need for additional help, as the fieldnotes show:

> [The child] beside the classroom teacher and drawn away by itinerant teacher to go out to workroom. (S1/FN)

Then 30 minutes later:

> [The child] with classroom teacher for a time. Wandered off to another teacher, moved in close to her and chatted. Itinerant teacher again breaks the contact with a request, "Come on, come and get your play lunch". (S1/FN)

For other children the problem was interrupting the classroom programme. The teachers had a variety of strategies they used to change, ameliorate or eliminate certain disruptive or distracting behaviour from the children's repertoire. One difficulty recorded as a problem to many children, was an inability in taking turns and this was given particular attention in attempting to teach children new behaviours, as a teacher explains:

> He has to learn to take turns and if he uses correct routines I'll try to praise him more so than perhaps for other children. Just to reinforce it each time. (S1/T5)

It often meant the presence of a teacher or teacher aide to instil these new routines, and to maintain this supervision of social skills was not an easy staffing situation for some schools to meet. Without assistance the overseeing of activities could not be maintained, as a teacher commented, when "the other kids go off and play something else and an interaction [was] ruined".

The interruptions to classroom routines posed by one group of children was particularly noticeable. Maintaining a classroom routine with children with emotional and behavioural problems was described as "really, really hard work on a day to day basis", by a teacher (Appendix 3):

> Trying to teach them, help them to learn acceptable behaviours in the classroom, dealing with the one hundred and one things that have nothing to do with the actual curriculum itself. It is those social things. That is the hardest thing I think, coping with those demands day after day after day after day. Meeting their learning needs is not such a big problem. (S2/T4)

Observations showed that attention seeking behaviour by these children proved a demanding problem for teachers in the classroom, and one that took considerable time and resources to combat. This teacher illustrates this:

> He has caused a *lot* of problems. He has been very disruptive in several classes with his behaviour. He was sent to me and really is very able to keep to his own routine. He now has his tightly monitored record sheet and if he doesn't conform to the routines then he is on his behavioural consequence programme. (S2/T2)

There were two individual situations where trying to maintain routine in the classroom was only managed with extreme difficulty, support and personal adjustment on the part of the peers and the teachers. One teacher described the situation as it affected the class:

> They saw someone else getting special treatment, special hours, special needs met within the room and special requests made of kids they probably don't think as a fair deal made on them. We [were] asking them to tolerate someone else's behaviour where they know that if they did it would be totally unacceptable. (S3/T3)

The systems put in place to cope with these children in the classroom, eventually began to work and routines were established. However, in spite of the difficulties the teachers who had been responsible for behaviour management programmes for children with major behavioural problems, all expressed disappointment that they did not see the completion of their work before the children moved to another school. This was taken as affirmation that adequately supported, teachers were prepared to take up

the challenge and according to these comments, could achieve personal satisfaction even in most difficult situations:

> He was just starting to be involved with the classroom programme. I was able to make a good assessment of his progress and my expectations of him were starting to grow. (S3/T3)
>
> It had a marked effect on his behaviour. By the time he left he could sit and concentrate and actually do some work. I was very sorry to see him go. (S2/T3)
>
> I just put so much time into those kids and it is really sad that they move on. We were so pleased with the stage we got him to. I wonder how he is doing? (S3/T5)

Many teachers claimed, as these comments indicate, that the main factor in the success of managing these children in the classroom was the support of the peers:

> The children were aware of the situation and the placement and they were very supportive. They were concerned about his coming and there was an 'open door policy' in the class meeting situation. I didn't change anything, maybe re-explain the rules if anything cropped up. (S3/T2)
>
> They realise he has behaviour problems. They are accepting of his learning difficulties and they help him out wherever they can. At the same time I see them getting frustrated without showing it. He can't work successfully in a group. He can't play a game without getting annoyed. (S3/T5)

Gaining the "total classroom co-operation" was the first step and "the peers' tolerance and understanding of the child's needs were paramount", according to one teacher. She continued by saying that if the situation began to get out of control, "we had to remove the class, rather than removing [the child], for their safety and for their educative process because their education was being interrupted". In these situations the children in the classes disliked having their routines constantly disrupted. While the peers demonstrated empathy towards a child who had poor social skills and appropriate support led to a positive effect on them collectively, a child who was unable to relate and interrupted their work, often had a negative effect on the children.

The procedures in place to instil or encourage class routine were aimed at avoiding such disruptions and therefore the teachers needed a classroom programme that took into account different abilities and social skills. Many children with special educational needs required limited changes which were not obvious and relied on keeping seating constant, storage of possessions in the same place and a consistency of expectations that applied to all the children. There was, however, another group of children who required different approaches to routine for safety and their own protection in classes

of over 35 children. The result was, for example, that classroom routine saw the positioning of wheelchairs in one school based on evacuation and safety reasons so they "didn't block the passageway'. Although the reasoning sounded constricting in theory, in practice it was apparent why the schools produced their various management procedures. The children with physical disabilities were requested to stand aside "out of the way", because they couldn't move as quickly and "so they wouldn't stop the other children from moving away as quickly as possible". Some children were held back for their own protection because teachers didn't want children getting hurt by being pushed over. To have a "peer stay with her for protection as well as company", was another scheme staff set in place. These approaches must also be kept in perspective in association with the architecture of the school (sections 3.3.3 and 7.4.1)

The difference in chronological age and social maturity of the children posed a difficulty that required special planning for some children. If the gap wasn't large, the classroom strategies and management did not require very much change. In this situation teachers mentioned the need of giving easily understood instructions and if situations were considered to be too difficult, then children were frequently set up with 'buddies' and alternative work. This involved time and meant that teachers had to plan their programmes to include provision for alternative work to be done by their child with special educational needs. For some teachers this was the challenge of teaching, as they felt that an awareness of individual differences in children and a consideration of needs gave "a mental shift in planning to accommodate all the children in the classroom'". Using a developmental approach like this, associated with teacher aide support to increase a child's understanding of routines, meant that teachers could cater for both the school and personal routines of individual children in the classroom. There was more ease with the teachers who catered for children in the 'new entrants' class in schools, because they had a situation where all the pupils were getting used to classroom routines and techniques. "You are starting from scratch with all of them", was the explanation a teacher gave. The class sizes were also regularly scrutinised at this level.

Teachers had their individual approaches to class management, and with more mature pupils, the Skills for Adolescence programme provided reinforcement. This involved promoting self esteem and the acceptance of differences in personality and skills. It also allowed children who were on an IEP to be maintained in a classroom with their peers and concentrate on social skills. While the children were accepted as being on a "different programme" by the peers, as a teacher explained, there were times when

they were liable to "get a bit lost" in the classroom routine. One pupil just needed "some tender loving care", according to one teacher, to overcome this. This indicated the fine balance that some classrooms maintained, as well as the personal involvement of the teacher in meeting all children's needs.

Meeting the learning needs of a child who *does not* have a behaviour problem associated with an educational or developmental need was considered rewarding by some teachers. It involved "seeing the progress", "liking the child" as a person and "seeing that they are working well" and not "struggling with (the children) on a day to day basis", as this teacher explained:

> All those positive 'spin offs' make up for the extra workload but those children who interfere with other children's learning, who interfere with them personally, who cut across your programme, those are the children I find hard to cope with in the normal day to day school activity. (S2/T4)

The understanding of class routine brought security for some children and a place the child could be "comfortable in". In these situations the teacher maintained the system that the children "worked in the best" and then attempted to keep to the same routines, as much as possible. Many children in this situation responded positively to the expectations placed upon them and this was noticeable when children had a different teacher for a day and they tried to "buck the routines". The presence of a reliever teacher who was unfamiliar with children with special educational needs in general, and with the specific children in the classroom in particular, created a set of uncertainties for the entire class. Asking the class for guidance in the presence of the particular child, proved an embarrassing experience recorded in the fieldnotes.

With some children the expectations of the teacher became more formalised into 'contracts' which allowed the students to know the activities they could do and provided them with guidance in a step by step fashion. The classroom routines put in place by teachers contained some very general rules, many of which were printed for all to see on the classroom wall. It also involved some very individual approaches and considerations which involved a personal commitment on the part of the teacher. These approaches were influenced very much by the form the special educational need presented and the age of the children. What the collective examination of teachers' routines did demonstrate was the value of time, the importance of the discretionary hours and teacher aide support and that there were classroom, as well as school cultures. The next section will address the issue of how the teachers developed strategies to meet the practical needs of a widely disparate group of children. Two

areas of classroom organisation will be examined, task comprehension and task completion.

10.9.2 Task comprehension. Once a task was commenced the classroom teacher, after the initial discussion, assumed the children understood the set topic and could follow the instructions. The children who followed this assumption understood classroom routine, often were self motivated, and knew where to gather additional information and the materials they need to work on an allotted task. For a variety of reasons, with some pupils including children with special educational needs, these assumptions could not be accepted. How did the teacher deal with this situation?

Frequent teacher promptings were used for the children who had difficulty in following instructions more than one step at a time, or were not self motivated. If the children wandered off to pursue their own interests and considered the classroom routine as not being part of their repertoire, the teacher was provided with a challenge to maintain on task behaviour. There were other children, besides those with special educational needs, who did not have the ability to gather the necessary information to comprehend the problem and this posed a difficulty beyond classroom routine to the teacher. These difficulties were observed in the schools in this study and the next section will demonstrate how teachers met these dilemmas.

As with classroom routine, simplicity was the answer to assisting pupils comprehend the tasks teachers expected of them. The instructions needed to be clear and concise, with not too many stages at once. Along with simple instructions went the need to have as little reading as possible, and the chance to go over the instructions as many times as was necessary to gain comprehension. This applied to all children in the class who, according to a teacher, considered "if they don't understand it, they won't do it". Some teachers found it hard to find suitable resource materials for some of these children, because if there was not enough challenge it would not maintain interest, and if it was too difficult it would not encourage commencement. While some students could bring listening and reading skills to the classroom, as well as an open attitude to new tasks and skills backed by a range of experiences from their everyday life, this did not always happen with children with special educational needs. There was a wide variation in the degree to which these factors were part of many children's lives and gaining comprehension of programmes being delivered in a classroom to over 35 children, was a problem. Many children were not independent enough to listen to instructions and to commence a task without 1:1 attention and making them come face

to face with it. The approach, as this teacher explained, was to follow instructions with questions directed at specific children with known difficulties in comprehension:

> Does everyone know what they are doing? I have done that more than ever lately so it is really frustrating. (S4/T4)

As well as questioning the children, asking them to repeat the instructions back to the teacher acted as a reinforcer especially when coupled with "what do you do next?". According to one teacher, the more junior the school classes the more specific the teacher had to be with instructions:

> Keep it simple. Do not have too many steps along the way [The child] could cope with one step instructions. (S5/T3)

The importance of children being able to understand clear, simple instructions and to follow them through by the completion of the junior school stage, was emphasised by many teachers. To this end the amount of repetition of directives was noticeable in the classrooms. Specific orders were partly related to life experiences, where children could relate former experiences to the work in hand. However, the problem was that some children didn't "remember having the experiences". The difference in understanding a concept was considered by teachers to be the ability to use abstract thought and that was available to some children in the class, but not to others:

> The brighter ones can think in abstract whereas the others have to be able to see it and point to it, to be able to actually follow it. (S1/T3)

When teachers did unit studies which required abstract thinking they frequently used a 'buddy' to assist keep the child with difficulties to add explanations and provide support. A teacher from Miro school explained:

> The buddy will soon say "No, you don't do it like that. Do it like this" and set them on track again, and if they are still struggling they will come and get help. (S2/T 8)

There was a group of children who were regarded as "poor listeners" with "poor listening skills". These children were placed at the front of the class and the teacher would ask them the questions which she assumed the children should ask, but wouldn't. Concentration was an attribute, especially if it was combined with listening skills and for a student to lack concentration was a distinct disadvantage. The solution, according to this teacher, was to observe these children carefully and to pick up on their understanding:

> Very often you have to speak to them individually to ensure that they have understood. (S2/T4)

Comprehension was regarded as an attitude to learning by one teacher, who felt that the home background and what was happening in the child's personal life, had a great deal to bear on their understanding of tasks. Hence, comprehension involved concentration, listening, communication of personal ideas as well as socialisation skills, and this complex approach indicated the difficulties some children with special educational needs had in starting a task. All these combine to give a student who is developing independence and accepting responsibility for their own activities. Knowing the ability of the child and providing relevant work was another essential factor to be considered. Basically, having an environment which made a student feel comfortable to ask questions in, together with a flexible teacher was a good starting point.

In summation, the classroom teacher used frequent promptings, perhaps a buddy' system, the repetition of clear instructions, placement close to supervision, an appreciation of the child's background and a knowledge of their ability to direct the comprehension of tasks to the student. What did the teacher do with those students for whom none of these approaches worked?

Some teachers found that to hand out a copy of the instructions aided comprehension with certain children. The reason for the success of this approach, was that distractions were cut down to a minimum. One teacher took this one step further by a providing an exercise book for her children with special educational needs, and every instruction and task was entered in the book. This cut down the concern over routines, books, desks, and other classroom distractions for some of the children. Demonstration was another approach used by many teachers to get their pupils to comprehend tasks fully.

For the children with total ancillary support, the IEP contained the approaches to be made on task comprehension (Appendix 2). The classroom teachers knew what was in the IEPs so they could support the content and maintain an interest in what the children were doing, by having a look as they circulated in the room. Any communication with the child was left to the support person working in the classroom. Teachers who had this support admitted that these children were not a problem, because they always had someone with them. However, for those teachers and children not in this situation, there was constant repetition and step by step encouragement until understanding was reached.

For the children with emotional or behavioural difficulties it appeared it was usually a case of "not wanting to do", rather than "not understanding", and the teachers of these children had a set pattern of responses which were often set down in their IEPs. The children had a set number of commands, and if they did not respond then they had "time out" and completed the task in their own time. A teacher commented on the effect of this approach:

> He hated "time out" so it worked quite well. (S1/T3)

For some of these children "life drifts on", according to a teacher, and there is no desire to comprehend or complete work:

> [The child] doesn't have a good attitude, he doesn't choose to listen to instructions, he is not enthusiastic and there is no real drive to want to do well. (S3/T7)]

There were, however, individual approaches suggested for children with behavioural problems depending on their experience and as this teacher commented, these were added on to the classroom routine:

> He needed to be focussed in on the task. He could not take a blanket instruction where the whole class were told to do something. He needed to be zero-ed in on the task. (S3/T3)

Task comprehension depended on the child's attention span, interest, motivation and ability to concentrate, and if these were present the completion of a task was highly probable. For children with special educational needs there was reliance on IEPs and the support of ancillary staff to encourage comprehension, or the use of 'time out' procedures or contracts, or the 1:1 attention of the classroom teacher. For some children task comprehension was just 'let go'. Whichever approach was used it involved extra time and the support of additional people. The next section will look at the approaches required to attain task completion.

10.9.3 Task completion. The completion of work was variable for *all* students. Lack of interest or perseverance were two causes for incomplete work. "It is a nightmare with the so called good average kids", was the way one teacher described this problem. The main factors which determined whether students completed tasks involved self discipline, their concentration on the task and their commitment to their work. The teachers suggested various methods they used to aid task completion. Monitoring the work of the children who were liable not to complete their work was important, and needed to be frequent and ongoing, as this teacher explained:

> You don't just set them going, leave them and then at the end go and check up on them because if you did that a lot of the time, you may find that they have done nothing. (S2/T4)

Various descriptions were given of the children's positive approaches to their work and included "integrity", "enthusiasm", "stickability", "task application", "self motivation" and having "a range of skills." Negative responses to work which led to it being frequently incomplete, included a lack of initiative or motivation, distractions caused by noise or people moving in the classroom and an inability to seek help.

With respect to children with special educational needs, there was a relationship between the type of impairment the child experienced and the ability to complete a task. The result was that teachers adapted their teaching role to take into account cognitive and physical disabilities. During fieldwork it was observed that these children received extra prompting, they were offered physical assistance, and individual tuition was frequently given to gain information or to use the materials required to carry out the task. There was a greater chance of successful completion of a project if teachers did not always set the work to be the same as their peers, if they modified tasks and kept their expectations within the children's abilities. In some cases constant supervision was needed to counteract behavioural disorders or learning disorders. For students who were easily distracted there was a problem with remaining on task and frequently their work session ended in aimless wandering or disturbing other children by talking or interfering with their work (Appendices 1 and 3). How did teachers within the realm of regular classrooms, aim to achieve task completion?

The use of contractual arrangements assisted some children to stay on task and complete their assignments. The use of a visible cue to measure time associated with task completion and a reward was part of one child's individual programme, but these approaches required additional monitoring on the part of the teacher. In another instance, lack of initiative meant that some work was never completed, according to this teacher:

> I left [the child] the other day and after 45 minutes he had one word because he didn't know what the next word started with. He had not thought to come and ask me. (S1/T8)

The vulnerable position of this child with an inability to direct himself within a classroom of over 35 children, was expressed by his teacher who stated: "I can't spend all my life making sure that he has completed his work, he has to do them for himself for his own sake and his own safety". This child was considered to be

heading nowhere and a danger to himself. During fieldwork, many children were observed being constantly prompted by the teacher. Work was completed with teachers "sitting on their back" or extracting a story word by word which usually meant that children sat at their work for many times longer than they needed to because of lack of concentration. A teacher explained how "often the children who have difficulty completing tasks are children who have difficulty in retaining ideas, sequences and instructions" and the result was that these children needed to have their attention constantly brought back to their work. The importance of individual contact in this situation is described by this teacher:

> If he is not 1:1, you turn your back and he is gone. With 1:1 he will stay. (S2/T8)

These were the general approaches suggested by teachers and the personal involvement that inclusion appeared to require was amply illustrated. This included understanding the small advances many of the children made and providing plenty of encouragement and praise:

> You have to realise they make small steps or a step towards a step and you give attention towards taking that step for quite a long time. (S2/T6)

Gauging the difficulty of work for some of these children with special needs was important, because if it looked too hard they avoided it. Similarly if it was too easy there was no challenge and it was done rapidly and the children were then likely to distract other children. There was one system that brought forth results and that was that children with special educational needs liked rewards. The reward was frequently the praise of the peers as these comments illustrate:

> The kids were so proud of her, "she is doing her own research now" they would say. (S4/T1)

> A grin split his whole face as I said "You know that word and you have been learning it for weeks and weeks and weeks and look there it is, you've got it." He was so thrilled and all the kids around him wanted to know what all the fuss was about. Of course he got that buzz from the kids straight off. Peer support is very important. (S4/T3)

For some teachers there was considerable "frustration" and "exhaustion" as they realised that no amount of encouragement would get their child to the point of wanting to do things for their own inner satisfaction. Encouragement in preference to praise was used often to prevent the child feeling "everybody is chuffed about me" rather than the work. This shifted the praise from being personal to being work directed.

For some of the more mature students the approach to work completion was punitive. In some instances teachers provided good role models in the form of peers. Children were able to work together and keep themselves on task, according to one teacher who worked using group methods of support. She suggested that "isolation" to encourage concentration made the children special, and highlighted anything that was wrong. Also the group situation allowed for the child to ask peers questions and cut down the interruptions to the teacher. The individual approach to these children in one particular classroom led to many different approaches to encourage concentration and completion of tasks. A few children responded to a "threat" and the use of a daily report to be taken home aided one of these children. In this situation, for every topic area the teacher would record the amount and type of work done. A certain number of "did not complete the task" listings received attention from authority figures and removed the pressure from the teacher. In another classroom the teacher expected all the children to complete their workload to the best of their ability and withdrawal from things the children liked to do was the incentive to get the work done.

These teachers illustrate that the constant repetition of expectations and demands was not tolerated as much with adolescent students, as with younger children:

> It is a time waster. "Where's your work, where's your work. where's your work?" You might say it three times but it will be there at the end of the day. (S3/T5)

> You can't just push them, push them, push them. If they haven't got the interest there or the ability really you are knocking your head against a brick wall. (S3/T10)

> There are many things he should have had no doubt about. I didn't have the time or the space for him. He was so irresponsible. He would have left mess everywhere and said, "I don't do it any more miss. I have had enough of that now. That is your problem now, you clean it up". (S3/T7)

There were several children who posed problems like this for teachers and they seldom completed work. One student was observed to chew his work up on occasions while another student would destroy it when it was near completion:

> He would either tear it, cut it, rip it, scribble over it. I had to lock the scissors away in a locked cupboard in the classroom and the children had to ask to use them. (S3/T3)

For this older age group, the factors which were important in work completion were information processing, motivation and for students to be able to write and understand what they were working on. Lack of motivation was often the crucial ingredient in work success, as students did not see any gain in doing the work. Teachers'

expectations that work would be done, were recognised as important, but a few admitted they sometimes failed in keeping track of these children to give them repeated prompting:

> At this stage of the year when I have done my bit, do I keep banging my head or do I just let it wash over, which is not a very professional attitude. But you get to that stage. (S3.T1)

> The quality is often not there, so I'll tell her to go away and improve it. She'll put it on the computer and we have forgotten about it. That is through being busy and that is really easy to do. (S3/T5)

Again, with the more mature student there was sometimes a reluctance to come forward and say that instructions or work were not understood. The result was that students sat and waited for the teacher to go to them. Whereas this could be seen occasionally as being thoughtful as they were not interrupting, a teacher explained that "she will sit there and not understand what she is doing and that is frustrating".

The use of discretionary hours on classroom routine made an enormous impact on many children. It also influenced the classroom teacher, as the 1:1 responsibility towards that child was no more demanding than for any other child:

> I just give him the same as any other child because I know he is getting the teaching with [the teacher aide]. (S4/ T3)

For some teachers, time was not set aside for the children because they thought the half an hour of 1:1 time the children were getting was their individual teaching time for the day. The rest of the day the teachers picked up on the children where they were able and most teachers were observed to check out the work that had been done out of the classroom with the teacher aide. An important but often forgotten activity for students who experienced the intensity of 1:1 teaching, was the need for them to have "some space" after these sessions. While acknowledgment of this was important, so also was the slotting of these children back into the class, so they could be on task with a suitable activity which was within their ability and did not require teacher input. This tended to eliminate some of the wandering and the disturbance of other children. It was observed that if the teacher greeted the children and was able to settle them into the classroom routine, the return was uneventful:

> "I'll be with you in a minute. I'm just getting the class organised with their maths and I'll read you a book" (The child) goes over to her desk and the teacher comes over to speak to her. (S4/FN)

If however, the teacher tried to complete the group lesson or continued relating to the class, the child frequently commenced wandering, occasionally interacted with other

children, disturbed them, and this often led to negative reactions. A specialist adviser, who frequently found herself in the situation of returning a child to the classroom, in discussing this event stated: "It is a tricky one. There is never anyone there full time [to take the child in]. I take a child into the class and say to the teacher, you have to find something for [the child] to do now, help him know what he is going to do".

There were interesting side issues related to getting work done in class. One problem was suggested several times and developed when children became dependent on having repeated help and attention. It was a by-product of too much individual assistance. The result was that teachers tried to get the children to motivate themselves. Reference was made to the observation that if the work gave satisfaction, was meaningful to the child and there were appropriate resources on hand, then there would be a successful conclusion to the activity. For some children giving an oral presentation provided for more success than expecting written work, although recording of work was still wanted at regular intervals. Teachers noted that much depended on how a child felt emotionally and physically on some school days, as it was obvious that instruction was retained and able to be recalled better on some days than others.

How did teachers who did not have this support for their children manage the supervision of their children with special educational needs? One approach was setting the rest of the class off on their tasks and then sitting with the child and "solidly working for 10 minutes". The teacher would be observed to go away and work with the other children, and then come back to the original child and check progress. For the majority of teachers the extra time they spent with the children with special needs was spent getting them settled to work and following them up to see what they were doing. According to these teachers this involved checking that they were on task and that there was purpose in their work. The reason for close supervision was firstly, they were so easily distracted and secondly, many of them could not follow simple instructions. In summary, the methods used by teachers to achieve task completion included the use of contracts, punitive approaches, praise and encouragement, understanding the different expectations and maturity level of each child and providing work according to children's abilities. Teachers referred to the extra time they spent meeting these contingencies, and these points had direct implication for the use of teachers aides and the discretionary hours allocated to the children.

While observing in the schools it was noted that the venue for 1:1 tuition provided different approaches to learning, to ancillary staff use and student response. Because of these observations further exploration was carried out on this form of resource use.

10.9.4 Placement for 1:1 tuition. Two different approaches were used by schools to place children with special needs, for their individual tuition. A certain number of children were taken out of the classroom to a quiet area in a resource room for their allocated teaching time, while other children were tutored in the classroom amidst their peers, with the teacher aide sitting at their tables. Reasons were proffered for the use of both approaches and nearly always the decision of where to tutor the child had been discussed, and the staff chose the most appropriate place. Children tutored in the classroom were generally doing the programme planned by the regular teacher and were either given support to take part in the lessons or they were able to settle, concentrate and speak quietly whilst doing their own work. Those who were taken out of the classroom were generally children who were likely to vocalise noisily, become excited, disturb the class in some way, or were very easily distracted by the peers and unable to concentrate in a classroom setting for 1:1 tuition.

Some children were taken out of class to share resources like computers, which were limited in the school and this tended to emphasis the children's different abilities. A teacher appreciated her student's comments about this recognition of his difference when he stated: "I hate it. I have to go over there and read. I am a dummy". This segregation was, however, used to good effect because the child's ability to conform to standards of behaviour were rewarded with the teacher aide eventually coming to class "where he responded to the positive feedback of working in class". For another student, going to the computer in the resource unit provided some anguish which the school responded to, as the teacher explained:

> He hated being different. He hated being taken out for keyboard instruction and being identified in any way. This year we have done the keyboarding in here and the teacher aide has been working with him within the group. (S2/T2)

Eleven students who were over the age of 12 years were asked how they felt about where they received their 1:1 tuition. For those students with learning disabilities, which may or may not be associated with behavioural disorders, but who were socially as mature as their peers, there was a definite dislike of going to the resource room. One reason was that they considered exciting things were happening in the classroom which they might miss out on, and the other reason was they felt different to their peers, as one student explained:

> I don't like going out of the classroom. I'd rather someone come into the class. I don't like missing out on the good things in class. (S3/S1)
>
> I feel ashamed. Freaky. People say "Oh! you are going to reading". I feel stupid. Funny. (S3/S8)

While the decision on venue was carefully discussed and reviewed over time so as to make the best use that was possible out of the discretionary hours, not all students felt negative about their separation from classmates. The chance to have the sole use of the computer was a positive aspect of the resource room. For the few students who had sensory or intellectual disabilities, the resource room was regarded with a feeling akin to affection as their comments suggest:

> I'm so far behind with work and I can relax when I come here. I'm stressed. It is special to me because it is like a classroom and it is like a home. I feel comfortable. (S3/S5)
>
> I enjoy it because I do a lot of work. It is work I really enjoy doing. (S3/S6)
>
> I wish I could come more often because it is good coming here. Me and my teacher play on the computer (sic). (S3/S9)
>
> A good time because I learn and relax. (S3/S11)
>
> It is a nice place to come. It is a cool place. (S3/S2)

Verification of the value for some children of going to the resource room was provided by a teacher, who commented on how [the child] "comes back very positive and she is very keen to show me what she has done, especially if she is in a mood". The reason given was that the teacher aide had the ability to start something, connect it all up, then finish it and leave the student with a feeling of success.

Several students admitted that the time spent in the resource room had been of value to them, in spite of their expressions of dislike at going:

> It is valuable coming to the reading room. It has helped me a lot. (S3/S1)
>
> I like coming here so I can learn. (S3/S4)
>
> I feel proud of myself because when I first started I couldn't read. (S3/S9)

One student summed up the ambivalence which several children had shown towards the resource room:

> It is sort of boring sometimes. It is good. I hate it. Why do I like it. I don't know. (S3/S10)

A different aspect of 1:1 tuition occurred with the students who had several support persons to relate to in their support programme. For these children there was a demand on teachers' concentration and ultimately time. The staff involved did not always react to this positively, and left with the responsibility this proved very challenging for some children to remember where they should be and with whom:

> Because I do leave it up to him, it *is* his responsibility to get himself over there and he might go at the wrong time of the day. He has to sort it out because it is entirely up to him. I don't see that I have to remind him every day of the week "it is time to go". At times he does get confused and so trial and error is an important thing. (S3/T5)

The professional staff responsible for deciding where the children should receive their support, made their decisions with careful consideration as to what they thought was best for everyone involved. They were unanimous in their recognition of the value of these discretionary hours to the children and the classroom management, routine and achievement, but the conversation frequently moved to the politics attached to their allocation. One point was emphasised, and that was that discretionary hours and teacher aide support for children with special educational needs was considered vital to successful inclusion. The teachers who honestly admitted they required no further resources, spoke of inclusion positively and confidently. Teachers who were stressed with time commitments, a lack of ancillary staff support, large classes and children with widely differing educational needs indicated deep emotions in their feelings concerning inclusion. This frequently ameliorated when they started speaking of individual children in their care. This demonstrated their ambivalence to inclusion, but it also showed that other factors were at work, such as the type of special educational or developmental need the children presented with and the manner in which each school had addressed the philosophy.

During fieldwork it was recorded that according to professional staff many of the children with special needs required more time and effort than their peers, to keep them on task and understanding what was expected of them. Aspects of this occurrence have been presented in section 10.9.1-3 where time usage has repeatedly been shown to be crucial in classroom management. Meeting time demands has been listed by King et al. (1988) as the most mentioned stressful aspect of being a teacher. An analysis of the demands on a teacher's time in the classroom where there were children with special educational needs, indicated that the majority of teachers did feel they spent more time with these children than their peers. This time was spent in special programme preparation, getting work under way, checking and re-checking work in progress, keeping the children on task and managing attention demanding

episodes. However, there were factors which caused the use of a teacher's time with respect to children with special educational needs to vary. One of these was the type of educational need the child presented with and another was the amount and use of ancillary staff to support the classroom teacher.

10.9.5. The demands on time in the classroom. Classroom teachers who had children with special educational needs in their classes together with the constant support of a teacher aide, felt their situation was no different to classes with no such children. Having a full time helper meant that the teacher could concentrate on the other children in the class. Although there was an overview of the teacher aide's work to be maintained, the responsibility was basically with the person who was with the child, as these teachers explained:

> There is always another adult with [the children] specifically, so there is really never a time when there is me with 36 children. There is someone there all the time. (S1/T4)

> I thought it would be far more demanding. I was pleasantly surprised that once our routines were established, they took very little extra time because we have the resources. There is a teacher who works with them at certain times of the day and we have a teacher aide who works with them in the classroom. (S1/T5)

> I actually feel OK about time this year because of the amount of support we have for [the child]. I don't think it is probably like that for all teachers, because they do not have the amount of support with their special needs children that we currently have. When I have the support I feel I can cope with these children. (S2/T4)

This relaxed attitude to having children with special needs in the classroom only occurred in this study when they had any disability other than an emotional or behavioural problem. A full time helper in the room with children with an emotional or behavioural disorder did, however, relieve the teacher's stress, and in most situations was considered essential. A teacher explained her position in her classroom:

> With support with [the child] I feel I can cope with them in the classroom, but if I didn't have that support I don't think I would want them in the classroom, because it just cuts across the other children's learning too much. It is just not fair on the other children, so I see the support as being essential. (S2/T4)

The role of the teacher aide has been considered essential to satisfactory inclusion, but it still placed a demand on the teacher's time. To fully utilise the teacher aide, it was necessary to give some training in the particular problem the child experienced. This time was spent setting objectives, training them as to how to teach the objectives, getting the resources they needed, going over the programme, checking and evaluating

progress or the lack of it. The aim was to instruct the teacher aide to gain skills to deal with a child's special needs and often behaviour. A teacher from Miro school explained why this was needed:

> He is the type of child who for a teacher aide who isn't a trained teacher, is very difficult for a person to be expected to deal with and manage the programme put in place. (S2/T7)

Not only did the teachers often have to train the teachers aides in the specific programme details, they also had to be available to liaise with other staff members, specialist advisers, visiting teachers and parents. Liaison time was quite extensive as this classroom teacher explains. This teacher was the 'anchor person' to make sure that all the people who work with the child received the same information, and that changes to the programme were known by all concerned:

> It was not only the classroom time. There was a phenomenal amount of meeting time. The six weekly review of his meetings would take at least an hour so that was an hour of teaching time gone. It was done in teaching time, not lunchtime or playtime so there were 29 children being babysat. (S3/T3)

The effort spent in gaining support services for the children in the regular school was considerable, and this activity was generally done in the teachers' out of class time (section 9.2.2).

The type of impairment the child presented with, the social development and the age of the child, were some of the reasons for the difference in the amount of time teachers spent with children with special needs. When the child concerned was a new entrant, there was an individual approach to every child in the classroom because their learning was needs based. The teacher ascertained the children's requirements and grouped those children with similar learning needs together. However, even though there was a common denominator in being a new entrant, according to one teacher, her inclusive children "needed lots more time than the other children":

> A lot of it is waiting time, waiting for a response. For [the child] to talk and listening for the answer and ignoring everything else that is going on. You do a lot of similar things for other children but you are not "stop still and wait" and it is a long wait. (S5/T5)

Some children with special educational needs demanded teacher time for their attention seeking behaviour. According to these teachers, this behaviour needed recognition and frequent praise to keep the children on task:

> They are often children who seek a lot of attention and need a lot of individual help. (S4/ T1)

> Behaviour in the sense that they are not independent, they are so dependent on me being there saying, "Heh! you are doing the right thing, you are working well". When really it is only because I was sitting there that they *are* working well. There certainly is a difference between the amount of time you give to that one group of children. (S4/T3)

> If they get frustrated or bored, that is when they are likely to start misbehaving. A lot of time I reinforce and encourage him when he is working on his own, but that is when I can move away from the teaching group. (S1/T5)

The teachers expressed their need for awareness of the behavioural and social, as well as the academic level of a child. Time was given to some children "when the need arises", because as a teacher explained, "things go wrong, they start reacting, then you have to get out and start dealing with them". This generally meant re-directing activities and giving a little reinforcement at that moment, over and above what was occurring with other pupils, as this teacher explained:

> There was always the extra you had to do and it worries me at times when you perhaps do not get to do specific things with other children you might have planned to do. (S2/T2)

Having *several* children with special needs in a classroom made demands on a teacher's time because there were "totally different problems" to manage. There were different routines and programmes for children who did not have the "same degree of ability or disability". These teachers from Rata school described their feelings when these children influenced their classroom routine:

> I have difficulty getting to all 36 children as it is because I realise they need extra time. I have 'blow ups' in the classroom. So you have to tread carefully and you have to give them attention when they ask for attention. You have to *fight* for extra time for these children. You have to do the fighting for time for them. (S4/T2)

> Unfortunately there are others like [the child] who you can't push back. Push them back and you are history, and so is the rest of the class. (S4/T4)

In reference to time, a different picture was drawn for the quiet and retiring children in the classroom. Not all children with special educational needs made their presence felt in the classroom, and demanded the teacher's or peers' attention. Sometimes it was the opposite and the teacher had to keep herself aware of the presence of a child. When occasionally classroom activities took over and the child was left to manage alone, the teachers experienced a feeling of guilt. The teachers also expressed feelings of guilt because they could not get to the peers, because of the time spent with the children with special educational needs. A teacher commented on how she "felt even worse",

because the children in the class required so much time, and in spending time with them "you turn around and suddenly realise that this poor child is totally forgotten. Then you feel guilty again". In sections 10.9.2 and 10.9.3 the time spent on individual task comprehension and completion was discussed, with these activities being perhaps the most demanding part of classroom activity because they could not be hurried. If the teacher did not reach the child's understanding the result was frequently unsatisfactory, as this teacher commented (Appendix 1):

> She is very good at looking very, very busy when she is actually not doing anything. It is important [to get her started] and to get back to her and check on what she is doing. It is really quite difficult because she is invisible in the classroom. (S2/T4)

This child was observed during fieldwork and on several occasions she was noted as 'wandering', but never causing any difficulties to teachers or peers:

> She spends a considerable amount of time circulating not actively engaged in any activity. Wanders around the classroom picking up books. (S2/FN)

Teachers related how children became 'lost' unless there was a continual check on their activities, as occurred with this child at Rata school:

> [The child] is very quiet and just slipped through and I now have a check list. I don't see what [the child] has done because he is the mouse and he hides in a corner. (S4/T4)

The field notes written in this child's classroom a year before recorded the teacher speaking of the strategies she needed to use, to meet the needs of this child:

> 'Sometimes I feel the day is just wasted for [the child]. If he is not directed and closely monitored he achieves and does nothing'. (S4/FN)

Another reticent pupil caused similar concern in her teacher at Nikau school:

> I must admit I used to forget that she was there sometimes. I used to have to make myself spend time because she was quiet and didn't pose a problem. I used to write her name in my work plan to remind myself to go and see that she knows what she is doing and she is on task. (S3/T6)

There were other aspects of time allocation such as the extra time that was allocated because, according to his teacher, a child "actually fought to prove that he did not have a disability":

> He would sooner pretend that he knew, than try and get attention or seek help. (S2/T2)

These examples show the many individual needs of these children and section 10.9.6 will detail the effects on teachers, of knowing they were not meeting these requirements.

Balancing the time available to *all* the children in the classroom was difficult for many of the teachers who had so many varied calls upon their services. Several teachers stated how they were aware that for the children with learning disabilities there was a need to watch *how* they spent their time:

> With 32 children I could easily spend a lot of time with her at the sacrifice of other children's time. I was very aware of the time thing and didn't overcompensate her. It was a consideration I made mentally. (S2/T1)

> I keep being reminded by my colleagues that my job as a teacher is dividing my time equitably among 34 children and am I really being fair to the other 33, in the time I give to an individual. I have other children with great needs too. (S2/T7)

> She is a great 'conner' of people into 1:1 situations. I feel sad. I'd love to give her more time but I have to balance it much better than my instincts do. The extra time I spend with her I choose it and it is available. (S4/T1)

The teacher who made this last comment also remarked how she didn't spend too much extra time on the child because there were 36 other children to consider. The child's behaviour didn't *demand* it, even though she could get attention in other ways and that was the way it was for many teachers. The result was that allocating time to many of these pupils was difficult because "it was not easily schedulable", especially when dealing with children with emotional and behavioural problems. An uneventful school day was sometimes rapidly changed, as these teachers related, when help was required to deal with behavioural outbursts which frequently occurred in the playground:

> I will just have to go out because he has physically abused someone in the playground. (S2/T7)

> He used to get into trouble out of the classroom because other children were not aware of his problem and he would flare up. I would be called out of the classroom because he was upset and wouldn't talk to anyone else. (S3/T6)

In Nikau school the consequence of such an outburst involved speaking to the deputy principal, bringing the parents to school and counselling the class on how to manage these difficulties. In the schools using a behavioural programme for a child, there might be a refusal to do a task and this action had a consequence. The teacher was required to follow through the requirements of that programme which included phone calls home and therefore time out of the classroom. For some children with emotional

and behavioural difficulties, at crisis times the support system could include meeting with up to nine people. The teachers involved commented on how time consuming some of these events were:

> If I added up the number of 10 to 20 minute slots I have spent to deal with something. (S2/T7)

> The child with the behavioural needs is far more time consuming and those needs take up more of my time and energy, than with a child with special learning needs. (S2/T4)

Many teachers with these children in their classrooms responded with resignation to the waste of time the entire class experienced. Although they spoke of their own frustrations, at both losing time and having to provide individual time to a child, the effect on the entire classroom was frequently referred to. One teacher expressed her feelings in this way:

> If, thanks be to God [the child] wasn't there that often, we really got on with things. When he was there the interruptions were great and he did often wreck group discussions. He often got extra time with me and extra time out of the class and I did see the children help him. I really tried to keep my class going. (S3/T7)

In this case, the truancy of a child gave the class breathing space and the teacher's response, "I don't know what would have happened had he been there more" indicated that "time wasting interruptions" were affecting the classroom. A similar situation occurred during fieldwork in Rata school, when a child's absence provided some respite for the class and the teacher commented:

> [The child] is away today with 'flu. The fact of his absence is obvious. "Yes", says the teacher, "It is amazing what one child can do. It is noticeable" (S4/FN)

Generally teachers of these children "reacted to meet the needs of the behaviour the child was displaying at the time", if it was acceptable there was no problem, but if it wasn't then the teacher had to 'step in' and deal with the situation. Because of the nature of many of these incidents the teachers' responses could become reactive in spite of the programmes and preparation made for some children. This took teaching time from the class and frequently caused considerable emotional distress on the part of the teacher. The next section will consider some of these reactions in an attempt to pinpoint the major issues behind them.

10.9.6 Classroom management and feelings. The personal nature of change was demonstrated in the context of this discussion on the emotional cost of inclusion. The professional staff agreed that overall inclusion did involve them in extra

demands on their time and the involvement of the professional staff in decision-making at all levels of the school community, has been shown to be very important. There was a clear relationship between the type of special need that the teachers were required to manage, the amount of assistance they had and the association which exists between inclusion and school culture, especially with respect to its leadership. The teachers have expressed their feelings quite strongly on how their time at school was used on behalf of the children with special educational and developmental needs. The personal feelings which these demands have caused will be recorded in the next section.

An association existed between the response to time usage and the collegial and practical support a teacher experienced, through the use of a teacher aide, itinerant or special teacher. There was a decided lack of concern, over any time they gave to children in the schools where there was adequate ancillary staff support. The strongest feelings were exhibited as teachers described the use of time in relation to children with emotional or behavioural problems. No teacher expressed concern over the extra time that was given to children, who in their view were trying their hardest to achieve.

The pattern of a school's inclusive practices was well illustrated when customary actions were altered. This was apparent when there was an absence of routine support, for example when a relieving teacher was present and attitudes changed in the classroom. At this time the classroom teachers felt some apprehension, because usually "[the reliever teachers] do not know what to do" and the responsibility fell back on them. This was illustrated by a teacher who described how she did not become involved with the children with special educational needs, when adequate support was available:

> The only time I am giving extra help to those children is when there is no resource teacher, teacher aide or parent or if they can't get help from their peers. I'll work with them then. All the rest of the time I treat them as just one of the kids. (S1/T5)

Although this happening was apparent in many classrooms there were times when, if teachers felt that children were adequately supported from resource units, special or itinerant teachers, they would use ancillary staff to give assistance in the classroom with the peers. This enabled the classroom teacher to spend some time with the children with special educational needs and meant that for a short time of the day they had responsibility for them. This was an extremely accurate measuring stick of where the ideology of inclusion had reached in the schools. For instance, a classroom teacher stated that she had to make a point of spending time with [the children] "because they

demanded it of me to do something with them". According to this teacher even though these children were totally supported through their school day, they still regarded their position in the class entitled them to the classroom teacher's individual time, as well. A year later these children were still asking for attention, but with a different response from another classroom teacher:

> They want to share with me as the classroom teacher what they have been doing so they don't feel isolated. It makes you feel good. It makes you feel part of it because otherwise [you are left out]. (S2/T8)

The ironical result of having totally adequate classroom support by ancillary staff, was that teachers were able to find there was no role for them with regard to their children with special educational needs in the classroom. Or alternatively, they were not able to become involved with the children because there was not the personal space. Itinerant or special teachers who came into the classroom, tried subtly to avoid this happening.

Teachers who were not in this fortunate situation expressed different feelings regarding their unsupported classroom routine. For many of the children who did not require teacher aide assistance for general classroom activities but required it for specific topics in their learning experience, there were other very individual problems which caused the teachers to express concern. One of the main worries was when the teacher had to leave the classroom unattended to deal with a problem with the child with special educational needs. Toileting was one problem which might occur in the initial period at school, and to illustrate this, one teacher discussed having children who were too scared to toilet themselves:

> I had to go out of the room with him. You are running a risk when you actually leave little children who you are responsible for. It is their safety and you are leaving them and trusting them and they must understand. You are putting the burden of responsibility on little children. (S5/T3)

A feeling of resentment was expressed by a teacher who gave her particular child with a learning need, extra time before school or at lunchtime. She did not consider it fair that the other children were missing out if she tried to do this in class time, as she explained:

> I know that the time I spend with him is far more valuable than trying to spend time with him and all the other children. You really have to weigh up what is achieving more. (S2/T8)

There was an expectation that the limited time the teachers felt they had, to spend with their children with special educational needs, should be used carefully. During fieldwork in the school, teachers became most upset if school organisation disrupted

the discretionary time set aside for their students. There were some days when children did not respond to the tuition provided, with the reason being personal to the child, and this caused concern. One teacher, in response to her feelings towards a child stated:

> I often feel pulled, that I need to be with someone else and some days I really feel I am wasting my time because he just doesn't respond and you are interrupted from working with another child who does need your time. (S2/T5)

The personal aspect of inclusion was highlighted when this concentration difficulty was related to "what happened at home last night", and a full report from home often assisted the teacher in making sense of the following day:

> Because of her particular abilities some days she is really switched on and other days she seems to find everything a major hurdle. Sometimes I feel I have given her a quarter of an hour of individual attention which has been lost almost immediately. It is spasmodic and I can't find any rhyme nor reason why. (S4/T1)

The presence of a child with a considerable impairment in the classroom did cause real strain for a few teachers, again emphasising the personal nature of inclusion. Most schools changed the teachers and pupils into different classrooms year by year, and this gave a change to both teacher and pupil. One teacher had the same child for two years, and she felt she was less tolerant the second year, and was becoming tired of managing the same problems repeatedly. The total responsibility of having a child with a disability was "the scary part of the system", she said. As she ran her classroom in a certain way, she worried that it may not be conducive to this child's particular educational and social development. There were several times that teachers in Nikau school, where this occurred, referred to the drive for academic excellence and achievement which was part of the school culture. The teachers found some difficulty in reconciling their inclusive practices to the individualistic style of a classroom which fostered competitiveness and high achievement. This was illustrated by the personal effort teachers put into maintaining the working atmosphere in their classrooms where children were demanding of the teacher's time and the attention was "quite stressful". One of the reasons teachers in this situation proffered for their feelings concerning some of these children, was the amount of time that was being put into the children with what they considered, very little result. The teachers expressed resentment that this time was apparently being wasted, when they could be using it elsewhere for what they considered was more return:

> I feel quite angry, particularly about the amount of time for behavioural problem children. I feel more like the benefits balance the sacrifices. With

> [the child] I don't begrudge that time because she is deserving of it. I can see the progress that she is making. (S2/T 7)
>
> With [the child] it seems like time *well* spent and you feel good about it. But for [another child] it is like wasting your time, *all* the time. (S2/T4)
>
> I was a bit annoyed that I had to spend so much time with [the child] whereas I felt I would have got a little bit more result from [another child]. (S3/T6)
>
> If it cuts down on me helping all the rest then I probably deep down resent it. If the kids are achieving and they are grateful for what you are doing then that's fine. If they are not learning and they are the type of kid who then turns and 'mucks' around, then I really resent it (sic). (S3/T9)

Anger was a feeling some teachers referred to in relation to having to do extra work they did not feel appreciated for, or if they felt their time could be more beneficially used. For example, a child who did not meet the teacher part way and attempt to do the work, made a teacher "angry because [she] had spent hours preparing the work". This teacher wanted to see some benefit for all the extra work and some appreciation from the pupil, for what she was doing. Otherwise she said, "to heck with it". Feelings of "a little anger" were also expressed by a teacher who was required to take on a child with a behavioural modification programme where social skills were to be modified before academic ability could be worked on. The time spent watching and checking the 'on task' behaviour was the main annoyance because she said, she would rather "work with the children who were prepared to work and wanted to learn".

The need for a teacher to be flexible, was the way one teacher described managing several children with different problems in her classroom, meeting their needs and remaining calm. Her explanation illustrates the personal decision-making that was required:

> It is making time and wiping something else you have planned if that child comes and asks to do some work. I wipe whatever comes along. I know people will probably say it is wrong but I say "Gosh! One positive moment out of [the child] and I'll take it". (S4/T4)

Having the classroom atmosphere determined by a few children was upsetting to a teacher who, with three children in her classroom, found that carefully planned work could "be blown in the first part of the morning, because of the routine just going out the window with one of them". As these teachers comment it was not an individual problem:

> If one of them comes in a bad mood or comes in a high mood he can change how 6 other children are feeling within the first half hour of the day. (S4/T2)

> Sometimes it was quite frustrating. To keep your sanity throughout the year you had to try and not let it get to you. But it was time wasting really. (S3/T7)

Frequent interruptions and an inability to keep to routine worried some teachers, but was seen as part of the teacher's job and unavoidable by others.

Another area that caused considerable feelings to be expressed, was the amount of time spent on these children with no progress being made, especially when it was associated with a lack of home support. Again these teachers expressed a situation many found themselves in, as lack of recognition and response from parents aroused personal feelings:

> There is no progress and no follow up at home, no feedback after 4 terms, nothing has happened after hours and hours of psychologists, guidance teachers, behaviour modification experts and still nothing is improving. (S2/T7)

> I felt angry, frustrated, sad in some ways because you could not get the parental support that you really wanted. These particular parents would hide and cover up things. (S3/T3)

> I have never had a thank you. It doesn't really seem fair. I get no support from her mother but I have to weigh that up because that is my job. I have to accept that. (S3/T4)

Teachers did feel they were putting extra time into their work with children with special educational needs. Their greatest concern was the effect the allocation of their time had on the other children in the class, and they questioned whether they were being fair in this. One of the teachers' expectations was to feel appreciated and have support for their task from parents, and also from their principal (sections 9.1.4 and 9.1.2). The pastoral care aspect of principals' leadership skills was regarded as important and was reinforced when teachers discussed their feelings regarding their use of time in relation to children with special educational needs. Principals' replies to the query of the demands that children with special educational needs make on their teachers' time, were as expected, carefully worded and varied. However, all agreed that special needs teaching did take up additional time. "It is a time commitment" and "time is something teachers do not have a lot of", stated the principal of Miro school.

In Chapter 9 reference was made to the gap which may exist between principals and teachers with respect to their appreciation of the role of teacher (Ward et al., 1987). When principals were asked to discuss the time factor and its association with classroom management, they emphasised the professionalism of the teachers They

discussed teachers' commitment to their jobs and the fact that children with special educational needs were their pupils and deserved the same recognition as any other pupil. The principals discussed various aspects of the teachers' work including liaising with parents, special teachers, teachers aides, IEP involvement, as well "as taking the time to be very aware of the children's needs" as the main factors to be considered. The preparation of specific work and resources was another demand on teachers' time, referred to by the principal of Miro school. The expectation was that the teachers would meet all these demands because their job description demanded it. The principal of Miro school felt an allowance in extra staff or out of class time should be made by the Ministry of Education and not the school, to counter these demands:

> The time commitment is considerable and allowance is not made for it in the staff allocation. It should be. (S2/P1)

Initially, the amount of time a teacher was required to give was considered to be very extensive, but as the child and the programme settled into the school system it became less, according to the principal of Karo school. The principal of Rata school emphasised the different responses to children made according to their disability. According to him, this was not difficult to achieve because you change "your programme" and "structure things differently" and in his estimation, that was not a problem in the school organisation. In contrast, "the child who is constantly looking for attention, who constantly needs monitoring and whose behaviour needs correcting" was considered by the principals to be the major issue for the future.

The use of discretionary hours with a support person had a profound effect on classroom management and the attitudes of teachers. The main effect was that it enabled a fairly complex arrangement of alternative ways of organising classroom routine. It also provided alternative paths for the achievement of task comprehension and completion. In the classroom where teachers had considerable teacher aide support there was an acceptance of the children with special needs as 'another' pupil with an individual need. The teacher was able to give specific children the same attention as any other child in the class, because there was tuition from a teacher aide. Therefore, support was considered pivotal to the professional staff's view of inclusion.

Meeting time demands was identified during fieldwork as a crucial factor in meeting the needs of inclusive programmes. Teachers had expressed their guilt or concern over their responsibility to all the children in the classroom. A very limited number of parents, according to professional staff, had expressed concern over the influence inclusion would have on their child's academic and social progress. In the UK, the

Education Act, 1981 had made a condition of 'mainstreaming' the computability which must exist between a child's educational needs and the instruction required by other children in the class (section 3.4.6). In the US the schools' responsibility for other students in the classrooms of integrated children is starting to be recognised in the law courts (Yell, 1995). As there had been instances during fieldwork where classrooms were clearly being disturbed and teachers were working under tense situations, it was necessary to understand the perceptions professional staff held of the inclusive change in their classrooms. Was there any effect on the peers' academic performance?.

10.9.7 The effect of inclusion on the progress of peers. The majority of principals and teachers denied there was any effect on the academic or social performance of the peers, as a result of the presence of children with discretionary hours in the classroom. While the professional staff had alluded to this topic frequently, where there had been an effect, what had caused the children's academic performance to be altered? The discussion will be divided into considering the reactions of staff who thought there was some effect, and those who did not think inclusion had socially and academically affected their pupils. To start with, it was important to note how the schools had pre-empted criticism of inclusion in the early stages when there had been incidents of peer and parental reaction.

Because the principals of Karo and Rata schools with their 'open door' policy, were aware of criticism in the community regarding inclusion, parents had been invited to see how programmes worked in the classroom, so their fears could be allayed. These schools had teacher aide support for their children and according to the principals, the parents were satisfied their children were not being denied teacher contact. However, when inclusion first started in Karo school, parents exhibited real concern that the teacher's time would be taken away from the other children. The principal of this school stated: "I made it very clear that these children needed support rather than teacher's time". Because of the support staff the school has been able to employ, a problem had not arisen and the children were involved in regular classroom activities for long periods of the day.

However, there were a few instances involving emotional and behavioural difficulties where parents reacted to protect their children. One class was reported by a teacher as having decreased in numbers because of the presence of a child with extreme behavioural problems. There was a report of another child being taken out of a school, because of adverse social effects on the child and the "taking on [of] some really bad behaviour" and problems of academic performance as well. There was a report of yet

another child "experiencing nightmares", because of the presence of this same child in the classroom. In a third school, a child was withdrawn from a class and placed in another age appropriate room, because of problems that were being taken home related to some boys with severe, continuous behavioural problems. There were no reports of children with physical, intellectual or sensory deficits being responsible for children moving class or school.

For those who felt they had witnessed some effect on academic performance in the classroom, professional staff claimed it depended on the children's particular educational need. This difference in the effect on children changed year by year, as the children with special educational needs changed classes and were regrouped in different combinations. Coming from a stormy previous year to a relatively calm present year, allowed one teacher to look back and review her previous teaching. This teacher decided the presence of children with behavioural difficulties had taken her energy and time, so she had not been effective with either the "middle group" of children or the more able group who deserved extension. Her situation was explained in the following way:

> They had sort of floated around a wee bit because I hadn't put in the energy or the time into providing anything exciting or stimulating. The parents were very good and didn't say anything. (S4/T3)

This teacher commented on how she felt resentful over the time she had to put into these children, when she could have spent that time with "children who would have progressed academically and loved every minute of it".

While the effect was influenced by the special educational need, the children in the emotional and behavioural category made the most impact. The management of some of these children was recognised by the teachers as the crucial point. For example, having three children with learning disorders and behaviour problems in one room was solved by placing them together at the front of the teacher's table. By isolating them during teaching sessions, the teacher had avoided having them disrupt the rest of the class. Because they had worked well in this situation the teacher had moved them into supportive groups, to see if the progress could be maintained. Of these children, two of the children were prone to disrupt others, while the concern with the third child was his ability to inveigle peers into spending too much time on his tasks and not their own. Deliberately avoiding the 'buddy' system for another child, was a teacher's way of avoiding peers spending too much time with a child and distracting them from their work. The effect on the class was dependent on the disability and the management style of the teachers.

Loss of concentration on the part of the peers, as the teacher stopped to deal with a problem that the child was causing was another affect. For another teacher, the inability to concentrate on teaching and the awareness she had that there could be an incident at any time, led her to say: "Honestly and truthfully, yes, he did" effect the other children. Even though the class made an extreme effort to integrate this child into the class, this teacher hated having to divide the class up for group activities, because the child had to go with someone. The amount of time that a teacher had to spend with one particular child, caused her to say that the "peers were not given a fair deal".

Expecting complaints from parents caused one teacher to take the position of telling them that their child was being *assisted* by trying to help a particular child in a peer tutoring situation. The teacher explained that in order to teach the child the peers learned a great deal and gained personally as well as academically. Taking parents on class trips enabled another teacher to show parents the challenges the class faced having a child in their midst with special educational needs. This teacher's approach was that it was another dimension that children had to accept others "less fortunate than themselves", and not be sheltered from it. The teachers were therefore involved in teaching the parents as well as their children about special needs.

For those children who had total or considerable teacher aide support and individual attention to meet their needs, there was no apparent effect on the class as the teaching sessions went on uninterrupted. As this comment shows, the teacher was sensitive to the needs of the students when they were providing peer support:

> We have to be careful that the same people are not with him for long periods of time every day at the same time so that they miss out on their learning situation. (S1/T1)

At Karo school, the teachers responded by describing how they did not feel that their time was taken up with the integrated children because there were teachers aides to work with them, as well as the top ability children. This left them to concentrate on the remainder of the children. With adequate support teachers were in a position to state their position and to manage their classes for everyone's benefit, as this teacher explained:

> I made it quite clear before he came in that there was no way he was going to disrupt the class with the other children. (S1/T3)

For a large number of teachers therefore, the effect of having the children with special educational needs in their class, did not concern them as far the outcome of the peers'

academic work was concerned. This was not the same, however, as having no effect on the class routine or the time the teacher put into her work.

The principals of three schools gave a general and non-committal approach to this topic of academic effect on their pupils, such as this comment from Miro school:

> I haven't seen any evidence that they do worse. (S2/P1)

The answers conveyed either how they personally had approached the issue, or why they thought that there would be no problem concerning this matter in their school. The type of academic programme run in the classrooms of Titoki school was considered to have a positive effect on the management of the children with special educational needs. According to the principal of this school, when a developmental approach was used for curricula delivery the children fitted in, without people being aware they were there. The inclusion of children with special educational needs in such a programme meant that the children in the schools accepted that there were different learning needs, and the children were at different stages of learning. This form of teaching was reported as allowing for greater flexibility in managing individual needs, and assisted the peers in recognising and accepting the differences among them, as the principal of Karo related:

> It is making the children aware that we are all different and we all have needs and that is highlighted in our approach. (S1/P1)

There was only one school, Nikau, where some teachers had expressed concern, that some children were being denied aspects of their education because of the presence of some children with special educational needs in the classrooms. However, the deputy principal of this school did not think there was much effect because the school developed programmes with individual goal setting in mind for every subject. In this school, the principal stated he felt unable to discuss the issue and suggested asking the teachers about the effect on academic work, because he "found it a bit hard to comment on". These views were interesting in the light of the feelings expressed by the teachers on the staff concerning inclusion, time demands, classroom disruption and the stresses of accommodating emotionally and behaviourally disordered children in their classrooms.

However, the principal of Rata school did not find it at all difficult to make a statement on, and felt that "it has got to" have had some effect. He balanced this by looking at the topic in relation to the positive side of inclusion. This he regarded as a 'spin-off' when discussing academic work:

> Children learn things like tolerance and providing support for and helping develop basic skills that the children might require. Some pupils take quite a pride in having worked with these children or having supported them, and it has helped their self esteem in seeing things happen. (S4/P1)

There was almost unanimous agreement among principals and teachers, that academic and social development of the children with special educational needs had occurred, as this principal suggested:

> I don't think there is any question about it, the mainstream is the place as long as the support is there for teachers. (S4/P1)

For some children the progress was very slow, while for others it had been quite dramatic:

> This year she has made the most astounding progress. For a child like that who doesn't have a lot of other experiences it has opened up another world to her, and she just soaks it all up. (S2/T4)

The effect of inclusion on the academic progress of pupils in these five schools was not a concern to the professional staff, except in isolated situations, and those were with children with emotional and behavioural problems. When there was adequate ancillary staff support in the classrooms academic progress was not an issue. It was apparent that professional staff were very aware that there could be an effect and they maintained a vigilant stance.

Table 10.1 provides a summary of the aspects of classroom management which have been recognised as important in maintaining classroom routine, acceptance of children with special educational needs and positive inclusive practices. It shows that there are some issues which at a personal level become common to all professional staff, while there are others which are directly affected by the school culture. Demands on the professional staff's time is the most vital point, which when associated with shared responsibility, adequate classroom support and both principal and parental assistance, directly influences the feelings expressed towards inclusion.

10.10 Summary and Discussion.

"It is so easy to underestimate the complexities of the change process", according to Fullan (p.350) and to get better at it "we have to practice it on purpose". In this chapter the process of inclusion has been looked at from the reality of the classroom and the day to day management practices. For strategies to be developed which lead to inclusion in the true meaning of the term, it is essential to understand what is

happening in practice and to develop the changes from this base. At this stage it is in order to repeat what inclusion means. It is promoting optimal development of every child with special educational needs within the context of, and sharing the same learning environment as their age mates within the local community, and supporting them adequately in the process (section 2.3.3). This chapter has placed children with special educational needs right in the centre of the action and has attempted to describe how the different schools have met their academic, social and emotional needs. Teachers, many of whom never meant to teach children with developmental or educational needs have spoken of their routines, management, feelings and expectations regarding themselves and *all* their pupils. No school admitted to having inclusion mastered and from observed practices this was at times apparent, but all schools within the confines of their school goals and objectives were making an attempt to meet the special needs of the pupils and their parents. The most noticeable feature observed was the level of commitment, and the effects that the changes caused by inclusion, had on both children and professional staff at a very personal level. Did, as Nias et al. (1989, p.3) suggest, the classroom provide the "ultimate test of the educational change" with the "teacher as the final judge" in respect to inclusion?

One major aspect of the change process at all the schools practising inclusion, was the complexity of the relationships which developed with the interaction between staff and pupils. The more involved the schools were with the acceptance of inclusion as part of their school culture, the more complex the threads of interaction. Unravelling the network demonstrated the personal level at which the integration of children with special educational and developmental needs was taking place. The role expectations of all the people involved were discussed in Chapter 9, together with the manner in which the school culture connected with government policies and to the specific educational needs of the children. The next step was to understand the personal level of adaptation which occurred with inclusion, as classroom routines, curricula planning, and group dynamics were readjusted to maintain children of diverse ability in the regular school. In the summary and discussion of section 10.10, these aspects associated with the teachers' experiences will be discussed in relation to research currently available

1. When children with special educational needs were integrated into the classroom, the teachers were faced with two related issues. Firstly, how were they to allocate their time to the best advantage within the framework of the multiple demands they experienced and secondly, what was the extent of the classroom support they would have and how could they best use it? Time and people resources were the crucial

Schools	Karo	Miro	Nikau	Rata	Titoki
Effect on school	Positive unless emotional/ behavioural problems	Positive unless emotional/ behavioural problems	Ambivalence referring to emotional/ behavioural problems	Positive unless emotional/ behavioural problems	Positive
Factors affecting acceptance	Age of enrolment, mechanical aids and independence Community response to disability influencing children Extracurricular activities				
Attributes which positively influence inclusion	Child able to communicate and provide feedback Appearance Independence Peers with knowledge to understand unusual actions				
Attributes which negatively influence inclusion	Specific actions of children Use parents and special advisers to give information Daily living skills and inadequate parenting as a -ve factor	Specific actions of children Use parents and special advisers to give information	Negative behaviours of considerable concern and frequently reported Use class forums, teacher-class counselling and programmes emphasising self esteem and difference Daily living skills and inadequate parenting as a negative factor	Specific actions of children Use parents and special advisers to give information	Negative behaviours cause concern Use class forums, teacher-class counselling to inform children Daily living skills and inadequate parenting as a -ve factor
Playtime	Assistance given to achieve social integration	Children played with children of similar social maturity No assistance to help with age appropriate play	Programmes to assist with self esteem and differences	Children played with children of similar social maturity No assistance to help with age appropriate play	Staff did not engineer social situations but seemed very successful in achieving age appropriate play

Table 10.1 **Summary of Maintenance Phase**

continued on next page

Table 10.1 continued

Schools	Karo	Miro	Nikau	Rata	Titoki
Peer support and peer tutoring	Rostered 'buddy' support for some children Considerable awareness of using children in this role but agreed may be tendency to use the brighter peers	Volunteers Informal request Rotate the 'buddy' support so many children take responsibility	Classroom support provided Use group support a lot Look for good role models May be tendency to use the brighter peers	Volunteers Informal request Rotate the 'buddy' support so many children take responsibility May be tendency to use the brighter peers	Classroom 'buddy' system and 'leader of the day' with responsibility to assist child with special needs Emphasis on rotating support
Effect on academic progress of peers	Principal states that there is no discernible effect Teachers state 'no effect' because of the level of ancillary staff support	Principal states that there is no discernible effect Teachers state 'no effect' unless children with emotional/ behavioural problems involved Then there is possibility of difficulty	Principal states that there is no discernible effect Teachers state 'no effect' unless children with emotional/ behavioural problems involved Then there is possibility of difficulty	Principal states that there is no discernible effect Teachers state that use of developmental approach to learning means 'no effect' as every child works at own individual level	Principal feels there must be some effect with some children Teachers state 'no effect' unless children with emotional/ behavioural problems involved Then there is possibility of difficulty
Time as a factor in inclusion	General opinion that there are extra time demands but if there is a teacher aide in the classroom having an inclusive child had little effect Time spent training teacher aide, liaison activities, planning programmes and gathering resources Factors which influence amount of time are: age of entry to school, type of disability, number of children with special needs in classroom				
Teacher's feelings on extra time demands	Varied and personal ranging from worry, concern, anger, to resentment if unsupported and without parental interaction				
Venue for 1:1 tuition	Group learning in classroom or to resource room for 1:1 tuition	1:1 tuition in classroom and/ or to resource room for 1:1 tuition	Group learning in 'special'classroom with teacher employed to work with children with special educational needs or to resource room for 1:1 tuition	1:1 tuition in classroom and/ or resource room	1:1 tuition in classroom and/ or resource room

Table 10.1 **Summary of Maintenance Phase**

elements in the equation. How these were balanced influenced the teachers' organisational and emotional responses to classroom management and inclusion. These two elements also influenced the attitudes expressed concerning the academic and social progress of all the children in the classroom.

2. Considerable research has been done on the attitudes of teachers to the integration of children with special educational or developmental needs, into the regular school (Alexander and Strain, 1978; Gans, 1987; Thomas, D. 1985). There has also been much research carried out on how to change attitudes considered undesirable or not useful to integration (Larrivee, 1981; Leyser, 1988; Leyser and Abrams, 1983; Siperstein and Goding, 1985). There is limited research on the effect that legislation has on promoting social change, where professional staff are placed in a position where there is no alternative but to accept inclusion. Reference has already been made to the power-coercive strategies of Chin and Benne in section 9.2.5 with regard to the climate of change in the schools and this had the greatest effect on the attitudes towards inclusion which were expressed by the professional staff.

Possibly most important in the classroom was the level of involvement and personal experience gained from handling the individual children, which in turn gave confidence to teachers. The transition which frequently occurred when teachers experienced a change of attitude and confidence in working with children, particularly those with severe developmental needs, has been described by Giangreco et al. (1993). The results from this present study closely parallel the work of Giangreco et al., who describe a "lack of ownership" for the children's education, when a teacher aide took the primary responsibility for decision-making and programme implementation (ibid, p.364). While they describe the limited contact which occurred between the classroom teacher and the ancillary staff in their study, the communication pattern between all staff members was warm and supportive in this study. This was possibly because of the degree of collegiality which had resulted from within the school communities, coupled with the leadership provided by the principals. This outcome was also dependent on the type of educational or developmental need which each child presented with. The more the child was able to participate in classroom activity in a mutually interactive style, the more likely the teacher aide and the teacher were to share classroom and student activities. Giangreco et al. considered that as the teachers were more able to include the children in the same activities as their classmates, "even when educational objectives were different" (ibid, p.366), so their attitudes and confidence grew. In this thesis certain children were supported with generous discretionary hours which was demonstrated by the multiple contacts they

experienced on each school day. This led to a lack of personal space for the classroom teachers and limited involvement with their particular pupils. The variations which occurred in the extent of the ancillary staff support for some children at times proved puzzling and frustrating to the staff. The present research demonstrated many parallel findings to the research of Giangreco et al. where the use of team work, actual physical presence of another staff member and sharing goals and programmes were considered a helpful form of support.

3. In the present research the feeling of not being alone or solely responsible, was a very vital experience in how the teachers spoke concerning inclusion. Teachers in Karo and Miro schools spoke warmly of the contribution made by the specialist or itinerant teachers in providing knowledge of how to include and assist with inclusion. The technical assistance provided by these special advisers was welcomed by teachers when it was practical and needed. The indications of this research showed a degree of frustration which arose when specialist advisers were out of phase with classroom organisation or the teacher's methods of teaching. Trying to impose supposedly 'outdated' teaching styles was most unacceptable if that person visited the school for one half hour a week. Again, research findings indicated that any interruption to the classroom programme was unacceptable. While the children may not disrupt the class more than any other peer, frequently the presence of visitors or specialists described by Giangreco et al (1993) as "traffic coming through the room" (p.367), did. This occurrence was vividly described by teachers in Miro school who found themselves overwhelmed at times by support staff and visitors. One of their comments regarding having children with special educational needs in their rooms, was their need to learn to teach in front of other people, and for some teachers this had been very difficult to come to terms with. Karo school was also frequently visited, but according to the teachers this occurrence was now part of the school culture and they accepted it. A finding which related to this study and that of Giangreco et al. (1993) was the difficulties which could arise with children being 'pulled out' to go for individual sessions in the resource room and then requiring 'slotting back' into the classroom routine. All these aspects of management, time allocation and available support for the classroom teacher influenced the personal reactions they expressed.

4. Time and people resources were also reflected in the decision-making process of where the children with special needs received the personal tuition which resulted from their allocation of discretionary hours. The school's decision of whether to use the resource room or work in the classroom, was based on the personality and particular educational needs of the child, associated with the designated support and time frame

of staff and classroom management. Little research has been done on the reasons for such decisions but this topic is becoming recognised as an issue which needs addressing. The relationship between the characteristics of the children and their learning experience requires greater understanding, because children have been shown to achieve in both situations. Rich and Ross (1991) suggest it is important for staff to understand why they choose one over the other, and to not automatically make that decision. They refer to "the island of learning opportunity" (p.477) which interestingly in this study, the students recognised for themselves in their own way. Rich and Ross considered 'on task-time' was a factor related to the students' educational progress. However, we know little about what the student characteristics are which make one setting more appropriate than another for some students, or what the different settings provide which cause positive or negative interactions with various students. In this present study, it appeared that children with sensory or intellectual impairment enjoyed the resource room involvement and saw it as being an island of tranquillity in the mainstream. However, those children with social, emotional and behavioural disorders which had led on to learning problems, considered going to the resource room an embarrassment or degrading in front of their peers. The 'on task' behaviour of students in relation to environmental setting was also examined by Rose and Rose (1994) who considered the individualised instruction found in the resource room could be transferred to the regular classroom, by the use of "co-operative learning, peer tutoring and effective classroom management" (p.24). All these practices were used in varying degrees in the five schools, however, according to Hegarty (1985) the provision of teacher aide support in class was not always appropriate, because "it can be intrusive for other pupils and can single out the pupils in an unwelcome way" (p.11). Many teachers in the schools in this study, provided this as a reason against using the resource room for some pupils for their 1:1 tuition. They also favoured the use of group activities because the children's confidence increased in this situation, it encouraged them to ask questions and they were able to become involved in regular class activities. There were, however, reasons which supported both venues as appropriate to meet the needs of these children.

5. While much research has focussed on teachers' attitudes, responses and needs, Fradd et al. (1986-87) initiated the only study available to the researcher, on performance strategies used by teachers in programmes for children who were integrated in the regular classroom. The physical placement of the child in the class in relation to attainment or behaviour, and the relationship of the self esteem and confidence of the teacher to provide an inclusive setting, which Fradd et al. described, had validity in relation to this thesis. Particularly relevant was the fact that the research

had been carried out using a similar methodology to the present research, but unfortunately the number of participants (6) provided limited findings. In contrast the present study involved 35 teachers and 13 teachers aides (Appendix 10). The less than positive manner in which four of the teachers in the Fradd et al. study interacted with their students in the classroom, had relevance to the manner in which reliever teachers reacted in this present study. The use of negative treatment and the teachers seldom interacting with the 'handicapped' students in Fradd et al.'s research, were similar to the actions noted by the researcher in the field notes when reliever teachers were present. On one occasion it was observed, that the reliever teacher did not speak directly to the child the entire school day. This included directions for the child being made through the peers and within the child's hearing. No research papers were found on the effect of changing regular staff and short term relieving situations on children with special educational needs. This occurrence did provide difficulties for the schools, because teachers aides and teachers became specialists in the total support of specific children in the school environment.

6. The classroom organisation provided by the schools involved in this study demonstrated systems which were conducive to inclusion. These practices included curriculum and time-tabling negotiations, so children receiving individual instruction in resource rooms did not miss regular classroom activities they could be involved in. The peers were able to work at this time on curricula subjects which often had individual levels of attainment like mathematics, story writing and reading. The classroom management involved co-operative learning and group activities. Support personnel were used to varying degrees to actively promote social interaction and in a lesser amount, to facilitate friendships. As in the research of Hegarty (1985), an in-depth study was made of the details of class routines like social expectations, patterns of academic work and the use of resource personnel as a support for teachers. Some interesting and useful comparisons can be made between these two studies. Hegarty reported that it "was found helpful if no more than two pupils with special were allocated to any one class since the demands on the teacher were otherwise too great" (1985, p.10). This is in contrast to the present study where up to three students were found to be in several classes, and in one class there were four children. In addition, the teachers could frequently refer to other children who for reasons of abuse, bereavement, socio-economic factors, marriage and family breakup and other personal considerations, for a period were considered 'special needs' children but not in the sense of requiring resources and discretionary hours. One class included six children in this situation, including two with discretionary hours. No research publications were found which demonstrated that the academic or social progress of peers was

harmed by inclusive practices or the number of children requiring support in a classroom, although Hegarty suggested it could be so. In this study the overview of the opinions of professional staff showed they did not consider there was any interference in academic work. However, there were definite references to their awareness this could happen and the staff kept a sensitive surveillance on the situation. Staff identified few children who had been detrimental to class safety, cohesion, emotional wellbeing in pupils and classroom happiness. No solutions were offered for this situation other than increased ancillary staff presence, the use of male teachers aides and the knowledge that in time these children would be someone else's problem if the school could manage to keep everything under control.

7. The use made of teachers aides in the schools indicate their value as a support system in the classroom. Hegarty (1985) included teachers aides in his discussion on the implications of different methods of educational provision. The "high premium placed on liaison and the exchange of information" (ibid, p.11) if teachers aides prepared students before the regular class, was mentioned by staff at Karo, Miro and Titoki schools. The difficulty of finding the time to liaise was frequently mentioned and informal meetings were held at lunchtime or after school. Teachers were repeatedly seen to give their personal time to meet the organisational demands of the school and this included for inclusive practices. This finding was also reported by Hegarty (1985). No allowance was made in the hours of pupils' contact to counteract this extra time commitment. The satisfaction expressed by classroom teachers at the schools where resource or itinerant teachers were on the staff was expressed in the research of Ward et al. (1987) as a bridging of the gap between the overworked classroom teacher and existing specialist resources. These authors consider that it is not necessarily specialised staff that are required but "extra support " in the classroom, a role in which teachers aides proved to be indispensable (section 9.1.5). There is little information available on this position considered so important in the schools. It is a position that is poorly remunerated but one which has become the cornerstone of inclusion. The complex expectations and responsibility placed on people with limited training in the field of special educational needs are detailed in section 9.2.4.

8. The schools drew up and implemented their own in-service training courses based on internal discussion and the special educational need which was uppermost in peoples' minds. Two schools in this study demonstrated this action, when the need arose for assertive behaviour techniques to assist with the management of particular children by *all* the staff. With regard to specialist advisers, Hegarty considered the bonus for teachers was that the information "was practically based and related to a

pupil that the teacher was currently dealing with" (1985, p.15). This was in keeping with teachers' comments regarding the need for practical assistance pertinent to specific children. The contact made with specialist advisers was variable and dependent on personality attributes of the specialist and on the urgency of the difficulty they were being consulted on (section 9.2.1).

9. Although references were made in the literature on the effect that children with special educational needs had on the academic development of their peers, no literature was found which placed this as anything but a supposition. There were references at the end of research papers to the need for future research into the effect that inclusion has on the peers in the classroom, but no substantive evidence was found. The research presented here, however, has demonstrated that the understanding and support of the peers is vital to inclusion.

10. In Chapters 8, 9 and 10 there have been multiple references to the inclusion of children with severe emotional and behavioural problems and the impact these children have had on staff and peers in the classroom. The implications for school management concerning behaviour problems and disciplinary matters of children with special educational needs were varied. Firstly, schools were expecting similar standards of discipline from all their students as a general practice, however some teachers admitted they were more lenient with some of their students (sections 2.4.3 and 10.9.1). To meet the need for a guideline on acceptable behaviour three schools had implemented an assertive discipline programme, while another had modified this scheme. This finding is in agreement with overseas research which indicates that teaching staff need to acquire skills in dealing with behaviour problems with all children, so they are treated in an equitable and appropriate manner. The main emphasis is on preparing staff to manage diversity in their classrooms (Campbell et al., 1985). Secondly, some professional staff drew attention to the predominance of women in the teaching profession and the need to have a plan of action to handle situations as they occurred (section 9.1.3). The gender differences of teachers managing students who present overt, 'acting out' behaviour was discussed by McIntyre (1988). Thirdly, the difficulties of suspension occurred at one school (Miro) and suspension followed by expulsion was experienced by another (Nikau). While this was an unusual happening in this research, the occurrence and repercussions on the principal and professional staff were considerable and took place within the observation period in the schools. During this time three incidents occurred in Nikau school which had relevance to the expectations that boards of trustees would provide a 'safe physical and emotional environment' in their schools. As schools walk a fine line between meeting the

demands of the Ministry of Education for enrolment on one hand, and the legal requirements of the National Educational Guidelines and the Health and Safety in Employment Act, 1992 on the other, the final answers may come from a court of law with regard to some children with emotional and behavioural problems (sections 3.2.7 and 3.3.4). Therefore, while overseas research tends to draw on legal solutions to these problems (Yell, 1989; Bartlett, 1989), with a child in Nikau school, 'time out', negotiations and adequate support eventually resulted in a successful outcome. Jones et al. (1981, p. 366) stated that "it must be realised that often it is the understanding, support and help received from non-handicapped classmates that are the critical variables for handicapped children's success in general education classes". This criteria was never applied more meaningfully, than in the management of a few students with emotional and behavioural problems in these schools. This is not a specific problem of these five schools nor a New Zealand problem, but one being faced internationally according to the literature (Yell, 1989, Bartlett, 1989, Bain and McPherson, 1990). A system "inadequately prepared to deal with the problems of behaviour disordered students, with a failure to provide adequate resources and terms of references for those entrusted to meet the needs of these students" is how Bain and McPherson refer to the Australian experience (ibid, 1990, p. 122). All the principals referred to this area of inclusion as the one most in need of attention.

As has been presented in this thesis, the recognition of the individuality and uniqueness of every child, when it becomes an essential ingredient of the school culture, provides a manner in which all children may be included in every facet of school life. When professional staff work from this central philosophy, classroom organisation becomes attuned to difference and diversity is recognised and responded to in a receptive manner. This approach avoids the 'all children are special' attitude which allows avoidance in a non-discriminating manner to occur while at the same time showing apparent acceptance of disabilities in people. With denial, it is possible to avoid dilemmas like equity, equality and allocation of resources. This chapter has advanced themes which have been addressed in previous sections and introduced new ones. These include the value of people resources and in particularly teachers aides, the importance of shared responsibility and teachers' confidence in managing children, the practices which are conducive to inclusion and topics which are more controversial like the venue for 1:1 tuition and management strategies for emotionally or behaviourally disturbed children. At the personal decision-making level the central issues were time and resource allocation to enable the employment of ancillary staff support. The final chapter, the conclusion, will address the issue of ownership of

inclusion and whether the schools in this study have legitimated the change which the Education Act, 1989 sanctioned.

Chapter Eleven

Conclusion

11.0 Conclusion

World wide, proponents of inclusion have argued that the regular classroom teacher can put in place effective education for all students in regular classrooms, and can accommodate the individual differences which occur with children with educational and developmental needs (Gartner and Lipsky, 1987; Hegarty, 1982b; Lipsky and Gartner, 1994; Pugach, 1987; Stainback and Stainback, 1984; Stainback et al., 1985). Accepting this to be so, the premise suggested by Fullan (1991) that if there is to be change, "everyone is implicated and must face it in relation to his or her own role" (p.143), places the transition to inclusion firmly in the school community. In addition any alteration in belief system of the school culture has been placed on the teachers' shoulders (Hughes et al, 1985; Sarason, 1971 in Fullan, 1991), regarding them as "the central players in bringing about change in practice" (Keogh, 1990, p.190).

11.1 Introduction

With the passage of the Education Act, 1989, at the same time as the educational system was undergoing an extensive administrative change, inclusion was being accepted by educationists and parents as the ideal for the education of children with educational or developmental disabilities in New Zealand. The result was that the law became an agent of social change. There has been ambiguity in the government approach to inclusion, and the most telling indication of its status in government educational policy can be found in the number of surveys and reports which have been carried out since the Draft Review of Special Education in 1987. The status of special education within the regular school system has been reviewed, discussed and analysed repeatedly (Chapter 3) and the end result has consistently been the difficulty of the equitable allocation of limited resources to a widely disparate population.

Inclusion was regarded as planned change, that is, those who were responsible for the legislation which allowed this ideology to be instigated in the schools presumably were conscious of the effect the mandate for equal rights to enrolment would have. In this thesis the changes which have occurred with inclusion have been examined from the viewpoint of the school communities who have directly implemented the philosophy. The perception of all those persons involved in the inclusive process is that it is a change which has been controlled by financial constrictions and at the same time has developed because of the personal commitment of all those who are involved. Inclusion is a deeply personal philosophy which starts at the recognition of the individuality or uniqueness of children in the governance goals and objectives of the

school culture and continues through the entire fabric of the community into the classrooms. In the course of this thesis the values of individual people and their school communities have been revealed, with the result that the ambivalence has been exposed which exists towards the inclusive changes that have been experienced. This ambivalence is caused by the need for governing bodies of schools to work within the financial budget designated by the government through the Ministry of Education. However, beyond these budgeting requirements the personal values of parents, professional staff and pupils provide a powerful force of opinion and change.

By using a bedded systems theory approach and removing the personal and environmental factors in the change process layer by layer, an understanding of inclusion has been gained. In Chapter 7 the analysis of the school documents, including charters, policies and incidental school communications revealed the importance of recognising individuality or uniqueness in children in meeting inclusive processes. The first signal came through of an association with financial limitations, a theme which was to continue and grow throughout the thesis. The more a school identified with individuality or openly addressed 'mainstreaming' in its documents, the more comfortable it was with meeting the practical demands of the ideology. In Chapter 8 the enrolment of the children with special educational or developmental needs showed a recognition of the rights of the children to education in the regular school system. However, the actual admission and placement of the children in the classroom became involved with the allocation of resources and the gaining of support. Principals showed ambivalence as they balanced their personal values and leadership goals with the budgeting constrictions placed on their school communities. At these stages the depth of feelings aroused by the administrative reforms of the Education Act, 1989 clouded the issue and carried over to colour the attitudes expressed towards inclusion. In the view of the researcher, a perceived disservice was done to this population of children because of this association. In Chapter 9 the expectations board members, professional staff and parents held of each other were explored, using the role as the basic unit of examination. The matrix of expectations supported the school culture and provided the structure of the school. While the unravelling of these interactions and relationships showed how collegiality, communication, staff development and the use of special expertise from the SES were all influential in the inclusive process, it was the balance between the financial demands of this ideology and personal involvement which again indicated a considerable degree of ambivalence. The allocation of admittedly limited resources through the Ministry of Education provided the dissonance to inclusion in this section. Finally, in Chapter 10 the classroom was closely scrutinised to record how

professional staff were implementing inclusion and to see what methods and support systems they used to organise classes containing children with special educational and developmental needs. The allocation of resources in the form of discretionary hours to enable the placement of teacher aides with these pupils was essential for the relaxed and comfortable management of a diverse range of abilities. Not only were teachers aides vital to the inclusive process, but so were the peers. Without the support and tolerance that professional staff had encouraged and expected from the peers, a situation which had occurred because of the leadership style of the principal within the respective school cultures, inclusion could not have been sustained. This was most applicable in connection with children with emotional and behavioural problems. Once more the association of resource allocation and personal commitment provided an ambivalent situation. Therefore, this thesis has demonstrated that although the schools in this study tried within their value systems and legal requirements to meet the needs of a population of children requiring both equality and equity issues to be met in their education, the financial constraints of the government have undermined a change they allowed to happen.

11.2 National Issues

The schools' interpretation and implementation of national policy was the first aspect of inclusion to be addressed. Three strategies of change as outlined by Chin and Benne (1964) were shown to be useful in exploring inclusion as educational change (section 4.4). The most potent was the power-coercive strategy which saw the political power and authority of the Ministry of Education bring about a possibly unintentional association of the administrative reforms of the Education Act, 1989, with inclusion. Changes to the school charters without consultation, and the backing away from the legality of the charter being a contract to being an agreement between the government and the schools, had considerable repercussions. For all the schools this wielding of power caused negative reactions towards the government and any educational change they proposed. This included inclusion. Because of the leadership style inherent in some school cultures, there were schools which admitted their displeasure and turned to the job at hand, one of which was preparing their school documents and environment to meet the needs of pupils with special educational needs. There were other schools where these preparations faltered and became tied into a pattern of services which became dependent on funding.

While the schools recognised their children with special educational needs in their own individual manner, the compulsory equity clause was taken into school charters as

directed by the Ministry of Education. The schools complied with these compulsory sections because until certain demands were met by the schools, they were threatened with the withholding of funds. Chin and Benne (1964) discuss the use of economic sanctions as an "ingredient of power" (p.52). The principals 'drove' the policy writing in the area of special educational needs. Some schools placed ownership on their charters by adding aims influenced by the school culture, while other schools used generalisations and placed 'let-out' clauses in their documents so as not to be accused of non-compliance. Equity was accepted by the schools, but the financial support required to provide additional resources to allow children to take part in the school community in an equitable manner was expected to come through successful applications to the Ministry of Education. There was a cautious approach to balancing the children's needs with financial considerations (section 7.2.1).

The interpretation of national policy in school charters and conveyance into school policy, was dependent on the value placed on individuality in the respective schools. The degree to which schools recognised the uniqueness or diversity of their children and the acceptance of inclusion, was mirrored in their formal documents. Only Karo school formally recognised that inclusion was occurring, although other schools with a resource centre or special unit on campus indicated an empathy towards children with special educational needs. One school principal made the definition of the population so broad it allowed for an avoidance of responsibility to occur. In contrast, in a manner difficult to define the recognition of difference, together with the 'up front' approach to special needs and disability permeated the personal interactions of two school cultures. Karo and Rata schools, to varying degrees, showed a considerable degree of comfort in managing diversity. The empathy towards children with special abilities or the talented was very apparent as professional staff considered this group was discriminated against in educational provision (section 7.2.2).

11.3 Governance issues

There were two governance issues of importance. The first required the schools' approaches to equity as written in the charters to be clarified in policy, and the second referred to how the inclusive policies written into the school charter were to be implemented.

The transfer of the intent of the school charters into policy was the first issue. It was assumed that as boards of trustees provided the governance in the schools they would be responsible for policy writing. This was not the case in four schools in this study

where the trustee members looked to the expertise of the principal to write policies on equity, special needs or inclusion. The boards of trustees' respondents considered they did not have the knowledge or power to make policy and request facilities in this 'special' area of education (section 7.3). The authority of the government in controlling resources was frequently referred to in discussing the negotiations for funding and discretionary hours done by principals and officers of the Ministry of Education. At an early stage in the research the power of the Ministry of Education in decision-making became an issue and this was to colour many of the subsequent observations and personal comments (section 7.4.1).

The second issue, the implementation of the policy of inclusion, posed a challenge to a school system undergoing major administrative reform in a climate where there was an equivocal commitment to the process. This was demonstrated during this research by the withdrawal or diminution of hours experienced by schools which had children enrolled, who received discretionary hours for teacher and teacher aide support. This action also coincided with the presentation of the *Statement of Intent* (1991) which detailed two levels of special education provision. The classification of children into the two states of "reliably identifiable" disability and "learning and social difficulty" caused considerable reaction, as the schools saw the support and resources they had experienced being rearranged and reallocated (p. 12). Uncertainties in the system caused feelings to be expressed by professional staff, indicating in many cases, a sense of betrayal as schools found themselves totally responsible for children who had been enrolled. During the time following the issuing of the proposed government policy in the *Statement of Intent* the schools in the study continued to enrol children in the spirit of inclusion and it became noticeable that the indecision, changes in policy and vague commitment all led to a lowering of the morale of the staff room in relation to these pupils. This was demonstrated in two ways. Firstly, whereas the proposed reforms were intended to reduce the amount of government intervention in education, the amount of energy, hours of work and emotions expended over the discretionary hour applications, indicated that the regional offices of the Ministry of Education provided an extremely important arena of policy decision for schools (Figure 4.1). For the schools the decision-making at the policy level of the Ministry of Education was vital and tested the success or failure of individual skills of application presentation, which the principals graphically detailed. Therefore, as the Treasury report of 1987 presented the comments that "the government should: avoid interposing itself between the customers and providers as far as possible; eschew disabling interventions and focus on enabling ones: increase flexibility in the supply of educational services...." (The Treasury, 1987, p.293), in actual fact the government was maintaining control

over the allocation of funding at a distance. This was seen by the professional staff as having a very profound and personal effect on the educational chances of some children. Secondly, the lack of clear direction from the government on the policy of inclusion added to the already complex issues that the schools were experiencing with regard to implementing the administrative changes, with the result that a degree of confusion prevailed. While the schools in the study considered they were 'getting on with it', they felt the government was unsure of which path to take to inclusion.

Once pupils were enrolled in the schools the most frequently used strategy of change was of the normative-re-educative type. Inclusion caused many professional staff to re-assess their attitudes to disability and to children with diverse needs who did not meet many of the classroom criteria of routines, independence, self motivation and discipline. The norms and belief systems of the school culture, together with the leadership of the principals influenced the attitudes on many school employees as old patterns of responses were changed for new commitments. The principals, itinerant or special teachers and specialist advisers were the main change agents in this strategy. The final strategy, that of empirical-rational approaches, was present in the form of job descriptions and the meeting of the requirements posed by these. Inclusion was a rational decision and it was in the self interest of teachers to teach all the children who were placed in their class, as it was their professional duty. Therefore, although some teachers were not comfortable with the situation they found themselves in, particularly with children who had emotional or behavioural problems, they performed their duties according to the demands of the school culture.

In examining intent, the research concentrated on how the many people who were implicated in the educational change which resulted from the acceptance of the ideology of inclusion, defined their reality and perceived those changes. Research world wide has tended to focus on many of these persons in isolation from their organisational setting and without appreciation of the complex web of interaction that exists within a school community. In this thesis the matrix of the school culture has been explored and has been shown to be the crucial factor in firstly, placing inclusion within the school context and secondly, determining how the roles of school personnel are enacted. Whereas the staff of each school included teachers who appeared more confident with the process of integration than others, it was not a school wide phenomenon. The level of acceptance of the philosophy of inclusion by the staff was, however, a school event. The perception of the change which has occurred with inclusion demonstrated that the manner in which it was introduced, with government control on finances, influenced much of the subsequent decision-making and

acceptance of the ideology in schools. Once decision-making moved into the arena of the school community those persons concerned met their role expectations in accordance with the school culture and with considerable professional and personal involvement.

An understanding of the governance issues which provide background information on how inclusion influences schools can only be achieved through having a thorough knowledge of the school culture. This next section reviews how the school charter, the values it contains and the indications of intent with regard to inclusion, are all directed by the leadership style of the principal and the associated school culture.

11.4 Inclusion and the School Culture

An understanding of the school culture was paramount to the comprehension of the everyday management and organisation of inclusion. In this section interest was directed at two areas of management: firstly, the part the leadership of the principal played in the process of inclusion within the school; and secondly, the development and maintenance of the school culture. The research showed that there were areas of the school culture which were strongly influenced by the decision-making of the government through the Ministry of Education, leading to feelings of powerlessness or frustration over the demands of perceived bureaucracy. There were also areas of the school culture reliant on the personal attributes and leadership of the principals, and the commitment of individual staff members. These two factors, power in decision-making and personal commitment will be reviewed in respect to the cultures of the schools.

11.4.1 Leadership and management. The five principals in this study acknowledged that inclusion had had an effect on their leadership and management and referred to responsibility, pressures, frustration, persistence and commitment when describing their involvement (section 9.1.2). While the principals recognised implementation of inclusion to be an evolving process which involved staff and community development, it was the issue of gaining practical support and resources for their staff which frustrated them most (section 9.2.2). The added responsibility of having children with special educational and developmental needs in the school was discussed from the viewpoint of working on advisory and management teams, of ensuring the physical safety of all students when acts of violence could occur with some pupils and of the increased expectations placed on the professional staff. The awareness of the principals to the expectations they placed on their staff varied and the

factors which appeared to influence the attitudes were class sizes, the number of children who were integrated in each school and the type of special educational need the children presented with. In general, however, it was clear that teachers felt they were employed to teach all children from the community regardless of their "condition or special needs" and that staff were under no disillusionment concerning what they were expected to do. Hence, teachers were employed by their board of trustees in the knowledge that however uncomfortable they may be in certain circumstances, inclusion was part of their job description (sections 8.2.2, 8.2.4). It was those teachers who felt totally supported and confident in their classroom management of integrated children who could freely discuss their apprehensions, feelings of responsibility and the resentments which they experienced in their initiation period. These teachers valued the collegiality and support that they had received and had made a transition to feeling positive and confident in their role. In contrast, a specialist adviser considered that because inclusion had been "done so badly" there were many teachers who would have been "damaged for life". Center and Ward (1987); Chandler and Utz (1982) and Pieterse and Center (1984) have concluded that the leadership, values and attitudes of the principals were the determining factors for successful inclusion. The same features were found to be true in this research. The act of integration was not questioned where the principals set the school climate for inclusion and encouraged co-operative responsibility (section 8.1.1). This pattern was noted in the discussions with parents on their first impressions at enrolment through to the individual and personal care of the staff, and from the written policies to the setting of classroom routines (sections 8.1.2, 9.1, section 9.2). Allowance was always made for the diversity of students' behaviour, and where necessary there was ancillary staff support (section 9.1.5). The school climate with regard to inclusion was also indicated by the communication patterns concerning special educational needs, which were established within the school (section 9.2.3).

11.4.2 Communication. Communication was viewed from two levels. Firstly, the distribution of government policy information within the school and secondly, the communication of concerns and requests for assistance on a personal level. In the first instance, emphasis was placed on the conveyance of government policies to the schools and the tracking of the changing policy decisions through the communication network. The research indicated that there were several barriers to teachers receiving information. If there was a person responsible for special educational needs in the school the dissemination of that information was dependent on the drive, enthusiasm, interest and organisation of that particular person (section 9.2.3). However, material frequently became filed away or lingered on a desk and never reached those working

with the children. Teachers admitted to not accepting responsibility for seeking information unless it particularly involved them. In the second instance, the presence of a resource or special unit on the school grounds or management teams tended to draw information on special educational needs to it. The result was that teachers who had children in their classroom who were affected by policy decisions frequently were not notified or requested to respond to relevant information. The information became 'special'. The *Statement of Intent* (1991) issued while this study was under way was used as a tracer, with the results showing that very few classroom teachers admitted to having read it, or having knowledge of its contents, over and above a vague idea of what it was. During this research several surveys were carried out and the classroom teachers usually did not know about them. Teachers in general had little knowledge of what the government was proposing or carrying out, over and above any reference to funding and resources. The teachers admitted they left that to the principals who would notify them if anything concerned them. On the part of the principals, this protected overworked staff and on the part of the teachers, it appeared they were not particularly interested when they had a class of 35+, as well as 2 to 3 children in a category requiring extra educational assistance, and they considered they were powerless to change anything. There was an air of lassitude and inevitability about official information, and the professional staff's lack of involvement was related to their consideration that it would make little difference to their personal situation.

The communication associated with staff interaction and classroom management was different. Although there were obviously different levels of communication depending on the information being passed, the most important factor was whether staff felt able to approach their principal and resolve problems. In the schools where staff felt comfortable in addressing any concerns with regard to their children with special educational needs, inclusion was accepted with confidence. There was a desire to not only have action, but also to feel that the principal was listening and understanding at a personal level. The principal was required to give pastoral care, as well as know how to gain resources, assistance, approach outside agencies and in every instance support the teachers (sections 9.1.2, 9.3).

11.4.3 Collegiality. One vital aspect of inclusion which progressed from the leadership style of the principal was the collegiality which developed in the school climate. The interacting roles of the staff were essential in the management of children with special educational and developmental needs (section 9.1.3). The support of fellow staff members was expected, but at the same time respected and it took the form of listening, "letting off steam", trying out new ideas, asking for specific help,

laughing at the mistakes which were made or events which had overtaken them. The school management style which encouraged this mutual support was important in how teachers felt about inclusion. Inclusion worked if the teachers did not feel alone in their classroom situation with their children, but felt able to seek help, even to the point of opting out of responsibility for a short period to gain composure or respite, and not feel guilty, embarrassed or a failure. If teachers felt totally responsible for a child or children and considered that they were isolated, it was highly likely that the idea of inclusion would be criticised.

If professional staff felt a lack of confidence in their ability to manage the routines of certain children they again were likely to express criticism of inclusion. As training or staff development in the area of children with special educational needs for both teachers aides and teachers had been limited, it received considerable emphasis in the discussions on the effect of inclusion on the school community.

11.4.4 Staff development. Teachers almost unanimously stated they had had no training in the management of children with special educational or developmental needs (section 9.2.4). On probing, they admitted that they may have had limited courses or contact during their teacher training period. General approaches to this area of education and child development did not appear to be very meaningful to the teachers and their desire was for 'hands on', in class assessment, supervision and practical suggestions of what to do in their present situation. Each child was regarded as a new challenge for whom there were personal and practical approaches which would ensure meaningful educational experiences. Many teachers and teachers aides referred to "being a mother" as being a good starting qualification for meeting the needs of these children. The schools had been and were still bringing in specialist advisers, itinerant and resource teachers to assist with specific difficulties and in some instances the assistance was coming from outside agencies with special interests in various disabilities or problems (section 9.2.1). Whereas all the schools used every available specialist to assist the staff in learning new approaches and techniques, the degree of confidence of the teacher appeared to be related to the timing of the request for assistance. The earlier in the integration programme that specialist help was called in the more relaxed the teachers were with their situation. To ask for help at the start of the classroom experience and to commence the process of inclusion with knowledge and support, was more effective than waiting until a crisis occurred before seeking assistance. This sapped the teacher's confidence. Seeking specific information on special educational needs frequently became a personal activity between parents, the general practitioner or medical specialists and outside agencies. Teachers frequently

carried out liaison work in their personal time. Therefore, staff development in inclusion frequently was an experience driven by personal need and involvement. This resulted in teachers commenting on how they appreciated an acknowledgment of what they were doing, a recognition of some of the varied problems they were handling and some credit for their handling of various situations.

This thesis has described how five schools managed inclusion of children with special educational or developmental needs into their community, against a background of changing rules and indecision. Four aspects of the school culture, leadership, collegiality, communication and staff development have been discussed in terms of their relationship to inclusion. These factors have illustrated various facets of inclusion within the schools and the next section will demonstrate how these influence the responses made by professional staff to the perceived changes.

11.5 Responses to Inclusion: the 'macro' effect

Whereas the respondents to the question on the 'same rights to enrol' clause (section 8) in the Education Act, 1989 were very articulate on their position with regard to the effect that the legislation made to inclusive education in general, in many cases their classroom and personal experiences gave a totally different picture. To start with there appeared to be a dissipation of emotions. Secondly, a complex picture began to build from professional staff who had often initially disclaimed much knowledge of inclusion. An awareness developed on the part of the researcher of ambiguity in discussion with many staff members. The personal feelings being expressed and the teachers' professional responses appeared to be at variance. Over the period of time of the research which included the observations in the schools followed by the in-depth interviews, it was possible to understand this ambiguity in terms of school culture and leadership style. The next step was to look at the effect that integrating children with special educational or developmental needs had on the school community, the fellow students, and the teachers' management of their classrooms.

11.5.1 Perceived effects of inclusive practices. The use of the role, the smallest unit of a social structure according to the structuralist-functionalist and the reality behaviouralist schools of sociology, provided a stepping stone to understanding the interactions and relationships within a school. It was apparent that clusterings of opinions on the effect that inclusion had on the school were dependent on the role the professionals took in the school community. The boards of trustees' respondents referred to the philosophy of inclusion and the degree of success of the

school in implementing the policy. They discussed their perception of the effect on the staff they employed, to a lesser extent on the children who attended the school and the position of all parents involved in classes with inclusive children. In contrast the principals referred to their workload involved with gaining resources and the extra pressures on their staff, *after* they had discussed the schools' slow and often apprehensive start to the process of inclusion. They considered that everyone involved had been through a period of learning new skills and this included all the children in the school. Generally, the result of inclusion showed a positive outcome and considerable satisfaction where the integrated children had a physical, intellectual, sensory or learning disability, but with children who had emotional or behavioural difficulties the response was frequently restrained or negative. All the principals of the schools in this study came to inclusion with a basic attitude to the ideal of all children being admitted to the school of their parents' choice. It was obvious that principals provided the leadership role in implementing inclusion. Boards of trustees regarded the principal as the specialist and professional leader, gave support and accepted the direction that was being taken in school management. Trustee members did not become involved directly in making policy or providing guidance in this 'specialist' area. The outcome that was not envisaged and appeared to be occurring, was that the success of the school in specific areas of disability or special educational needs would indirectly lead to gaining resources, funding and Ministry support. It was becoming apparent to those involved in the school community that there was a clustering of children with similar special educational needs in specific schools. This was causing a degree of concern as principals spoke of having a higher number of children with special educational needs, of being underresourced and having "reached maximum saturation point". It was suggested that making inclusion work with a whole school approach was threatened by these conditions. A related point of concern was that it was causing some schools not to take responsibility for children with some special educational needs because there were schools close by with "appropriate facilities". Professional staff in these schools frequently commented that the responsibility of inclusion should be shared around all the schools. The policy of the Ministry of Education to direct parents and children to schools within a "reasonable" distance of the parents' domicile did not encourage in sharing this responsibility (section 7.3.3).

11.5.2 Enrolment procedures. The enrolment of children with special educational needs at a school was a major decision involving considerable thought, discussion and in many cases visits to schools by advocates and parents. Parents of children with special educational needs used their power of choice. Their reactions to their initial appointments at the schools in the study as well as other schools, provided

valuable information on how they made their final selection. The principal was the 'front' person for the school and his attitude and how he appeared to the parents was crucial in their decision to enrol their child. Body language played an enormous role in these first impressions. If the approach was welcoming and positive, the parents went on to look at facilities and discuss specific programme options. There were situations where parents had not felt 'good' about their reception and had moved on to look at other schools. If schools were gaining a reputation among parents with regard to inclusion, then word of mouth attracted more parents who considered enrolment (section 8.1.2). The involvement of parents in the school community and their interaction with professional staff was closely related to the school culture and the leadership style of the principal (section 8.1.1). Principals had their own routines of enrolment which depended largely on the type of special educational need the children presented with. Some principals felt the need to enrol and start the child in class immediately so as not to give a suggestion of procrastination, while others had a deliberate policy of requesting a set length of time to organise resources so that the child had "a smooth entry into school". The schools like Karo and Rata, which were considered by the researcher to have moved nearest to the ownership of inclusion had the closest, and according to staff and parents, most comfortable relationship with the parents. This became obvious when arranging interviews with the parents because there was an ease of availability and discussion in these schools. The outcome of the success of certain schools in implementing inclusion was that 'de facto' special schools were coming into existence and the government's manner of funding was encouraging this. The resource centres which specialised in sensory disabilities, for example hearing loss or visual impairment, had specialist teachers and advisers working on campus. The result was that schools with these centres attached 'drew in' a higher percentage of the respective disability, than schools without such facilities. It became obvious that if parents chose schools for the services they offered, then certain schools were going to have a greater number of specific disabilities. This had also occurred where expensive toilet and changing facilities had been put in place to meet the needs of 'multi-handicapped children'. The use of the 'reasonable distance' clause had seen children by-passing neighbourhood schools. Consequently, schools had started to express concern that they were having difficulty in maintaining the essence of inclusion because the classes were becoming overrepresented with children requiring special support. Both directly and indirectly, the influence of the government on decision-making was a very powerful factor in this enrolment area.

11.5.3 Perceived effect on the environment. The external preparation of the schools for the arrival of children with special educational needs was the financial

responsibility of the Ministry of Education. The delay in gaining resources such as ramps caused considerable frustration to some principals. Where boards of trustees had autonomy over the provision of facilities, as for example the provision of playground facilities and withdrawal rooms, there was concerted action and satisfaction (section 7.4.1). While boards of trustees' respondents and professional staff referred immediately to external preparation of the school to meet the needs of inclusive students, with particular emphasis on ramp building, it was the teachers who spoke of the individual difficulties they faced daily in their classrooms. To meet the specific needs of certain children three considerations were important in environmental school planning, and these were safety, independence and mobility. Teachers spoke of their frustrations regarding lack of space and the difficulty of mobility associated with historical architecture and the contextual difficulties which large classes provided (section 7.4.2). However, while all the schools in the study paid attention to these issues it was obvious that the leadership directed the responsibility associated with the provision of facilities. For example, Nikau school with its placement of responsibility on the government to provide funding for environmental changes, demonstrated its reluctance to take cognisance of the needs of some of its children.

11.5.4 Perceived effect on the ethos of the school. The positive attitude and commitment of professional staff ensured that the children with special educational needs were accepted by their peers (section 8.2.5). With appropriate support and resources, the teachers and peers gave the assistance necessary for these children to maintain a daily school presence as similar to their peers as was possible. The professional staff of four schools noted how positive the policy of inclusion had been for all pupils in their school. In the fifth school, Nikau, there was no such consensus of opinion over positive gains made to the pupils of the school and this could possibly be due to the small number of children with physical, intellectual and sensory disabilities and to the greater number of children with social, emotional and behavioural difficulties, as well as learning disorders. While the boards of trustees' respondents spoke with some reticence about the positive values of inclusion and indeed from one school, with diffidence, there was almost unanimous approval of the philosophy from the teachers who had children integrated into their classrooms. This approval did not generally apply to children who experienced emotional or behavioural difficulties. Teachers spoke of the children becoming more sensitive to the needs of others, of being more caring, of children being more comfortable and tolerant of the differences in people in general. Allowing children with educational or developmental needs to be regarded as having the same rights, emotions, and desires as any other child, had brought out the best in many children, according to the professional staff

(section 10.1). The ethos of the school was enmeshed with the personal receptivity towards inclusion of all those involved in the school community.

These were the 'macro' effects of inclusion which were discussed in the Background, Initiation and Implementation Phases of integrating children with special educational needs into the school (Chapters 7, 8 and 9). These effects showed that decision-making at the Ministry of Education level was seen as time consuming and frustrating. However, in those schools where there was a concerted effort to meet the demands of equity and where inclusion was being practised these difficulties were accepted with tolerance. The next section will summarise the 'micro' effects which schools experienced as they moved towards legitimation of the policy of inclusion.

11.6 Responses to inclusion: the 'micro' effect

The schools in the study generally demonstrated a positive attitude to the inclusion of children with special educational needs into their community. The reality of inclusion was demonstrated in the classroom as teachers achieved routines with a diverse group of children. Interest was directed at several different aspects of classroom existence which shall now be discussed. Firstly, how the decisions were made regarding class placement; secondly, what attributes either acted for or against the acceptance of the children in the school; thirdly, how did the peers respond to their classmates; and fourthly, to what degree did peer support and tutoring affect class management?

11.6.1 Classroom placement. Placement of children in their respective classes was a complex issue and in spite of good intentions in all the schools, there were problems. The number of classrooms at each level of the school structure was influential in placement decisions. If true inclusion occurred the children were placed in age appropriate classes with their peers (section 8.2.3). If the school was small, if the government was directing children to the school or if parents were choosing the school because it was developing a 'good' name for receptivity to inclusion, the classrooms were likely to become overrepresented by children in the special educational needs categories. Parents in the study expressed concern over the lack of preparation for inclusion in intermediate schools and several parents, assisted by resource and itinerant teachers, were 'searching' for appropriate placement for children who were ready to leave primary school. This involved a review of all the schools at the next educational level in the city. This lack of confidence was causing parents to delay moving their children into the next educational phase (section 8.1.3). There was evidence of a clustering of children with special educational needs in the standard 4

classes, as parents have the legal right to keep their children at primary school until age 14. The provision of specialised facilities also resulted in the gathering of children with similar disabilities in one school (section 7.3.3). The staff in the schools also recognised that children have a wide variety of needs other than those caused by disabilities, for example, social, economic, academic (which don't come into the special educational needs area) and teachers were observed managing a variety of 'needs' directed activities. There were times when in a class of 33 to 37 children there were up to six children with difficulties requiring the special and varying skills of the teacher (section 10.10).

There were positive and negative traits associated with all children in the schools, but these were more intense with many children in the special educational needs group. These attributes had a considerable effect on the acceptance of children with special educational needs into the school community. An understanding of these traits formed the basis of the teacher's management programme in the classroom.

11.6.2 The perceived effect on inclusion of individual traits. The negative traits which caused considerable difficulties in the classroom included physical and verbal violence. Lesser forms of aggression such as pinching, pushing and stealing were distressing to the peers and any child in the class could be involved, not only those who were integrated (section 10.4.1). Children reacted strongly to having their classroom routines disrupted by negative behaviour, but according to the teachers it was a fear of not knowing how to react or cope with unknown situations which worried pupils most. To this end the pupils of most classes were given counselling or had discussion sessions on how to manage unwelcome behaviour, in the supposition that an understanding of what was happening and how to deal with it would empower the students (sections 8.2.5, 10.3.4). Other less common traits which caused difficulties were: intolerance; impatience and lack of care for the rights of others; being too demanding, egocentric or too wilful. Although this behaviour was not only associated with children with special educational needs, it did appear to be more frequently associated with many of them. Appearance, in the form of general living skills was very important according to the teachers when considering acceptance, but frequently this was associated with parenting factors and caused difficulties for the schools to deal with (section 10.4.2).

If these negative traits were a hindrance to integration and acceptance, what were the positive qualities that caused many children to be satisfactorily integrated and accepted? There were personality traits of showing cheerfulness, happiness,

friendliness, warmth, a giving nature, and having the ability to socialise, converse and provide feedback to the peers (sections 10.3.1, 10.3.2). For the peer in the classroom having these personality traits made them 'leaders', to the child with special educational or developmental needs it allowed them to be just another classmate. Communication skills and the sociability of a child was important especially when it came to group work where it was important for the child to contribute something, however limited. The skill of maintaining friendships, being co-operative and friendly was very finely balanced in children with emotional and behavioural difficulties where frequently their inability to maintain peer relationships was their responsibility (section 10.4.1). For professional staff recognising the value of these qualities, being able to use them to their own and their pupils' advantage in the classroom setting went a long way to managing a happy classroom environment.

11.6.3 The response of the peers. There were several factors which encouraged acceptance and integration, and one of these was the age of enrolment. For children who commenced school at five years of age and progressed through the school with their peers, there was an added advantage of familiarity (section 10.2.1). When children had always been in the classroom and were well known, there was no uncertainty in their behaviour or reactions and everyone felt comfortable with them. It was noted as being more difficult to enter the school system later in a child's educational career, because lack of knowledge and uncertain reactions led to feelings of apprehension on the part of peers. Even though considerable background information and support was given to the peers in preparation to having a child with special educational or developmental needs in the classroom, there were times when inappropriate behaviour was directed at these children (sections 8.2.5, 10.3.4, 10.4). The helplessness of some children resulted in "mothering instincts" being aroused in the peers. Other children experienced over-protection, a limitation of choices and a minimalisation of disability as staff regarded children as "another pupil" (section 10.2.2). These difficulties became more apparent when reliever teachers were in charge of the classroom and there was limited knowledge concerning certain children (section 10.9.1). However, staff generally tried to encourage independence and show empathy. One school had introduced programmes to encourage self esteem and recognition of differences into their school programmes so that pupils practiced interactions and relationships towards all manner of people (sections 10.2.1, 10.6). During fieldwork it became noticeable that there were considerable differences in the acceptance of children by peers which were not related to disability, but were of a very individual nature. There were negative traits which acted against the acceptance of

some children (section 10.4) and positive qualities in other children which guaranteed their inclusion (section 10.3).

11.6.4 Peer support and peer tutoring. From the time the principal notified the teacher of the arrival of a child with special needs in the classroom, the teacher began preparation of herself (section 8.2.1) and the future classmates. In nearly every situation a considerable effort was made to inform the class, to give them available information and in many cases to have the parents visit the classroom and answer questions. It was felt that an informed class would demonstrate understanding and support (section 8.2.5). Principals' attitudes to informing staff on child placement were in general factual and professional, whereas teachers were more likely to express feelings and emotions concerning the arrival of a child in the classroom.

Peer support (section 10.7.1) and peer tutoring (section 10.7.2) were accepted parts of every classroom, to some degree. Peer support or a 'buddy' system was an idea fostered in classroom management but more specifically in such courses as 'Skills for Adolescence', where the skills learned were used in the everyday life of the school. By the final stages of the observational field work interest was focussed on how often peer support was used, which topics were best dealt with using this method of support and how the children were chosen to be 'buddies' (section 10.7.3). Although peer support and peer tutoring were widespread practices and professional staff had stated policies on hidden difficulties and the safeguarding of peers, no school had a written policy in use. Examples of aspects of peer association requiring vigilance included: being aware of the child being a buddy as an escape mechanism from their own work; choosing the same buddy repeatedly because of aspects of personality; or choosing the child finished first in each teaching segment. This was frequently the more academically advanced student. On rare occasions, and with parental approval, peers became part of a behaviour management programme.

As co-operative group activities, facilitating friendships, changing curricula and timetable arrangements and the redefinition of terms of disability were tossed around in the changes which ownership of inclusion demanded, it was important to take notice of two aspects of inclusion. The first was the recognition of the personality traits which pupils brought to the classroom which, according to the observations and recorded interviews from this study, were vitally important in acceptance and inclusion. The second aspect of integration was the need for teachers to acquire knowledge and confidence through staff development, contact with specialist advisers, and personal instruction in managing these pupil traits to everyone's advantage. From

these two aspects of integration arose an acknowledgment of the individuality or uniqueness of the children in the school.

The ideology of inclusion affected the classroom and its pupils, the school community and the culture it developed, and the documents which conveyed the essence of the institution to those outside. The school community, the social structure in which inclusion takes place required exploration. To do this the role was used as a basic unit to understand the interactions, expectations and relationships.

11.7 The Network of Role Expectations

During the period spent observing in schools it became obvious that professional staff held considerable expectations of each other from collegial, administrative, emotional and practical viewpoints. The 'significant others' in respect of children with special educational needs included: boards of trustees' members; principals; teachers; teachers aides; and parents. The role incumbents of each of these positions talked about their expectations of each other and indicated that the meeting of these role expectations was crucial for inclusion. Even when adequate resources and facilities were in place, it was the meeting of role expectations and particularly those involved in emotional and personal support which made the difference between satisfaction and stress.

11.7.1 The roles of 'significant others'. The essence of the role expectations was support. Each role incumbent looked to the others for support in the form of recognition of what their job entailed, awareness of the tasks they were performing and in many situations a personal knowledge of what their problems were. It was this matrix of personal awareness and responsibility which provided the basis on which inclusion could develop.

According to the role respondents they had specific tasks and expectations in the school community. The boards of trustees' members were the most remote from the inclusive child and they considered their role limited with respect to children with special educational needs. Their role was one of supporting the principals in a partnership, and the teachers in any project or idea they may have.

The principal was regarded as the person in the school with 'specialist' knowledge in management and education. The responsibility placed on the principal with regard to children with special educational needs was considerable and ranged from gaining resources, listening to problems, finding solutions, being the expert, and providing

direction. The principal was expected to liaise with parents, the special advisers, the Ministry of Education and the numerous extra people inclusion brought into the school. The emphasis was on personal understanding and awareness. For example, having the principal and the trustee members aware of how the teachers were managing in the classroom was important for satisfactory inclusive practices. In the two schools which were practicing inclusion confidently, the role expectation included having personal knowledge of the children. Teachers expected to have total support, both emotionally and with resources such as discretionary hours. The ability of the principal to acknowledge and appreciate the teachers' work with their children with special needs was vital. This has been referred to as pastoral care in this thesis and it underpins every aspect of inclusion. The visible presence of the principal in the classrooms and grounds of the school was appreciated as a form of support.

The expectations of teachers of each other was high in the inclusive situation and involved shared responsibility, helping to work through difficulties, providing information being sensitive to one another's situations. Collegiality was a vital part of the school culture where inclusion was practised confidently. An awareness of safety issues for teachers and pupils was an essential part of school management. There was ample evidence that if the staff were nurtured in their role of teachers of inclusive children, then they in turn would develop a climate in their classroom favourable to inclusion. These views are shared by Kauffman (1993), who states that successful moral, intellectual and social development of children will occur only when these considerations are developed in the teachers who are instilling them in their schools.

Support which has been defined variously as encouragement, assistance and shared responsibility, was also a parental concern. When parental support was absent the professional staff expressed deep feelings concerning inclusive practices in their classroom, especially if they were attempting to meet the needs of emotionally or behaviourally disturbed children. The schools where parents were honestly involved with the programme development and management had a professional staff who felt positively about inclusion. Again this verified the importance of shared responsibility for successful inclusion. There was one group of staff members who received unanimous recognition for their contribution and responsibility to inclusion and they were the teachers aides.

11.7.2 The teacher aide: the role essential to inclusion. The role of the teacher aide was crucial in successful inclusion (section 9.1.5). In certain situations schools utilised trained teachers as teachers aides, at teachers aides' remuneration.

However, whoever provided the assistance was not an issue to the teachers because if they felt completely supported by the presence of another adult, trained or untrained they had only positive comments about inclusion (section 9.1.3). As the allocation of discretionary hours varied from school to school, so did the manner in which schools used the teacher aide as a support person. Flexibility in the use of these staff members was necessary because of the small number in each school and the complexity of the demands made on them. The use of the teacher aide varied from child to child, and school to school as she moved from an appointment system, to group supervision, to 'free ranging' or as an extra person in the classroom. Teachers valued the use of teachers aides to supervise the general class doing prearranged work, while they worked with the child with special educational needs on specific tasks. In general, the type of disability of the child and the form the discretionary funding took, determined the style of assistance given. Again, expectations indicated that teachers aides were required to meet the needs of different students with their differing special educational needs. Some students required "strict supervision" to keep them on task, while others required "mothering" (section 9.1.5). Put in the context of a school employing one person to meet the requirements of several children, that untrained person required skills to meet very specific needs. Therefore, while the funding was for untrained people, the job required of them was sometimes tedious, always demanding and requiring considerable skill. As a result professional staff considered them grossly underpaid.

The school management varied widely in its responsibility towards training teachers aides. The specialist adviser spoke of the frustration of training people to a job and then having them leave with a poor effect on the child, teacher and school, however, the stability of employment of teachers aides during this research was almost total. One school took responsibility for their teachers aides' training and considerable flair was shown in the way these employees supported teachers in the classroom. Training or staff development in the area of children with special educational needs for both teachers aides and teachers had been limited, and schools had developed their own manner of coping with the difficulty.

11.7.3 Role expectations: shared and personal. The exploration of the roles of those persons in the school community with an input into the support of children with special educational needs and inclusion, showed the importance of the network of support systems which were expected. If these expectations were met in a manner which provided satisfaction for all concerned, inclusion was not only accepted, but was a positive happening. However, if those involved with inclusion felt

alone with the responsibility of certain children, lacked confidence in managing the situations that confronted them and were pressured with time demands, large class sizes or other contextual difficulties, inclusion would be criticised. This demonstrated that inclusion as educational change was considered a personal undertaking, which was considerably influenced by funding issues and practical support. No special consideration was given to the time some teachers put into meeting the needs of some of the children. A principal stated, there was "nothing in their staffing schedules to give them any relief or create additional time". The result was that inclusion proved to be both satisfying and stressful to professional staff. These two aspects of inclusion are presented in Table 11.1 and shall now be discussed.

11.8 The Satisfying and Stressful Aspects of Inclusion

All those who took part in this study accepted that inclusion had caused a marked effect on the school culture. A large group of professionals took the concept further and discussed the effect it had on their work. This information was presented in the Maintenance Phase of the process of change in Chapter 10.

The whole school approach to children with special educational and developmental needs has demonstrated that when inclusion becomes ingrained in the school culture, with the leadership and total involvement of the principal, it can involve a very satisfying and positive change. Particular events which professional staff referred to in their interviews are presented in Table 11.1 and are listed according to the frequency with which they were mentioned. Inclusion has directly affected the schools and their staff, but this effect was directly related to the particular special educational need the children experienced. Regardless of the educational or developmental needs, if there was adequate support from ancillary staff the experience was generally fulfilling and satisfying. However, if the teachers were managing children with emotional or behavioural problems in their classrooms, even with substantial support they were likely to express feelings of stress, pressure and to criticise the situation they found themselves in. Behavioural incidents, student confrontations, attendance problems and a lack of discipline on the part of pupils provided situations of considerable stress for teachers. The teacher's attitude to inclusion was also coloured by the number of children in the class and more particularly, by the number who experienced educational difficulties in the classroom. Time demands were a major issue with all the professional staff, some of whom found difficulty in maintaining classroom routine with 33 to 37 children including several with special educational needs. Some resented the time spent with children in managing incidents, while others felt pressured by

SATISFYING	STRESSFUL
1. Whole school approach to disability - school culture - leadership of principal	1. Time demands - classroom routine - no 'release time' to prepare programmes or resources - management of incidents
2. Peers -caring attitudes - supportive attitudes	2. Large class size
3. Student success - helping individual students to progress - sudden understanding - pride in their own achievements	3. Ministry directives - the Act - perceived lack of policy - changing policy - frequent notifications that meant little or no change in organisation
4. Individual feedback from children with special needs - thanks / gratitude - involvement / friendship - immediate response	4. Lack of classroom support - limited teacher aide assistance - withdrawal of support - cutting or reduction of discretionary hours
5. Knowledge that staff were being successful in influencing the life of the children with special needs	5. Space - small classroooms - 'historic' architecture - need for small alterations to interior of school, e.g. self closing doors, small steps etc.
6. Collegiality in school - in a general way in association with all pupils - in a specific way to children with special needs	6. Lack of parental support - negative attitude of parents - little or no contact with school - no feedback on progress
7. Support of specialised staff - itinerant, resource, special teacher - staff from the Guidance Unit or SES on an 'intimate' or personal basis	7. Lack of motivation, progress, or negative attitudes on part of student
8. Positive feedback from parents as a result of:- - their support - children's progress and support	8. Behavioural incidents - student confrontations - lack of discipline - attendance problems
9. Extracurricula activities - camps, sports etc,	

Table 11.1 **Satisfying and stressful aspects of inclusion**

having no 'release time' to prepare programmes or resources for such a diverse group of students. The withdrawal of support or changes in discretionary hours was almost seen as a betrayal of trust. When it was associated with the changing policies and the assumed lack of direction on inclusion which followed the passage of the Education Act, 1989, it aroused a variety of negative feelings. Particularly irritating were the frequent notifications, Ministry directives and news items which appeared in newsletters and professional journals, which made little difference to the situation the schools found themselves dealing with (section 9.2.3). Other difficulies, besides time demands and class sizes, were the environmental changes that were required to be made. Some, like ramps' were easy although time consuming to achieve. Managing wheelchairs and children with crutches or callipers in large classes in restricted space or 'historic architecture' were difficult or frustrating. The style of learning now in practice meant that some classrooms were not designed for inclusion or developmental style programmes where there was considerable movement to gather resources, equipment and co-operative group consultation. Limited staff development or no training for teachers in developing special programmes frustrated teachers, as did also the limited support given by some parents. The extent of parental support given to school staff appeared to be related to the specific needs of the students, with the least school contact being made by parents of children who experienced emotional or behavioural problems and the most support coming from the parents of youngsters with multiple disabilities. These negative or stressful aspects of inclusion were generally overridden by the satisfying aspects. Teachers and principals spoke warmly of the supportive and caring attitudes they had seen develop in their pupils towards one another. Teachers and teachers aides felt confident in the knowledge that they had in some way been able to influence the lives of some of the children. They had witnessed academic and social success and had assisted in developing self esteem, confidence and pride in children's individual achievements. Some professional staff had experienced the pleasure of friendship and involvement with some of their integrated students, had received thanks and gratitude as well as immediate spontaneous responses. As schools developed in their understanding of inclusion, so had staff relationships and interactions progressed on a personal level. For the schools who had accepted ownership of inclusion, collegiality had spread to staff of outside agencies and support on a more intimate and personal level was bringing satisfaction and confidence. Where there was a reticence to accept inclusion, such contact was still on a consultation level and remained formal.

The 'bottom line' to successful inclusion as overwhelmingly recorded by all the schools, was the gaining of resources usually in the form of discretionary hours for

teacher aide support. The definition of resources generally meant "people resources", because according to a unanimous response, such support was essential for inclusion to occur in a genuine manner. The final test on ownership of inclusion by the schools is made at this personal level.

11.9 Resources, Ownership and Inclusion

The principals and teachers of all the schools in this study directly or indirectly referred to the vital importance of gaining resources for successful inclusion. A very large group of these professionals also spoke with the realisation that resources were limited. However, another sizeable group considered that if the government wanted the policy of inclusion to be implemented, they should provide the funding. At this point it must be accepted that in the minds of certain professionals a relationship existed between the inclusion of children and their anticipated resources. This was an equity issue and was reflected in how well supported in the school community these children were. Another point which became obvious during the field work observations was that the type of impairment strongly influenced the amount of support some children received. Although this may appear to be an assumption which was accepted by most professionals in this study, there was a need to consider resource allocation from another angle. Three of the schools were considered by the researcher to be moving towards successful inclusion, indeed may be able to claim ownership. One school, Karo, demonstrated a degree of comfort with the whole process and the reasons for this have been detailed as the leadership, school culture and the recognition of the individuality of all children in the school. This allowed for considerable lateral thinking in the manner in which limited resources were used. However, many of the children integrated at this school had considerable support and resources to the point that a resident itinerant teacher was present at all times to assist the staff in all areas of special educational needs. The principal admitted that with the parents' permission, he used creative thinking in the use of the allotted discretionary hours, so that small group supervision for longer periods of the school day was possible. It allowed teachers aides to spend time facilitating interactions between peers, assisting in small group activities, with physical education and most importantly, with circulating in an informal manner to be an aid to any child who needed help. The result was that because of the positive and caring attitude being presented to its community, parents were bringing their children for enrolment in this school. This school was receiving adequate support which was being carefully managed to gain maximum benefit for the children. However, the staff felt apprehensive that their success might alter the ethos of the school that inclusion had

created. This was further accentuated by the acquisition of extensive toilet and changing facilities. It was obvious that the Ministry of Education would desire to make maximum use of these facilities and indeed was using the 'reasonable distance' statement to do so.

Although Miro and Rata schools had followed a similar path towards the integration of children, with support provided by the leadership style and the school culture providing the background for inclusion to take place, there were subtle differences which were discernible during the observation period. These differences can be seen through an understanding of the structure of the school. The resource unit on the grounds of Miro provided support for families and their children from the time of diagnosis. This familiarity meant that it was highly probable that the population of children it served would be enrolled at the school. Again this meant that the school had a higher proportion of children with similar impairments and a well trained staff to attend to the educational requirements of these children. The result was an emphasis on one form of disability, which took precedence over any other associated impairment a child might have. Although the effect was limited there did appear to be levels of disability acceptance with intellectual impairment being minimalised in favour of a physical disability. It was not the aim of this research to follow this avenue of disability sociology, so whether this was a preferential occurrence or whether it was because funding was more easily available for children who had a "reliably identifiable physical" disability was not discerned. The researcher considered there was an emphasis on the latter. A political correctness was observed in the manner in which staff referred to their children with special educational and developmental needs as 'just another pupil" which did not appear to sit comfortably with the inclusion process and the ownership the school was displaying. In contrast, Rata school was experiencing the effects of integrating children with a variety of disabilities. The leadership of the principal led the staff to totally support inclusion in reality but the staff interviews revealed some doubts. This could possibly be explained by the catchment area which the school community served which resulted in a higher proportion of children with learning problems and with emotional and behavioural difficulties. Whereas Miro school had a management committee and specific staff to attend to the organisation requirements of their children, Rata had appointed a staff member to this position. It was clearly observable throughout the study that unless the person who held this job was motivated, interested, and clearly visible as a support person, teachers considered that they were alone with their responsibilities. Although the school culture and leadership in Rata school were working towards legitimating the philosophy of inclusion, it was observable during fieldwork that there were omissions

in communication and collegiality which led to occasional staff frustration. The main point of interest was that the majority of children in Rata school had been affected by the cutting of discretionary hours and were now placed in the category of having "learning or social difficulties". This had left the school with the responsibility for many children who were unsupported in the principal's view. He expressed his frustration at this during field work, when he stated "I put in all those hours of work for Goddamn all return". The children who had obvious physical disabilities were adequately supported, totally integrated and had to be methodically searched for to be found in the playground. During fieldwork observations, both Miro and Rata schools had children who were either 'invisible' or spending unproductive time in the classroom. These two schools illustrated one aspect of inclusion which was difficult to define. How do you establish what successful inclusion is considered to be? Is inclusion successful if the children are accepted and totally involved in the school activities? Is there a measurement placed on academic success or even success within the limits of the IEP? Is there a category of success for the teachers, teachers aides, parents and other associated 'significant others'? Successful inclusion has been accepted in this thesis as more than physical placement. When relating the aspects of change involved in inclusion to the separate schools in this study, these aspects of proposed successful inclusion associated with the different ways the schools have approached the ideology, show that the process is indeed multi-dimensional.

The catchment area of Nikau school appeared to be a determining factor in the manner in which the climate of the school culture was cultivated. Like Rata school it was an area with a widely disparate population both ethnically and socio-economically. The leadership of the school responded to the needs of the community, with an emphasis being placed on correcting learning difficulties and the frequently associated emotional and behavioural problems. Therefore emphasis had been placed on attending to a broad selection of special social and educational needs and children with physical, sensory or intellectual disabilities were in the minority. The result was that the school provided a very specific form of remedial education for children who had severe learning disabilities. As many of these children had experienced social welfare, police, and court intervention and the school leadership had successfully met extremely difficult needs, referrals came from outside agencies and other schools. Again this made for a distinctive population and a manner of providing assistance to the children which was peculiar to the school. The enrolment of children with physical, intellectual and sensory disabilities was limited and if programmes required special facilities or resources, minimal encouragement was given for enrolment to take place. Generally, the school did not appear to be comfortable with disability. Three reasons possibly

account for this: firstly, the attitude towards the government and the lack of consultation and interference in the early days of charter development; secondly, because of deep feelings concerning the limited government funding and the reduction or removal of discretionary hours from many of the children regarded as having 'special needs' in the school; and thirdly, the schools' high regard for academic and sporting achievement. The presentation of the school to the community it served was based on pride of achievement and a commitment to excellence. The school also used its komatua and maori community effectively in gaining support for some of its more troubled youngsters. The professional staff, however, were concerned over some of the children they had integrated into their rooms, as they had insufficient time to give them assistance with work, they felt the burden of responsibility personally, and although the school organisation used syndicates, the collegial support was sporadic. Communication regarding children with special educational needs and the governmental policy changes appeared to be extremely limited and did not to filter down to the classroom. A staff member was responsible for the children with special educational and developmental needs in the school, but the position changed hands during the observation period. The former incumbent was extremely efficient in meeting the management needs of teachers and children, but when the job passed on to a teaching member of staff, without time or innovative ideas, the support ground to a halt. This problem of the limitations of designation and consultancy was recognised by Jeffs (in Barton, 1988) when he stated that "assigning responsibility has no value in itself, unless the teacher to whom responsibility is assigned exercises a strong lead in planning and carrying out programmes" (p.63). Nikau school provided the most vivid examples of the multiple support from various agencies which some children and their families experienced. Demonstrated as well was the massive funding support some children received to enable them to stay in the mainstream with major emotional and behavioural difficulties. This was one school which illustrated Fullan's comment that "educational change is technically simple and socially complex" (1991, p.65). Miro, Nikau and Rata schools also had children enrolled who caused considerable concern to professional staff. The principals considered this area of emotional and behavioural disability to be underresourced and an unrecognised element in inclusion.

Finally, Titoki provided a different approach to inclusion. With a special class and a special unit on campus, as well as their children with discretionary hours, this small school had a constant reminder of difference, acceptance and integration. The principal worked avidly for inclusion with responsibility for the children being shared, collegiality being present, and communication of information being constant. Despite the school culture including all the beliefs, values and norms required to ensure

ownership of inclusion, there still remained a indefinable gap. Perhaps it was the wide degree of difference in the children in the special unit, who in spite of various efforts to provide social and academic interactions still remained apart. There had been considerable preparation of the peers in this school, but the interest had dropped away after a period of time because the children could not respond. Therefore, according to a 'special' staff member, the value of the children's presence was to the peers and not to the children in the unit. The unit's staff had discussed the efforts they made to maintain personal contact on a daily basis because they were aware how easy it was to drift into 'locational segregation'. There should, however, be recognition that Titoki provided an educational setting for a group of children who could not be supported in the 'mainstream' classrooms. An understanding of the limited choice some parents would experience if the presence of such units was limited must be kept in mind. Again in this school the complexity of inclusion was demonstrated.

The claims to ownership which can be made on the part of the schools illustrate two comments made by Fullan on educational change. Firstly, that "change is difficult because it is riddled with dilemmas, ambiguities and paradoxes" and secondly, that the researcher has attempted to respect the change process which in Fullan's terms means "seeking common patterns while being prepared for uniqueness" (1991, p.350).

11.10 Summary of Findings

This thesis framework was based on evolving change, which commenced with the school considering the suitability of its environment for children with special needs and ended with the children working alongside their peers in the classroom, with or without resource personnel and support. Each child followed this same path with an acknowledgment that along the way there could be revisits to former phases and that once inclusion was achieved, numerous events may cause individual diversions. These were the individual requirements which demanded flexibility and each enrolment was regarded as a unique event for the child with special educational needs in any school community.

11.10.1 School charters and policies. The events which occurred in the Background Phase of the thesis framework referred to the preparation of the governance issues of inclusion, in school charters and policies. This phase witnessed how the schools addressed equity and inclusion while presenting the school culture to the community it served. Those schools who sought to 'own' their charters recognised the individuality of all children and set the foundations for inclusive practices. The

charter framework formed the basis for most school charter preparation and the schools' recognition of individuality was generally left until policies were written. The personal reaction against the power-coercive strategies (Chin and Benne, 1964) was apparent in school charter preparation and indeed throughout any discussion with regard to inclusion and government policies. This thread of dissonance remained throughout the entire study. It can be claimed that children with special educational needs have been done a disservice because the implementation of a change vital to their future well being has by association, become embroiled in the economics of a major educational change. It was this economic aspect of inclusion which gave rise to the next finding.

11.10.2 Ambivalence to mainstreaming. Although all those involved with inclusion agreed on the philosophy, there was considerable ambivalence in the responses to various aspects of the process. This attitude arose in all four phases of the process of change (Figure 6.1). The 'rights' of the children to education were acknowledged, but fears and concerns were also expressed over the rights of peers, teachers and the associated problems of time usage, class sizes, and lack of training. Therefore although inclusion was accepted as an ideal it appeared that in many situations and with many staff, the acceptance of children with special needs were seen as an additional factor in the classroom. These children provided extra stress and extra work within a surrounding of acceptance based on what was known, and what was feared. As in the research of Ward et al., (1987) many professional staff viewed inclusion from the amount of extra stress and extracurricular support they would need to provide to maintain the children in the classroom. The solution to all these influences was the provision of sufficient resources. The manner in which the government dealt with the allocation of limited resources caused frustration and apprehension.

11.10.3 De facto 'special' schools. Because of the manner of funding resource centres and directing parents with their children to schools with appropriate facilities within a 'reasonable' distance from their home, de facto 'special' schools appeared to be arising. Resource centres in sensory disabilities, i.e. hearing loss and visual impairment had the specialist teachers and advisers, and if the schools were close by, tended to 'draw in' a high percentage of children with the respective impairment. This event was noted in both the Initiation Phase and the Maintenance Phase as the clustering of children with specific special educational needs occurred. The effect was that children by-passed their neighbourhood schools, enrolled and were placed in the classrooms in higher than average numbers. Therefore, although

technically inclusion occurred it was obvious that if parents chose schools for the services they offered certain schools were going to have a greater number of children with specific disabilities. As a result schools were starting to express concern that they were having difficulty in maintaining the essence of inclusion because their classes were reaching 'saturation' point with the number of children being placed there.

11.10.4 Saturation of classes with children with special educational needs. Placement of children in their respective classes was a complex issue and saturation can occur in spite of everyone's good intentions. The Initiation Phase and the Maintenance Phase indicated the influencing factors in this event. They were firstly, the number of classrooms at each level of the school structure. If true inclusion was to be achieved children were required to be placed in age appropriate classes with their peers. If the school was small and clustering was occurring the classrooms would become crowded (section 11.9.3). Secondly, parental concern over advancing in the educational stream caused some parents to hold their children back in inclusive schools instead of advancing to the next stage. This clustering occurred at the Standard 4 level. In addition, as children have a wide variety of 'special' needs at different stages of their lives, there may be several children who did not qualify for discretionary hours or IEPs but who were also in need of special attention from the classroom teacher.

11.10.5 Enrolment and placement. In the Initiation Phase the role of the principal as the 'front' person for the school was noted (section 8.1). The principals' presentation of self and school to the parents was crucial in their decision to enrol their child at the school. First impressions of the school and the recognition of negative body language were reported by parents, as a determining factor in seeking placement in another school. Parents explained how certain schools "did not feel good" to them while other schools gathered in new recruits by "word of mouth". Parents made their choice of school by gathering information, visiting the school and 'interviewing' the appropriate professional staff. This accounted for some schools receiving an above average number of children with special educational needs. Principals had their routine pattern of enrolment procedure which depended very much on the special educational need of the child. Some principals enrolled and placed the children immediately so as not to appear to procrastinate, while others requested a set amount of time to organise resources, notify the teacher and allow for the preparation of all persons concerned, including the peers. It was considered that an informed class would demonstrate understanding, acceptance and support. While the principals expected the teachers' professionalism to enable them to meet any demands made on them, the teachers'

response to learning that they were to have a child with special educational needs in their class frequently showed concern, associated with a range of expressed feelings. A similar pattern of responses was shown by Ward et al., (1987) in their research. The classroom peers were an essential element in the successful inclusion of children with special educational needs.

11.10.6 The role of the peers. Positive and negative traits were observed which encouraged and assisted acceptance or acted against successful inclusion. These were seen in action during fieldwork and are included in the Maintenance Phase of the change process when classroom management and routines were in practice. Two aspects of acceptance were found:, those responsive to community influences and the effect of upbringing on the children prior to enrolment, and those which the school directly encouraged and used. The latter aspect of acceptance included peer support and peer tutoring and was recognised as a way for teachers to manage the diversity of children's educational needs. These practices were in use in all the schools and although there was no written policy, there was considerable enacted and spoken policy.

It was observed that children with emotional and behavioural problems caused considerable concern through their reactions with and interruptions of their peers.

11.10.7 Children with emotional and behavioural problems. This group of children provided the major concern to all professionals in this study and their presence was noted in all four phases of the change process. They negatively influenced the inclusive process by disrupting classes, caused teacher stress, affected peers in many aspects of classroom routine and caused a limited number of parents to move their children elsewhere. Support systems included the large blocks of discretionary hours these children required to keep them in the regular classroom and the numerous resource people their presence entailed. These children were considered the top priority group whose needs required addressing.

11.10.8 School culture. Five parameters of the school culture were investigated. These included collegiality, communication, staff development, contact with outside agencies and gaining resources. These aspects of inclusion were discussed in the Implementation Phase and a definite relationship was found between these five factors. Schools who were considered to be high in their legitimation of inclusion also had: strong collegiality; competent communication practices which left their staff informed and relaxed about changes; placed emphasis on personal staff

development as being the schools' responsibility; and experienced regular and close contact with specialist advice personnel. These same schools experienced clustering of children with specific physical or sensory impairments and were well resourced to support these children. Having specialist staff on campus added to the security and confidence of all the professional staff in these schools. The roles of two professional groups, the principals and the teachers aides, were given considerable importance in the practice of inclusion.

11.10.9 Leadership and support personnel. The use of the role as a unit to be examined enabled the interactions and relationships within the schools to be teased out. In doing so the personal aspects of inclusion and the decision-making it involved were uncovered.

The leadership provided by the principal was vital to the inclusive practices found in action in the school culture. The expectations of this position were detailed in the Implementation Phase of the change process. They were responsible for governance and management skills which covered a wide field of expertise but the pastoral care they gave the professional staff in the school was one of the less obvious, but incredibly valuable aspects of the job. Being visible in the school community and therefore easily approached by pupils and staff was important. While the principal set the patterns of expectations which would encourage inclusion to exist, if not flourish, the teachers aides provided the support without which many teachers considered they could not function. The responsibility for caring and assistance with education and socialisation, for a diverse group of children, was considerable for a person who had little specific training but usually wide life experience. An interesting point was that many of the professional staff imbued the teacher aide with greater experience and knowledge of the children with special educational needs, than they themselves had. It was interesting that in many situations one person, the teacher aide, was responsible for meeting this complex set of demands, yet this one person was receiving renumeration considered inadequate by most professional staff. This study has shown the teacher aide position to be relativley stable, but discussion with a special advisor revealed concern that this position was less stable elsewhere.

11.10.10 Resources, funding and discretionary hours. All those involved in this study at some time recognised how vital funding and resources were to inclusion. The importance of this aspect of inclusion was undeniable, but so was the need to stand back and separate the economics from the philosophy of inclusion. This enabled those involved to consider whether the individual child *was* paramount

or whether a 'child plus resources' outlook existed. It appeared that equity issues were considered the financial responsibility of the government. This study showed that considerable energy was directed at the perceived inadequate support, with the emphasis moving from the specific children to a political impasse. This occurred as the provision of services became associated with the government, providing funding. From the reports of the parents and one principal, the schools who were not sharing the responsibility and accepting the children with special educational needs were viewing inclusion as pupils being 'added on' to the classroom. This is not inclusion. Hence, at this stage it was possible to suggest that the government's method of allocating resources acted against inclusive practices. Therefore if inclusion is to survive in the manner which has been seen to exist in some schools and if they are to integrate children into their community, the equitable allocation of resources which the professional staff consider are the schools' right, remains a priority to be addressed. Where the professional staff considered they had the resources which supported the child with special needs in their room so as to not place pressure on their classroom routine, there was total acceptance of inclusion.

All five schools in their own ways were making the journey to inclusion but as Fullan explained, "true ownership is not something that occurs magically at the beginning but rather something that comes out of the end of a successful change process" (p.92). Taking this path with the professional staff of the schools, the children and their peers, together with the parents and various specialist personnel has been an interesting experience. Like many journeys when one comes to the end one realises how much one has missed, not fully understood or wishes to revisit. The next section refers to future research which would further assist in the understanding of the process of inclusion.

11.11 Future Research

During the course of this study there have been times when questions were asked of the researcher, which were either not part of the brief or for which there were insufficient participants, episodes or occurrences to place in the 'pattern'. The main query was "where to from here"? This was obviously worrying teachers and the parents of some of the children. One professional referred to the "over handled" children who were going through the primary schools. The schools in this study were leading a group of children through the education system where they were experiencing equity (or the nearest attempt to it), learning self esteem, confidence, acceptance and success. Staff made many remarks about taking their pupils out to

activities with other schools and finding that there were different levels of acceptance, understanding and responses. Some teachers felt they and the children were lucky to be in such a secure environment. In view of the uncertainties of the development of inclusive practices a number of points suggest areas for further research.

Firstly, what do we know about the progression to the next stage of the education system? How prepared are the intermediate schools to accept these children who have been treated as mates by their peers? At intermediate school there is a re-allocation of pupils, as neighbourhood primary schools act as contributing schools to other areas. For the first time many of the children will be alongside children they do not know and who may not be as accepting as their primary peers. Also, for the first time classes will start to be influenced by a subject curriculum which may demand separate classes. For many of these children who have socially progressed alongside their peers in age appropriate education, what do we know of their feelings and the outcomes of being placed in separate classes with no 'home' room for certain periods of the school day? This effect will presumably become more marked as secondary school is reached. An additional factor to be understood is the adolescent stage of development, when being different can be a very painful event. As parents have chosen to give their children extra time in the senior level at the primary schools in this study and have expressed their concern about moving to another school, it is apparent that there are considerable feelings of uncertainty. There is no information on what effect inclusion has had on the quality of life of many of these children outside school. Do the lessons learned in school by the peers and the children experiencing the educational and developmental needs, spill over into the community out of school time? Have the educational changes which have occurred provided the basis for a whole life experience, or will the child have a window on life while in the midst of a school community which cares? To answer these questions, there is the need for a longitudinal research programme to be established to provide a long term understanding of the journey these children will take. To understand the pitfalls and pinnacles of this journey may prove personally and financially valuable to everyone concerned.

Secondly, overseas research has shown that teachers are more reluctant to 'mainstream' children when they enter senior school where separate classes and selected topics are required to meet curriculum demands. Research has indicated that the push for academic excellence, achievement and raising academic standards does not bode well for minority groups and in particular children who are in special education (Dimmock and Bain, 1991, Bines, 1993). With the introduction of the National Education Goals of high standards of achievement, equality of educational

opportunity, and success in learning, will the boards of trustees want to take on the responsibility of children who have very specific needs? The dilemmas facing the United Kingdom with regard to the introduction of the national curriculum have been detailed by Bowe et al. (1992). Is it possible to follow a whole school approach to inclusion which requires changes to curriculum planning, timetable organisation, cooperative learning *and* at the same time follow the legal requirements of the Education Act, 1989? It may be that the advance that has been made with respect to inclusion could be undermined by the demands of opposing reasoning. These developments require some acknowledgment by those in decision-making positions.

Thirdly, the school management observed in this research all used peer support and peer tutoring as part of the classroom routine. None of the schools had a written policy concerning this event, although there were many spoken and enacted decisions regarding its use. The main comment was an awareness of the needs of the peers so that their work would not be interrupted or curtailed. Peer support and tutoring was seen to be widespread and an integral part of the inclusion process. There were many reasons for its use and how the peers were chosen. Often the children selected were those who had finished their work first and this often meant the more academically able children. Should these children have been receiving attention themselves to extend their learning? There is a need to understand more fully the mechanism of this very useful tool for learning and support.

Fourthly, although the occasions were limited, there were changes in the behaviour patterns of children with special educational needs when reliever teachers were required to take the class. Observations of taking no notice or not speaking to such a child in the entire school day were made, or asking the peer next to the child questions regarding that child. Little is known about the role of the reliever teacher in general, and even less on the reaction to accepting a class with a child who has a special educational need in it. There is even less known about the difficulties schools face when the teacher aide, specific to certain children, is absent for any reason. Do the schools experience difficulty in finding short term, reliever teachers aides for these children?

Fifthly, the key to inclusion was the presence of the teacher aide to give physical care and support, educational instruction and friendship. Teachers stated that they could not manage without such a resource and yet little is known about these important people. This research found that except for trained teachers doing teacher aide jobs, they had little training specific to education. They were mothers, first aid officers, dental

nurses, medical nurses but generally from a 'caring' profession and usually had worked with children in the past. Although the relationship was obviously an important one for the teachers, little is known about the 'hows and whys' of deployment, why the position was very stable in some schools, whereas in other schools children had frequent changes of possibly the most important person outside their home. What effect did the constant change of personnel have on these children? What was the factor which led to some principals using their teachers aides in ways which benefitted many and showed lateral thinking, while others were kept in a narrow pattern of activities. This position is vital to inclusion and we have limited knowledge of the incumbents.

Sixthly, the schools used both resource rooms and teacher aide assistance in the classrooms to meet the requirements of the IEPs and the discretionary hours. Research is indicating that both approaches have value for children with special educational needs and it is important to know why one venue is selected over another. Rich and Ross (1991) in their research indicate that 1:1 tuition in the classroom may meet the social requirements of a child, while the resource room is more appropriate for academic advancement. They consider it is important to understand how these two approaches serve children differently and to use them accordingly. Little is known of the impact of chronological age on the use of these venues or on the different effects the type of special educational need has on this preference. Is the choice a management decision rather than one driven by the individual children's needs and what are the factors that need to be taken into account? Kauffman (1993) makes very pertinent points on the need to keep the place where tuition is given in perspective, because there are many alternative ways of meeting the special needs of children other than in the classroom. This has been demonstrated in this thesis where the 'invisible' children who are educated in the mainstream of education found their difficulties minimalised and remedial assistance diluted or denied.

There are many aspects of inclusion which could be well served by observation and careful listening. In the course of this study there were occasions when instinctive reactions occurred, which should be recorded but there have not been sufficient bases for them to be placed in the context of the results. These are recorded in the epilogue.

Chapter Twelve

Epilogue

12.0 Epilogue

The perception of change and the change process with regard to the inclusion of children with special educational and developmental needs in regular schools, has been studied using an ethnographic method of research. Following extended observation periods in five schools, interview schedules were developed to increase knowledge and to affirm certain findings. A framework for this thesis was devised using educational theorists on the change process such as Etzioni, Chin, Benne, and Fullan. The premise was made that although legislation had acted as an agent for social change, the use of a power-coercive strategy for change had profound repercussions for inclusion. The schools had met this state using innovations with both common patterns and uniqueness. Decision-making was not solely the responsibility of those in authority and power, but was made at several levels in the school community. The leadership in the schools was vital to the change and demonstrated the use of both empirical-rational and normative-re-educative strategies (Chin and Benne, 1964).

The use of the role, the smallest unit of the social structure from the structuralist-functionalist school, allowed for some unravelling of the complexity of the interactions which occurred in the schools between principals, teachers, ancillary staff, parents and specialist advisers from outside agencies. The main detraction from the systems paradigm is the fact that it is static, and it was the writings of Marx, Weber and C.Wright Mills that added the flesh of the values and ideas of society to the model. From the exploration of the philosophy of inclusion came the recognition that there was a gap between the legislation, the policy and the reality. The power-coercive strategy of change which has been used caused alienation, and the lack of consultation in decision-making denied voice to those who should have been personally involved in the norms of democratic change. However, those responsible for the implementation of inclusion made decisions on how they would enact the policy within their school community. Fullan (1991) stated that "the implementation of policy makes further policy" (p.92), and so it has been with some written policy being developed, but greater amounts of enacted and stated policy forming the basis of the change. The result was that when viewed in action in the classroom, inclusion proved to be a deeply personal experience for all those involved in the change.

At this point it is useful to retrack some steps to the Draft Review, 1987 and refer to the proposed plan of action for special education in the future. The review committee outlined three directions that the education of children with special needs should take. These included: continuing to meet the needs in the mainstream; resources being based

on individual assessment; and having a co-operative enterprise with the community, teachers, parents and students as co-operating partners. The review committee saw the dismantling of much of the special education framework which paralleled the regular education system and the inclusion of these children in the 'mainstream' of education. The staff who had been involved in special education would support the regular teacher in the classroom and the supposedly more efficient team would tailor programmes for individual students. An emphasis was placed on the role of the principal in implementing these changes and the need for full support of regular teachers. These approaches to the change in education provision have been achieved to varying degrees but there have been omissions from the Draft Review's ideals. The expression of care at not ordering changes has become inveigled with the decision-making at Ministry of Education level with results that this thesis has reported. The public education campaign regarded as an essential prerequisite for the development of inclusion because "without the support of society as a whole, the necessary resources will not be provided" (Department of Education, 1987a, p. 93), never took place. Much depended on the provision of resources and government decisions were made "in the light of priorities to be accorded a range of competing demands" (Ministry of Education, Supplement, 1987b). The preceding chapters have outlined how children with special educational and developmental needs fared amidst these competing demands. This brings the research into the present.

Inclusion is successfully working in the schools involved in this study because of the personal commitment of professional staff and the leadership of the respective principals. The school cultures which have evolved from that leadership ensure the success of this educational change. Those involved in the study report changes in the ethos of their schools, the development of caring and supportive attitudes amongst the children and successful, supported integration of the children. The professional staff also report personal and professional satisfaction with their involvement with the children with special educational and developmental needs. However, there are problems. Firstly, the most critical problem is the difficulty of gaining resources and 'people support' in the form of teachers or teachers aides in the classroom. "Capturing the funding " was the phrase used recently to refer to this problem (Future Indicative, December 18, 1994). Secondly, there has been insufficient preparation and training for professional and ancillary staff who will have the children in their classrooms. Thirdly, the contextual problems of overcrowded classrooms, demands on a teacher's time in the form of class workload and administrative expectations, problematical behaviour of children, and continual changes in education policy do not lead to a receptive attitude to inclusion. The presence of children with emotional and

behavioural difficulties in the classroom who were inadequately supported was a source of grave concern in the schools. A representative of the Primary Schools Association recently drew attention to the status of inclusion in 1995 when it was described as "under resourced, under funded and in disarray" (National Programme, April 12, 1995). A reference was made to a lack of confidence by both parents and schools in a system where the government has legislated that children have rights to education. In the opinion of this spokesperson, the government must fund its policies properly. Particular concern was expressed over the apparent re-classification of children in order to reduce the demand for resources. When the schools were revisited at a time after the research was completed, because of the difficulties experienced in gaining resources, schools were starting to review how they might meet the needs of their pupils to make optimum use of the funding they had been allocated. Although this is a positive move economically, it may cause the demise of an educational change before it has been truly owned by any schools other than those with "a commitment to the ethic of caring" (Sergiovanni, 1992, p.41).

12.1 The Personal Feelings of a Researcher

An understanding of the recognition of the diversity or uniqueness of the children by many professionals, and particularly one school, was a dramatic find. Having listened to people being 'politically correct' on the use of terminology for a considerable period of time, avoiding the use of labels but at the same time almost disregarding the child, and listening to discussions which appeared to accept one impairment in preference to another in the same child, an awareness developed of the difficulties which had arisen in the semantics of disability. There were still those who referred to "the wheelchair child" or "special needs kids". While their honesty was obvious in their acknowledgement of the child their use of language was not in keeping with the times.

A child with a visual and an intellectual impairment needs to be accepted as having both these conditions as part of the personality makeup, because both have contributed to where the child is at, how he or she reacts and deals with certain situations. To deny or minimalise one disability is to put that child at a disadvantage because on inclusion, it leaves that child unsupported in one major area of their life. A parent in the course of this study explained her frustration at asking for help with the social aspect of her daughter's inclusion. This parent had accepted her child's intellectual difficulties, but the school could apparently only admit to the visual problems and no help was forthcoming. There are still areas of inclusion where professionals need to listen to what parents are saying. They may be more accepting of their child's difficulties than

the school is. Oliver (1990), who is himself a physically disabled person, states that not to acknowledge the impairment is to remove from a person part of their being. This is the strength which the schools in this study, who acknowledged difference or uniqueness, brought to their charters and policy statements. Taking this stand enabled the school community to include many facets of all children which became non-stigmatising, acceptable and not an issue. Differences were able to be discussed without embarrassment or avoidance techniques and children were able to be identified for extra remedial or extension, without any concern or comment. This approach is described as "redefining normality to include diversity" by Booth (in Barton, 1988, P.119). Several teachers discussed the difficulties of avoiding labelling but at the same time attempting to seek resources, for children for whom they felt they did not have appropriate educational descriptive terms. Avoiding labelling has become associated with inadequate assessment. in the eyes of some professionals.

The schools who participated in this study were genuinely attempting to meet their students' special educational needs with sensitivity and common sense. On a visit back to one school the warning was given that if more funding was not available the school would have to look to more innovative ways of managing the number of children who were gathering in certain levels of the school. Here because of classroom sizes the school was not able to assimilate more children with special educational needs into age appropriate classes. A review a year later found that one class had been formed which was 'age appropriate', with half the pupils in need of extra educational assistance of some kind. The class numbers were reduced and in every way it was just another class in the school, but it proved more manageable to have the children grouped together than allocated to three separate classes. This places the schools in an interesting position five years after the passing of the legislation which opened the door to inclusion. Is it possible that in spite of the best will in the world, to counteract the lack of resources and funding, schools may turn to 'streaming' and 'de facto' special classes and the government may inadvertently or purposefully be assisting with the development of 'de facto' special schools. Was the challenge of inclusion too great?

APPENDICES

Appendix 1

The Day in the Life of:
A Child with Limited Discretionary Hours [**A**].

9.00	Roll call. **A** makes himself very obvious by his snorting sniffs. Answers roll call very nicely with 'bonjour'!!! During roll call **A** was removed from class by visiting teacher for his 'special teaching' and quietly left the room. Classmates did not react to notice his departure and the teacher went on with roll call. Then onto morning talks.	1:1 tuition in resource room. Left room quietly.
9.15.	To phys.ed. on court. All children very chatty as they returned to the classroom, then back to the court .	Out of class.
9.25	Visiting teacher comes over to the court and confers with the teacher for 5 minutes about **A.** He hoves into view by himself and stands on the sideline. No one invites him in or includes him in their activities. The teachers don't make any effort to introduce him into the activity and they chat on cheerfully - ? now discussing **A**, somehow think not. Children sent for a run around the field and **A** sets off following everyone but eventually integrates himself into a group. He does not talk to any of the other children and wanders back by himself eventually and does the 'warm down'. Still some stragglers coming in. Class returns to classroom.	VT liaises with classroom teacher. No attempt to re-introduce into group. No communication with peers. Solo activity.
9.35	Class sits on mat - teacher does a poem with the class, actions very good from **A** but ? the words. He then sits and inspects his legs and picks his sores (he has eczema). **A** sits quietly while the children are given their tasks for the next part of the morning. He does not talk but he is not attentive to the teacher's directions. "Hands up if you don't know what you are doing because I haven't called your name". **A** does not respond. Sits in his own world. Sniffing, wipes his nose on his sleeve. He gets up and walks to the side of the room, returns to the centre of the room and then returns as if he has just remembered what he went for and collects his writing book, takes it to the teacher and shows her. "Where's your pencil"?. **A** goes on another wander. He speaks to 2 children who don't react and then sits back on the mat with the other children the teacher had selected to work with. "**A** that's the wrong book, go and get your box". **A** goes off and brings his box back with a collection of books in it. "That's the right one - the blue one". He is sent to put all the others away and then returns and settles in the group and turns the pages.	On task but not attentive. In own world. Some inappropriate social behaviour. Task comprehension and organisation poor.
9.45	Not participating in discussion and gets up and goes for a walk. He returns with a dictionary. The children are asked to look for an "L" word. There is much turning of pages by **A** and he does not appear to know what he is trying to achieve. [? the others are doing it so he copies them].	Out of seat and wandering. ?setting behaviour.

9.50	Still in group situation but not participating. "O.K. **A** what am I going to write for you today"? This activity is side tracked by another child after 2 minutes. "Now **A** what are you going to write"?. A slow process follows of drawing out a story word by word - the 1:1 continues "what did you do at the weekend?" **A** replies and the teachers starts to write. The story is written in rough and **A** is directed to write it out "on the lines and you are not to go above or below it". **A** has his story worked out using word cards and the teacher rearranges them to the story **A** had 'assisted' make up. **A** sits on the mat for the full duration and his only transgression is to throw a pencil at another child. He is frequently not on task, watching the other children, looking around and wriggling.	Frequently not on task. Eventually 1:1 with classroom teacher.
10.20	**A** has written five words very slowly in large printing which was a little difficult to read. **A** takes his work to the teacher and shows her what he has done.He is told to put it in his tray. "Where's the library box" he asks as **A** wanders around with 2 books. "You use your eyes and go and look for it" the teacher responds. "Is this it"? "Yes", several class members respond as all are watching him. He puts the books in the box and goes and finds a space and sits down. He is playing with a piece of cardboard. "Miss X, I have found this". "It is only a piece of card from the rubbish tin", is the reply. The next activity is a poem said by the entire class in unison. **A** watches actions from the peers and follows really O.K. but 'mouths' the words. He sits quietly after this until told by teacher he can go out to play, departs without comment [he appears as a quiet boy who is trying very hard].	No reinforcement for work done. Wandering. Disturbs concentration of peers - not intentional. Interrupts teacher. Setting behaviour.
10.30	Morning break.	
10.55	**A** sitting on the mat quietly and waiting - reading. Watching other children, not attentive to the teacher.	In seat. Not attentive.
11.05	When children are sent off to get on with their work **A** collects self and things and moves off to a table with 'his' group and settles to read to himself audibly! He then starts playing with his stickers and finally talking to the other children.	In seat. Concentration gradually deteriorates. Disturbs peers.
11.15	Teacher comes over and checks what the children are doing and gives them some assistance. She then collects another boy who has been causing considerable trouble for the teacher this morning, a 'self esteem' problem I am told. On a 1:1 the boy settles down and commences work.	In seat. No attention from teacher.

11.25 The teacher then goes to assist a child at **A**'s table. **A** doesn't join in, he is playing with his pencil case and pens. He does some drawing on his worksheet (he is given the same work as the others in the group).- is scribbling on the paper. The teacher calls him to her and **A** is sent to get his 'work bag' [a bag of things for him to do while the rest of the class finish their work]. **A** settles on the carpet and after a short chat which does not cause much distraction he settles to work. The teacher has collected **A**'s worksheet from him, no comment made.

In seat and on task.

Sent to collect his 'work bag'.

No attention or reinforcement from teacher.

11.35 **A** packs up his bag and does not appear to have done anything. ? sorted out some papers. He puts the bag away in his box and proceeds to carry the papers to the table. He collects some felt tips and takes off with his worksheet and settles to the papers.

In seat and self motivated.
? purpose in activity.

11.40 The teacher checks him and he is O.K. A peer comes along and takes the felt tips from him in an unacceptable manner, a struggle occurs and the bigger lad wins and **A** is left doing nothing. His papers are in front of him and he stares out the door and the class felt tips are on another table being used by two peers. Another peer comes up to **A** and asks him what he is doing. **A** explains that he "cannot do anything because he has not got the felts. Peer goes off and **A** is left sorting his papers. I ask to look at his work. He tells me , "I can't do it because he has taken the felts" I ask aren't there any others. "Everyone else uses them but not me".Why? At that point the class leader comes along and gives him some felt tips. Whose? "These are the teacher's". I commend her for being thoughtful. **A** puts away his bag and goes and settles down to colour in his picture.

Teacher checks.

Negative interaction with peer.

In seat but not on task.

Peers support with positive interaction.

On task.

11.50 Within the space of this 5 minute block a peer comes along and tries to take the felt tip pens away. He picks them up, **A** says something and then he firmly takes them back. The peer talks for a few moments and then goes back to his area and leaves **A** in peace. **A** settles and sits alone colouring at times and staring outside the door at other times. **A** has a body covered in eczema and this obviously distresses him as he is itching and scratching.

Negative interaction with peer.
Child stands his ground.
Peer leaves.
In seat but concentration poor.

11.55 Time to pack up and there is 'panic' in the classroom. **A** drops his papers on the floor. He is carrying his sweatshirt around. He goes to the teacher and is told to go and put the papers in his box. He is sitting on the floor again shuffling papers, he really has a problem gathering them all up and just handling them appears to be slow progress. All these worksheets are either not started or completed. **A** is still wandering around carrying his sweatshirt, finally he is the last in the class to claim a seat at the table. He watches the process of writing as demonstrated on the board but makes no attempt to do it for 5 minutes. Then he starts.

Does not participate in class routine.

In own world.

Wandering.

Finally in seat but poorly motivated.

12.05	The teacher goes to **A** and shows him individually in his workbook how to do the "G's" being studied. **A** is settled and attempting to do the work, on task. His writing is tremulous but he shows obvious 'trying' skills.	1:1 tuition from teacher. In seat and on task.
12.15	Tidy up and onto the mat. The class sing an action song. **A** watches the actions of the peers and copies what they are doing but unable to get the words in. When the children sing loudly he covers his ears with his hands and looks quite pained. **A** sits on the mat so quietly, unemotionally - he does as he is told and does not interfere with the others. He watches and scratches his eczema. When his name is called he gets up instantly and goes to lunch.	In seat. Attempts to follow peers actions. Withdrawn. Follows instructions.
12.30	Discussion with the teacher on a child who demands attention and takes up so much of the teacher's time and **A** who "is just not there", "there is nothing", "I don't know what to do". "He has 1/2 to 3/4 hour 3 times a week with the visiting teacher and I have to say, that's it, that is his learning time. I just haven't the time to give to him"."Then there is (another child), I'll point him out to you, the boy with the aeroplane, he needs my time too".	Time demands. 1:1 tuition left to VT. Teacher takes no responsibility.
1.30	Lunch. After lunch children are sitting on the mat chatting 'volubly'. **A** is there but sitting 'solo'. Another child is again interrupting in the middle of the book reading. **A** sits unmoved but appears attentive. Next is maths and while the three groups have their task described to them, **A** sits and looks at the floor and only occasionally looks up. Worksheets are handed out to all the children. There is immediate confusion as they set off for their tables. **A** makes a beeline for the teacher and is told to "go to a table and I'll be with you, go away". The teacher looked at me! Gradually peace is restored and work begins. A is leaning against a table at the back of the room.	In seat and on task. Task changes and child 'lost'. Goes to teacher and is sent to seat with instruction. Out of seat and in own world.
2.15	After lunch working with various children on their maths. Finally, **A** arrives and quietly asks "Can you help me please"? **A** had to sit 10 minutes until I had finished with the child I had been helping. Then his turn came. He had sat quietly and waited. He astounds me by his ability to tell the time at the o'clock stage. His problem appears to be task application. Once on task he shows total application and ability but do not appear to be able to direct his attention to think what the problem is and how to attack it. But he could do the actual task once he was directed onto it. Therefore if the teacher has not the time to work on 1:1 and get him on task, then he does nothing. How much would he achieve with classroom support? A peer came up and watched him and said, "You should have a sticker for that". [I agree].	Requests assistance. Waited patiently. With 1:1 on task and task completed. Peer support and praise.

2.25	Next came the sticking in of the poem into the homework book. The teacher stuck the maths worksheet into the maths book and **A** was to do the poem. He hesitates and will not do it and finally says, "that's not my book". The teacher said, "Oh, yes it says homework and spells it out. Then realises it was not his book but another child's. "Saved in time...." and she calls the boy concerned and swaps books. **A** then needs direction with the brush and paste and once told he does the pasting, he sticks the poem across two pages and it needs a little readjustment. **A** needs constant prompting to be totally on task but with that prompting he could ? be more productive.	Task comprehension alright. but needs prompting to be totally on task.
2.40	While the children are packing their bags for home the teacher refers to a child who is on tablets for his hyperactivity - the principal has these tablets because she can never remember to give them to him. "I query sometimes whether he has taken the tablets for the whole day". This child has been very obvious during the day and this disclosure is not at all surprising. Another child has a problem of wanting to be noticed all the time and is constantly talking out loud, interrupting annoying other children etc. Then there is (yet another child) who is so withdrawn it is easy to forget him, "he is so quiet". Then there is **A.**	Teacher refers to four children with special needs in the classroom. Two in the emotional/ behavioural category.
2.50	I then overhear a conversation concerning the wearing of cycle helmets - "you put them on because if you don't you might fall off your bike and be handicapped". I query what handicapped means to these children. "You can't do anything" was the reply. We go out on to the field and play ball games for the final few minutes. **A** runs around the field again. **A** wanders in but he is not at the end of the line of children. Then we play ball games. **A** plays team games well - he is directed, enthusiastic and shows energy. Except for one small altercation this time goes without incident.	Interesting view of children's understanding of concept 'handicapped'. Phys. ed. lacks social integration.
3.00	The children were dismissed on the field and **A** shoots back to the classroom for his bag. The teacher thanks me for helping with the maths for the children. "Sometimes I feel the day is just wasted for **A** - it is strategies - if he is not directed and closely monitored he achieves and does nothing".	Teacher explains child's difficulties. Accepts how little achieved in present situation.

A proposition was derived from this day and other similar days:
The classroom composition has an influence on the way in which the teacher responds to her students with special educational needs. Peers with problems may require more of the teacher's time than the students with special educational needs. Is more of an effort made for these children because they do not have itinerant teacher time and are therefore the classroom teacher's responsibility?

Appendix 2

A Day in the Life of:
Two children with multiple disabilities [**B** and **C**].

9.00	**B** is brought to school by mother and gives a resume of the night's activities to itinerant teacher. Teacher aide arrives and takes **B** from itinerant teacher where she was being held on her knee. **B** put back in her chair and taken for a drink. **B** then returns to a group of very noisy children at the back of the room.	Parent-itinerant teacher contact. Teacher aide support. and care.
9.30	**C** arrives, having had two grand mal attacks before school which mother discusses with the itinerant teacher. Peer comes and speaks to **C** who is rocking his chair backwards and forwards. The teacher aide requests the child sit on the mat, he is removed from chair and its on knee of teacher aide on bean bag.	Parent-itinerant teacher contact. Peer contact.Teacher aide support. and care.
9.45	The class is doing a family study, a co-operative writing project. **B** and **C** go to their feeding programme in the reception area of the special facility they have at this school.	Teacher aide support. and care.
10.00	Recording and keeping of the records for the IEPs as activities are achieved. Nappy changing in the change room. Use of vapouriser because **B** is 'wheezy'. **C** is meanwhile vocalising and watching the class who are now doing a writing session. Told of the 12 'buddies' for **B** and **C** who visit at intervals for morning break and lunchtime. These are volunteers. The itinerant teacher explains, "I don't use the term 'look after'. I prefer them to choose their friends and have around them people they like. I don't like organising people to care for them, play with them or be with them."	IEP data recorded. One child receiving care; one vocalizing and watching class. Use of 'buddy' system explained.
10.45	'Collective reading' for the class and **B** has her postural drainage (physio) and **C** is pressing switches and learning 'middle' in preparation for possibly learning to use an electronic board for communication. The itinerant teacher comments on how chatty he is this day. **C** is vocalising and saying "don't do" and "hullo" while the other children are doing 'free reading'. The classmates are taking no notice at all. It is interesting how close they pass by **B** on the floor and in the traffic, even when they are at side of the room. The classroom teacher reprimands the children by stating, "the foam pad is for **B** to lie on when she is on the mat, she doesn't want it with dirty feet and all rolled over". And again, "**B** doesn't want you all over her mat, (child's name)".	Physiotherapy. One child doing IEP programme with itinerant teacher. Class not interested in vocalisations. Safety awareness and class prompted.

11.00	Both children are in class for reading and being read to by peers. **B** is at the teacher aide's knee while doing tactile stimulation, holding her head up and getting positioning appropriate for the wheelchair. **C** joins the class and the itinerant teacher goes on to some other children needing her help. He waits at the back of the group and story reading continues. **C** needs quietening down for he is vocalising loudly. He is having some hand stimulation during this time, making hand contact with the teacher aide. **C** is wanting more hand contact with the teacher aide, many unnecessary hand movements which the teacher aide subdues.	In class - teacher aide care and support. Unacceptable vocalisations. Unacceptable body movements curbed.
11.15	**B** is on the teacher aide's knee and **C** is vocalising loudly again - quietened again. Change of activity to individual reading. Again the children in the class move like a herd of elephants - no notice is taken of **B** and **C**. Noted no interaction between class room teacher since 9.30 when a child spoke to **C**.	In class - teacher aide care and support. Safety. No interaction with classroom teacher last 2 hours.
11.30	**C** starts banging the table which attracts peers attention then they go back to work, one child watches **C** and then moves. Child chosen by the teacher aide to read a story to **B. B** is given a choice of books and by eye contact indicates one and the child starts reading to **B** at the back of the room. **C** goes out to get a drink, he has another grand mal fit and is very twitchy. Teacher aide comments, "a lot of time is spent on functional activities, it is constant". General care? "Yes". There is difficulty in getting enough fluid into the children in a day, so it is a case of small amounts and often. Other children are quietly reading to **B.** Peer finishes reading and gently strokes her hair and talks to her.	Unacceptable body movements. Peer support, child is chosen by T/A. In class - teacher aide care and support. Peer's support and communication.
11.45	Music with all junior classes. Itinerant teacher with **C** and the teacher aide with **B**, attend and do the actions.	In class - teacher aide care and itinerant teacher support. Inclusion.
12.00	Lunch and itinerant teacher and teacher aide take the first part of their lunchtime to feed the children.	In class - teacher aide care and itinerant teacher support.
12.30 -1.00	Teacher's lunchtime. 'Buddies' care for the children at this time although today the itinerant teacher stays because of **C**'s grand mal fits and **B**'s wheeziness.	'Buddy' support. Because of poor health I.T. stays.

1.00	**C** is having a sleep, not usual but it had been an exhausting morning for this child. **B** is going into the classroom with a peer who offered to read to her. "**C** is a great delegater. He puts his faith in you and lets you get on with it!" During this break talked to another staff member who mentioned having a new child arrive at school and a conversation was overheard which went like this. "I've seen this funny looking kid outside with a big head". The peers evidently answered, "He's not funny, he is our **C**". The new child was fully put in his place by the children and there was no further reference to this child.	Sleep. Peer support with reading. Peers assist a new child to understand these children.
1.00 -1.45	**C** asleep and wakes brighter.	
2.00	**C** has a drink. **B** in classroom in wheelchair at the side/ back of the class listening. As the children charge around in groups, **B** follows with her eyes. "It is very difficult trying to be with both children because when I have **C** out here, I can't supervise **B** in there [the classroom], explains the teacher aide We discuss the difficulties of having the children 'poorly' - the extra care is very constant and time consuming.	In class - teacher aide care and support. Difficulty of one person meeting needs of two 'demanding' children.
2.15	**B** is sitting in wheelchair in the same position. The teacher aide has checked her once and spoken to her. Peers are working on a unit. **C** is out of the wheelchair and in the classroom on the teacher aide's knee watching the other children. She then moves over to **B** and sits next to her and continues to occasionally talk to **C** on her knee. At this time the peers came and talked to the teacher aide but none came and spoke to either of the children.	Teacher aide balancing her time with care of both children. Peers talk to teacher aide.
2.30	**C** now in his wheelchair and **B** is on the teacher aide's knee. No discussion with the peers is taking place.	Ditto
2.35	To the hall for sports and gymnastics. Discussion on the safety of the equipment. **B** and **C** to the back of the group in their wheelchairs. Caregivers have to put on coats and take special care over maintaining warmth. The teacher aide talks quietly to **C** who is moved to the sideline to watch, and **B** is nursed on the teacher aide's knee. Parents arrive and collect children and have a discussion with the teacher aide on how their respective children have been.	Teacher aide balancing her time with care of both children. Parents collect children and relate to teacher aide.

Discussion with the itinerant teacher indicated her concern that, because she never leaves the school the regular teachers come to look upon her as the 'special' teacher and do not assume responsibility for the child with disability. They leave it to her to take these children for their school work. Did not see the regular teacher relate to **B** and **C** at all, right through the day. These children did follow the same curriculum pattern as other children in the classroom. Itinerant teacher suggested that sometimes the teachers have to leave the curriculum as written and follow a different line. These two children only mix their curricula with the regular children for music and outdoor activity. They work in a regular class alongside their classmates, with the teacher aide who has sole responsibility for them.

On another day, the time spent in the classroom and out of it receiving physical care, was recorded. The result was that both children spent 1 3/4 hours in the classroom in the morning, had 1 1/4 hours for lunch and one child did not return to the classroom because she was unwell. The other child spent 1 1/2 hours in the classroom in the afternoon. Therefore, on this one day B spent 3 hours and C spent 4 1/2 hours out of a possible 6 hours. Because **B** was unwell, the itinerant teacher made one phone call to the doctor and three were made to the mother during this particular school day.

Appendix 3

A Day in the Life of:
A child with an emotional-behavioural problem [**D**].

8.40 I Arrive at school 10 minutes late and because of this meets **D** who was in his classroom, going through all the classroom desks looking for *his* desk - so he tells me. **D** is a habitual truant and instantly knew who he is. He does not talk but mutters as his search progresses. He is not in uniform as he had been moved into a welfare home during mid term break and this was his first day back at school in a fortnight. The class were at singing and when questioned by the teacher later, she could not get an answer as to why he was not there. It had been noted that he was not there and during this time two teachers had been looking for him and one, the D.P. had spent half an hour on the phone trying to phone 'home' to track him down. A peer is requested to accompany **D** to the office to find these teachers and apologise for the waste of their time. He is then put in the 'time out' room until morning break.

Child with high absenteeism.

Out of class. Not in uniform.

Two teachers involved in trying to trace him at this start of school day.

Reprimand and punishment in 'time out' room.

10.30 After break **D** was to go to the reading resource room with the T/A for 1:1 tuition. Instead he creeps into the art room and sits quietly with the boys - the T/A comes and finds the classroom teacher who is responsible for getting **D** out of the art class and gets him to the teacher aide's room. The teacher aide waits outside the room while this is being done and the classroom teacher has to leave her class unattended.

Child avoided 1:1 tuition. Further inconvenienced T/A and teacher.

11.00 Once inside the resource room the teacher aide asks **D**
"Are you going to talk today"
"No".
"Why, do you want to go back to art?"
"Do you know I want to go back to art?"
"You do good work here and I'll let you go back to art. **D** please make an effort".

"Don't forget the Bacon" (title of the book), read together? - "good one", says Teacher aide.

Teacher prompts and assists words in reading - **D** is left to read the repetitive parts in the story. Reading gradually improves as he becomes involved.
Calls out to other boy in room working with the other teacher aide. "What welfare home are you in?"
"..... St."
"They have dogs there and a swimming pool. You are with....."
"Bad fellows like you", comes back the reply.
"They are there for strangling....." **(D.)**
There is open discussion between the two boys about their living conditions.

1:1 laborious work.

Child did not want to be there.

In seat.

Interrupts peers by talking.

11.15 **D**'s attention is drawn back to the task on hand and the reading continues on cue. Gradually he starts to relate to the teacher aide and a little talk takes place between the two of them. Interrupts teacher aide by talking.

D requests that the teacher's aide read the story to him again.

"Oh, do I have to do it again. C'mon, your turn now, C'mon". (T/A) as **D** does not get on with his reading. **D** continues again. Manipulating teacher aide.

11.30 "Could I see that book, Miss". (**D**)
"When you have finished this".
"I couldn't read that". (**D**)
"This is what Mrs P. has given for you to read".
"It looks boring" (**D**)
"Motorbikes or bicycles which would you like to read?" (T/A)
"Motorcycle"(**D**).

D settles down to read quite adequately and he points out the parts of the motorbike. "I'm close", as he almost gets the right word. But the concentration is hard to keep. "I'm not reading that stupid work, "it's boring". In seat. Reading but difficult to keep on task.

"You won't be going back to art". (T/A)
D refuses to read and they move on to writing.
"I can't write with a pen?".
"Why not".
"Because"
"Why can't you write with a pen?"
"I can't make mistakes".
"You are rubbing out your work".

D then gets into a box filled with papers on the table, teacher aide responds with "get out of it". Reprimand.

Finally, **D** settles down to some sort of work, he is expected to write and make a sentence. "Motor cycles are stupid". In seat. writing but difficult to keep on task.

"Where's a rubber?"
"You are the one who throws the rubber aways".
Corrected by the T/A, "you are the one who threw the rubber away, there is the rubber on the end of the pencil, use that one". (T/A)
"Where's the motor cycle book".
"I haven't got it"
"Where have you put that book" (T/A)
"I chucked it out the window".(**D**)

D starts talking to the other boy in the room and discusses details of some altercation - "that was a dangerous accident they had - that family..." Interrupts peers by talking.

"That has nothing to do with the work you are doing" (T/A)
"I've got the flu, Miss".
"Is that why you have the hat on - had your hair cut?".
"Yes". (**D**)
"Is that why you have the hat on?".
"Yes".

It was later mentioned to the staff that **D** had broken down in tears and told the D.P. that his mother had shorn his hair off, in an effort to keep him at home because of the embarrassment of his appearance. The school gave him permission to wear his sweatshirt hood over his head until he felt he could manage without a covering but the cap had to go. Finally it was confiscated by D.P. It was soon after this occurrence and because of information from the school on the truancy problems that **D** was moved into the welfare home. There are problems with the boys who are truants joining the young unemployed and becoming involved in criminal activities. **D** had already been on such an activity involving a break-in.

Inadequate parenting skills make situation at school difficult with regard to clothing and appearance.

12.00 Meanwhile back in the resource room -

Task completion

"you have been very co-operative, there are 2 more lines to do"
"I did not like that book because...(and then gave no reason)".
Later on looking at his work, **D** had written:

I had a motocycles
I bin net red if
Kos it look RKHN
I motocycles a RKHN
and a Ken motocycles a RKHN

What he read out to the teacher aide was :

I had a motorcycle
I cannot side it
because it looks ugly
A motorcycle looks ugly
and a motorcycle looks ugly.

This was progress because in March he was only able to copy what the teacher dictated to him.

D was released to go to art, but he did not go to art but instead played the piano in the hall. "Collected up" by the D.P. and into the office for a 'going over' there (said by the T/A).

Not following school routine.

Discussion with the D.P. "The trouble is occurring because the young unemployed are gathering up our AWOLS and they are being educated in the worst possible way".

Discussion on social difficulties in school.

1.30 After lunch the classroom is noisy - **D** answers the teacher by giving her the rules of the classroom "sitting on tables not allowed, sit on the chairs and don't lean back".

Entire classroom out of order. Child impertinent.

Teacher wants someone to run a message to her car. "I can", said **D**, "I can unlock it".
"Yes, you can when you can speak properly to me, yes, you will be allowed to run a message to my car".

Child allowed to be out of class.

	Next is quiet reading time - **D** is directed to a book "specially chosen" by the teacher, he settles to read it but after a few seconds gets up to choose another one.	Out of seat.
	D not settling - carrying on a whispered conversation across the corridor between the desks with another boy at the back desk (the 'time out' desk) - this boy also has severe learning problems.	In seat but interrupting peers with talking.
	Books put away and **D** ends up playing with 2 pencils.	Not on task.
	Next the class monitor reads out the new work groups.	
	D objects, "why are the girls leaders?"	Interrupts.
	The teacher is out of the room and **D** continues loud talking to all and sundry.	Loud talking.
	D in his session with the D.P. had a very tearful time - D.P. phoned through to his new welfare home and talked to the supervisor. The problem over the haircut had occurred because he had been away from home for two weeks and his mother had shorn his hair, 1/8th inch from his scalp as an attempt to keep him at home. There is no information as to where he went to for the 2 weeks he was away. Hence **D** had not wanted to go to assembly or to singing, both places where he knew he would publicly be requested to remove his hat - so had gone to his classroom where his acquaintance was made finding his desk. The D.P also referred to the interaction between social problems and the school - the children don't come to school, they therefore end up with learning problems, the child's school achievement is down and eventually the children end up with multiple difficulties.	Discussion on parenting, social difficulties, and school expectations.
2.00	**D** sits on the desk and teacher says "No, **D**" He understands and gets of. It is now mat time with all the children on the floor at the teacher's feet. **D** meanwhile on the floor with the other children and inclined to go under the desks playing. Looking around and generally gives the impression of not listening - gradually attention gained and he listens.	Out of seat. Not on task. Gradually gets on task.
	Teacher asks a question and **D** answers it correctly - she stumbles over his name. "I answered the question and you don't even know my name".	
	Teacher retorts, "if you came to school more often I would remember who you are". Laughter from the class.	Verbal sparring with teacher.
	D settles again and listens. **D** mutters and passes some loud comments of not a very complimentary kind. A fellow student makes a paper plane and fires it and the teacher reprimands the student - **D** is laughing to himself.	In seat. Verbal interruptions and teacher reprimands.
	D gets himself off the floor and onto a chair and the teacher immediately requests he lowers himself onto the floor again passing comments all the while in an audible manner. A peer is called to the front because of his misbehaviour and he claims he has pins and needles. **D** says "he's got pins and needles and the only thing that is missing is some cotton". **D** speaks many times for any other student in the class, he repeats after the student what they have said.	Out of seat. Verbal interruptions continue.

	D interrupts - "$2.00" in a loud voice when discussing fund raising. He has his chair down sideways and is playing with it under the table. Finally he gets up and moves to a chair over by the window and plays aimlessly with a pencil and a piece of string (his plaything since 1.30) - sniffing audibly all the time.	Verbal interruptions. Out of seat. Not on task.
2.30	**D** is corrected by the teacher, "Hurry up **D** you are wasting our time". **D** sits on another table, he is corrected again and is finally down on the carpet again. He is still playing with his pencil and piece of string. On the delivery of another circular he folds it up and places it on a clip attached to his waist.	Out of seat and not on task.
	D has requested a RAP poster so the teacher, together with the class affirm that he may have it if he can be 'good' - he is to behave himself for a week and he may have it.	Child tries to bargain with teacher
	Another child knocks over a blackboard and it needs fixing up. **D** adds many additional noises and interruptions and finally the teacher asks if he wants the teacher to take him down to the 'time out' room again. The teacher says that she wants to be able to tell the man **D** lives with (the welfare home supervisor) that **D** "is a real neat guy" and "I don't want to have to give the RAP poster to anyone else".	Verbal interruptions. Threat, followed by bargaining again.
	D continues to interrupt at intervals in a very loud voice.	Verbal interruptions.
2.50	At 'pack-up' time **D** noisily interacts with a peer and this includes physical as well as vocal interaction. The 'acting out' involves boxing stances and jumping around the floor pretending to box with lots of physical contact. It is not malicious but designed to get the attention of his peers.	Verbal interruptions. 'Acting out' behaviour to gain attention.
	When the class discuss the Aquapass the school will participate in the following week **D** comments, "I haven't had a notice".	Verbal interruption.
	The class is dismissed and **D** is still seen to be 'punching' the peer he is talking to and continues to prance around boxing fashion.	'Acting out' behaviour.
	Next day	
9.00	The first item on the agenda next day is parent interviews and **D** goes up to the teacher and comments that his parents will be unable to attend. He wonders if an uncle will. Teacher suggests that "I'll give him a ring and see...there are so many things you can do. Do you think he has the time? I'll ring.	No parental support.
9.10	**D** comes to the heater and sits in the chair next to the heater and quietly stares out the window.	Out of seat.
	D now sits on the heater and makes no effort to move to constructive work (still not in uniform - in kung-fu shoes, hat and sweatshirt). He then moves back to his desk and starts browsing through a book but not doing the set work.	Not on task.

9.15	Classroom teacher moves to **D** and discusses his setting up his work, she finds the appropriate notebook for him and asks him to write down the set of words as vocabulary to back up 'conflict' study. **D** is settled and working but is drawing, not doing the set work.	1:1 time spent with child. In spite of this attempt, not on task.
	Teacher now comes and asks why his desk is clear 5 minutes later. "I have no pencil, only a broken one". The teacher suggests he goes and sharpens it and he does so and returns to his desk.	No initiative.
	D finally gets his books out.	
	"Can I have a new pencil Miss, because this one does not work properly?". He is scribbling on his desk.	Verbal interruptions.
	D is finally writing in pen and apparently copying, as intended, the words into the notebook.	Finally on task.
9.30	Teacher moves all the children onto the mat for reading and they are given a journal to read.	Out of seat.
	D gets off the mat and moves over to the heater and sits on it, then onto the chair by the heater. **D** is given the job of giving out the journals for his reading group.	Given task to perform, can only do it with verbal interruptions.
	"What" he says in a very loud voice as he was not following the instructions.	
	Finally they have to be retrieved again because some students could not find enough books.	
	D has meanwhile gathered up this journal and stays standing at the heater. Once the class has settled to work **D** gathers up his journal and goes to the teacher as he had earlier been instructed. Teacher reads to this small group and there is some discussion as to where the story starts. **D** is very vocal through all this. "Don't read too fast" he says. **D** is instructed that if the teacher goes too fast he is to tell the teacher. The rest of the class are reading quietly on their assigned work.	Out of seat but finally does follow instructions. Verbal interruptions.
	The teacher reprimands a pair of children for talking, they were sharing a book so the teacher 'fires' another book over to the girls. **D** comments, "good catch you mean".	
10.00	Teacher goes on reading the story and asks the students what they think will happen and sends them back to their desk to read or work it out for themselves.	
	D makes a beeline for the heater.	
	"I don't mind if you sit by the heater, but don't sit on the heater. Give him a chance because he is not well.	Out of seat, condoned by teacher.
	So **D** goes back to his desk and then returns to the heater within 5 minutes and looks at his journal.	
	The other boys near the heater speak politely to **D** and move over for him.	Peer interaction.
	D has a conversation with the boy by the heater.	
	"I am in a family home. (silence) I get a pie for lunch (silence).	Conversation with peer.
	"For free" finally the boys comment. "Yes" says **D**.	
	"Neat".	
	This conversation alerts the teacher. "**D**, have you people finished the story?".	

10.30	There is a change of activity and the class is off to the gym for folk dancing.	Change of activity.
	On our arrival at the gym **D** wraps himself in a curtain and stands there for 5 minutes. Then the class is instructed to run around the gym to get warm (it is perishingly cold).	Inappropriate behaviour.
	D runs in the opposite direction and causes crashes and is very disruptive and noisy. In country dancing **D** does get involved in the 'chicken dance'.	Causes considerable disruption to class.
	D then finds a ping pong bat and plays against the back of the hall.	Inappropriate behaviour.
	He is ignored and soon stops.	
	The D.P. comes in and takes his hat off and allows him to put up the hood again. For the rest of the time **D** is actually co-operative, joins in and does what is expected of him. Other classmates are "very good" with **D**, according to the teacher, and accommodate his behaviour very well.	On task and co-operative. Peers accommodate well to child's behaviour.
11.00	Goes with **D** to his teacher aide. The work begins with a continuation of the journal that was started at 9.30. The teacher aide reads the rest of the story to him and asks occasional questions and **D** answered appropriately.	To resource room for 1:1 tuition.
	"It hasn't finished yet"	
	"Yes, it has - the end". (**D**) "Miss, it's an early day today, there are parent interviews. What will I do Miss".	Verbal interruptions.
	"You will tell me about the story you have just read". The next task is writing a story - "nice, neat printing, your best work" is the comment from the teacher's aide.	
11.30	Laboriously writes out a precis of his story. He shows quite good concentration, no back chat and on cue.	On task and concentrating well.
	He then read his story he had just written again with no back chat or acting out. It went thus:	
	"I was reading a story about for people. Tommy, Gran, Father and Lucy. They were going to run round to the other side.	
	and they made a hut and they had baked beans.	
	The end. (More help was given with spelling this day).	Task completion.
12.30 -1.00	Lunchtime	
1.30	After lunch the class does silent reading and **D** has a pile of books on his desk.	In seat and on task.
	"I've done some good work today Miss".	
	"Yes, I believe you have".	
	D wandering about. There is tidying up of the room for parent interviews starting this afternoon.	Then out of seat.
2.00 D	Child 'overseeing' but not interfering. He goes to the back of the room and starts throwing something up in the air, finally he sits on a desk, he picks up a chair and plays with that making 'swishing' noises - all during a science revision.	Out of seat but not interfering with peers. Repetitive noise annoying.

	He sits at his desk finally and looks at some cards.	In seat.
2.30	The teacher asks him to give Melissa a book. He shouts out across the room, "Melissa, a book it's very heavy". Make believe staggering across the room and delivers it but with much attention getting behaviour.	To do a task requires much attention getting behaviour.
	D then starts drawing on the blackboard, a forbidden activity.	Deliberately annoying.
	The teacher is trying to ignore him.	
	D finally goes to looking out the window and .....the bell goes!	Out of seat.

D's attendance has caused a great deal of concern at school. He has had 31 days absent this year (in 20 weeks). Sometimes he is absent for an entire week but generally 2 to 3 days a week. He has done only 3 complete weeks this year, one of which was spent at a school camp.
D is currently working on an IEP and he has 35 minutes discretionary teacher time allotted four times a week.
His instructional level is that of a 5 year old, he uses pictorial cues and has a basic sight reading level of 18 words. He writes 11 words but can copy dictated print.

Several months later:
At school last week this student presented in full uniform looking very neat and tidy, his head now uncovered and he was given an award in assembly for working well and keeping a neat appearance. The demands made by the supervisor at the family home on school attendance and appearance appear to be paying off, according to his teacher. With some stability in his life his work habits are showing improvement. When I saw the teacher aide her comment was "you should see **D** now". I did, the following day.

Appendix 4

BOARD OF TRUSTEES' INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

1 SCHOOL ENROLMENT

1.1 What is your interpretation of this clause in the Education Act, 1989 'people who have special educational needs (whether because of disability or otherwise) have the same rights to enrol and receive education at state schools as people who do not". [*Show copy*]

1.2 What effect, if any, has this requirement had on
- the staff ?
- the children?
- the school as a whole?

2 BOARD OF TRUSTEES' ROLE

2.1 Can you describe the role of the Board of Trustees with respect to the children with special educational needs and
- the principal
- the teachers on the staff?
- the parents

2.2 Is there any area in which you as a Board member would like further expertise, so a better educational service may be provided to children with special needs in the school?

3 SCHOOL CHARTER

3.1. During the writing of the school charter what consideration was given to students with special needs.

3.2 When formulating school policies from the charter objectives what consideration was given to students with special needs.

4 RESOURCES

4.1 What resources do you consider essential to assist the school put into practice it's programme for the children with special educational needs?

4.2 Can you describe any processes the Board has gone through to gain resources for the children with special educational needs in your school.

4.3 What professional development has the Board put in place or approved for teachers in your school on the theme of special needs?

5 ENVIRONMENT

5.1 Since Tomorrow's Schools what specific changes has the Board authorised to be made to the school environment to assist children with special needs be integrated successfully?

5.2 What other changes, which would assist the children with special educational needs to be integrated successfully, would you like to see?

6 GENERAL

6.1 Are you familiar with the Statement of Intent? [*show copy*]

6.2 What is your understanding of the proposed policy changes as outlined in the Statement of Intent?

6.3 What is your understanding on the present situation with regard to those policy changes?

6.4 What is your understanding of the role of the Special Education Policy Implementation team?

6.5 How do you and your school gain information on the governments' policy regarding children with special educational needs?

6.6 How do you and your school gain information on the local Ministry's requirements and actions regarding children with special educational needs?.

6.7 Do you think you are adequately informed on special education policy changes ?

6.8 How is the information on special education policy disseminated to your Board?

IN SUMMARY:

6.9 What are the most important factors that you consider are necessary for the successful implementation of mainstreaming/ inclusion?

Appendix 5

PRINCIPAL'S INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

For the purposes of this study children with special educational needs are defined as those children who have discretionary hours provided by the Ministry. All the children have IEPs.

1 SCHOOL ENROLMENT

1.1 What is your interpretation of this clause in the Education Act, 1989 'people who have special educational needs (whether because of disability or otherwise) have the same rights to enrol and receive education at state schools as people who do not". [*Show copy*]

1.2 What effect, if any, has this requirement had on:
- the staff ?
- the children?
- the school as a whole?
- yourself?

1.3 Have any parents who have sought to have their child enrolled at this school been unable to do so? Why not?

1.4 Does your school have an enrolment scheme? [*obtain copy*]

2 PRINCIPAL'S ROLE

2.1 Can you describe the role of the Principal with respect to the children with special needs and
- the teachers on the staff?
- the parents
- the BOT
- the SES

2.2 To what extent do you become personally involved in the classrooms where children with special needs have been placed?

2.3 If there are classroom problems with the children with special needs, what action do you as a Principal take?

2.4 Have you taken any additional training courses which assist you in fulfilling your role as Principal with regard to CWSN's? (e.g. IEP writing, writing proposals for discretionary hours and applying for grants for equipment and building modifications).

2.5 Is there any area *you* would like further expertise in so you could provide a better educational service to the children with special needs in your school?

3 SCHOOL CHARTER

3.1. During the writing of the school charter what consideration was given to students with special needs.

3.2 When formulating school polices from the charter objectives, what consideration was given to children with special needs?

4 RESOURCES

4.1 What resources do you consider essential to assist you and the school put into practice it's programme for the children with special needs?

4.2 Can you describe the process you have gone through to gain discretionary hours for the children with special needs in your school?

4.3 What are your views on how the discretionary hours for children with special needs in your school were allocated in 1992? How do you feel about the criteria that were used to make the decisions?
4.4 What effect have the discretionary hours had on the management of the child's programme in the classroom? How are decisions made as to how these hours are to be specifically used?
4.5 Could you describe the procedure you take in approaching outside agencies to gain assistance for children with special needs, other than seeking discretionary hours.

5 CLASS PLACEMENT

5.1 What preparation do you make for the initial arrival of children with special needs in your school?
5.2 What consultative process do you follow with the teachers concerning their views on having a children with special needs in the classroom?
5.3 Please describe the factors you take into consideration before placing a children with special needs in a particular classroom?
5.4 What professional development do you have in place for teachers in your school on the theme of special needs?
5.5 What demands do you consider the children with special needs make on the classroom teacher's time compared to other children?

6 EFFECT ON CLASSROOM and the CHILDREN WITH SPECIAL NEEDS

6.1 What effect has having children with special needs in the classrooms had on the social behaviour of their peers?
6.2 What changes have you noticed in the behaviour of your children with special needs since they came into the school?
6.3 Do you consider having children with special needs in the classrooms has had any effect on the other children's' academic performance?
6.4 What changes have you noticed in the academic work of your children with special needs since coming into the school?
6.5 Are there any specific topics in the curriculum which cause more difficulty than others, for the classroom teachers to teach the children with special needs?

7 PEER SUPPORT

7.1 What is the school policy on peer support for children with special needs?
7.2 Does the school have a policy of 'instruction' of peers in the understanding and acceptance of students with special needs?
7.3 What use is made of the peers of the children with special needs working with:
- academic work
- physical activity e.g. sports, phys. ed. or gymnastics
- social interaction?

7.4 Can you describe the subjects that best lend themselves to this approach to learning?
7.5 How are students selected for this role?

8 ENVIRONMENT

8.1 Since Tomorrow's Schools what specific changes has your BOT or staff authorised to be made to the school environment to assist children with special needs be integrated successfully?
8.2 To assist the children with special needs to be integrated successfully, what changes to the environment would you like to see?

9 SELF CARE and DAILY LIVING SKILLS

9.1 What specific areas of self care and daily living skills should the CWSN's be able to achieve to be successfully integrated at school?
9.2 In what ways do your teachers become involved in helping CWSN's in self care and daily living skills?
9.3 What support system does the school have in place to assist the teacher to help children with special needs with self care and daily living skills?

10 SOCIAL CONTACT

10.1 What attributes in children with special needs do you consider help them be accepted by their peers?
10.2 What personal characteristics in children with special needs do you consider are detrimental to their being accepted by their peers?
10.3 Can you describe any school activities outside the classroom, as distinct from classroom activities, which help the children with special needs become accepted?

11 SELF WORTH AND SELF ESTEEM

11.1 What action do you in the school to promote a positive environment towards self worth and self esteem for all the children?
11.2 Does this approach any different for the children with special needs?
11.3 What is the school's policy on the discipline of children with special needs?
11.4 Does this policy any different for other children?

12 PARENTAL CONTACT

12.1 Is the relationship that develops between the staff and the parents of children with special needs different from the relationship between staff and other parents at the school? Can you describe this difference?
12.2 How does the school involve the parents of your children with special needs in the preparing, executing, recording and reporting on the IEP?

13 IEPs

13.1 Can you suggest any way in which the preparation of IEPs can be made more efficient ?
13.2 What form of support would be most useful for the school to assist in the implementation of an IEP for your children with special needs.

14 GENERAL

14.1 (a) Are you familiar with the Statement of Intent? [*show copy*]
(b) What is your understanding of the proposed policy changes as outlined in the Statement of Intent?

(c) What is your understanding on the present situation with regard to those policy changes?
(d) What is your understanding of the role of the Special Education Policy Implementation team?

14.2 How do you and your school gain information on the government's policy regarding children with special needs?

14.3 How do you and your staff gain information on the local Ministry's requirements and actions regarding children with special needs.

14.4 Do you think you are adequately informed on special education policy changes ?

14.5 How do you disseminate this information on special education policy to your staff?

IN SUMMARY:

14.6 What are the most important factors that you consider are necessary for the successful implementation of mainstreaming/ inclusion?

Appendix 6

TEACHERS' INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

1 SCHOOL and CLASSROOM ROUTINE

1.1 Has having children with special educational needs had any effect on the school in general?
1.2 Has having a child with special educational needs in your classroom had any effect on classroom activities?
1.3 How do you as a teacher take into consideration the different abilities of children to comprehend classroom routines?
1.4 Can you describe any programme in place which is aimed specifically at encouraging your children with special educational needs to learn classroom routines?

2 CLASSROOM TIME

2.1 What demands do you consider children with special educational needs make on your time compared to other children?
(If there is a difference)
2.2 How do you feel about this difference ?
2.3 What form do these demands for extra time take
2.4 How do you allocate your time to .....[*child's name*]?
2.5 Does the type of disability .....[*child's name*] presents with, have any effect on the time you spend giving individual attention?

3 CLASS PLACEMENT

3.1. What preparation, if any, did you made for the initial arrival of .....[*child's name*] in your classroom?
3.2. Can you describe the consultation, if any, you were involved in prior to .....[*child's name*] being placed in your class?

4 EFFECT ON CLASSROOM and CHILDREN WITH SPECIAL EDUCATIONAL NEEDS

4.1 What effect has having .....[*child's name*] in the classroom had any effect on the social behaviour of their peers?
4.2 What changes have you noticed in .....[*child's name*] behaviour since coming into your classroom?
4.3 Do you consider having.....[*child's name*] in the classroom has had any effect on the other children's' academic performance?
4.4 What changes have you noticed in the academic work of .....[*child's name*] since coming into your classroom?
4. 5 How do you monitor .....[*child's name*] participation in
a) small group situations within the classroom.
b) class activities as a whole.
4. 6 Do you use any specific strategies to deal with disruptive or distracting behaviour?
Can you describe them?

5 CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

5.1 What are the important attributes of pupils which assist them in **comprehending** tasks you place before them?

5.2. What are the important attributes of pupils which assist them in **completing** tasks you place before them?

5.3 What is your strategy for positioning .....[*child's name*] in the classroom?
Why do you choose this position?

5.4 Does this differ with the topic/ unit being taught?

5.5 What resources do you have to assist with the management of .....[*child's name*] educational programme in your classroom?
-on an individual (1:1) basis.
-in a group situation.
-in the school environment.
What resources would you like to have?

5.6 Are there any specific topics in the curriculum which cause more difficulty then others to teach your child with special educational needs in the class?
Why does this/ do these topics cause a problem/s?
How have you overcome this difficulty?

6 ENVIRONMENT

6.1 Since Tomorrow's Schools what specific changes has your BOT or staff authorised to be made to the school environment to assist children with special educational needs be integrated successfully?

6.2 What facilities inside your classroom have assisted .....[*child's name*] be integrated successfully?

6.3 What other changes which would assist the children with special educational needs to be integrated successfully would you like to see?

7 SELF CARE and DAILY LIVING SKILLS

7.1 What specific areas of self care and daily living skills should the children with special educational needs be able to achieve to be successfully integrated at school?

7.2 In what ways do you become involved in helping children with special educational needs in self care and daily living skills?
Ask same questions of the following areas :
b) Preparation for home
c) Transport
d) Care of clothing and possessions
e) Additional protection over and above that required by regular students while on school property (equipment, weather).

7.3 What are your feelings about this assistance?

7.4 What role do the other children take in assisting the children with special educational needs in the area of
a) Self care and daily living skills.
b) Preparation for home.
c) Transport
d) Care of clothes and possessions.
e) Additional protection over and above that required by regular students while on school property (equipment, weather).

8 SOCIAL CONTACT

8.1 What attributes in children with special educational needs do you consider help them be accepted by their peers?

8.2 What attributes in children with special educational needs do you consider detrimental to their being accepted by their peers?

8.3 Can you describe any school activities outside your classroom, as distinct from classroom activities, which help the children with special educational needs become accepted?

8.4 I am interested in 2 specific programme areas of school organisation - that of phys. ed. and music.
Can you describe how your school caters for each of these activities for children with special educational need's?

8.5 What factors are of importance in organising these units for the .....[*child's name*] and for the teacher?

8.6 What is the schools policy for the supervision of children with special educational needs at playtime?

8.7 What is the schools policy for the support or assistance of children with special educational needs at playtime to encourage integration?

9 SELF WORTH AND SELF ESTEEM

9.1 What action do you take in the classroom to promote a positive environment towards self worth and self esteem for all the children?

9.2 Does this approach differ for the children with special educational needs?

9.3 What is your general approach to the use of positive reinforcement in your classroom?

9.4 Does this approach differ for the children with special educational needs?

10 COMMUNICATION AND CO-OPERATION

10.1 How do you facilitate **communication** between .....[*child's name*] and other children in your classroom?

10.2 How do you facilitate **co-operation** between .....[*child's name*] and other children in your classroom?

10.3 [*Prompt*] What *specific actions* do you take to assist .....[*child's name*] with learning co-operative skills essential for group activities?

10.4 What is your procedure for the children in your classroom so they know who to approach for assistance?

10.5 Do you take any additional action for .....[*child's name*]?

11 TEACHER CONTACT

May we focus on .....[*child's name*] now:

11.1 What effect have the discretionary hours had on the management of..... [*child's name*] programme in the classroom?

11.2 How are decisions made as to how these hours are to be specifically used?

11.3 What are your views on how the discretionary hours for .....[*child's name*] were [*cut- reinstated- stayed the same - whichever appropriate*].
How do you feel about the criteria that were used to make the decisions?

11.4 What is the role of the teacher aide or support teacher with respect to .....[*child's name*]?

11.5 Does the teacher aide have any role other than working with .....[*child's name*]?

11.6 Who determines the way in which the teacher aide is used?

11.7 What additional resources would you like to assist you with .....[*child's name*] in your classroom?

12 PEER SUPPORT SYSTEM

12.1 What use do you make of the peers of the children with special educational needs working with:

-academic work
-physical activity e.g. sports, phys. ed. or gymnastics
-social interaction

12.2 How are the children selected for this role?
12.3 How often do you use them in this role?
12.4 Can you describe the subjects that best lend themselves to this approach to learning?

13 ROLE EXPECTATIONS and TRAINING

13.1 If you had a problem in the classroom with a pupil, could you describe the procedure you and your school take to gain assistance?
13.2 In this situation, can you describe the expectations you have of:
-the principal ?
-your colleagues ?
-the parents of the children with special educational needs ?
-the BOT ?
-the SES ?
13.3 What training have you had in working with children with special educational needs?
[*Prompt*] For example, in the writing of IEPs?
13.4 What steps are taken to check that the programme set out in the I.E.P.s are carried out?
13.5 Can you detail any ways in which the school support the classroom teacher in fulfilling the aims of the I.E.P.?
13.6 How did the school involve the parents of .....[*child's name*] in the preparation, executing, recording and reporting on the I.E.P.?
13.7 Would you like to receive training in any areas other than IEP preparation, that would assist you provide a better educational programme to the children with special educational needs in your class?
a) If so, what is the area?
b)Have you approached anyone with this request/ suggestion?
c)What was the outcome?
d)Were you satisfied with the result?

14 GENERAL

14.1 What is your interpretation of this clause in the Education Act, 1989 'people who have special educational needs (whether because of disability or otherwise) have the same rights to enrol and receive education at state schools as people who do not". [*Show copy*]
14.2 Are you familiar with the Statement of Intent?
What is your understanding of the proposed policy changes as outlined in the Statement of Intent? [*show copy*]
14.3 How do you gain information on the government's policy regarding children with special educational needs?
14.4 What publications do you read to gather information on the education of children with special educational needs?
How do you feel about the amount of information you receive?
14.5 What are the most important factors that you consider are necessary for the successful implementation of mainstreaming/ inclusion?

Appendix 7

TEACHERS AIDES'/ SUPPORT TEACHERS' INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

1 CLASSROOM ROUTINE

1.1 Has having children with special educational needs had any effect on the school in general?

2 CLASSROOM TIME

2.1 How do you allocate your time to your children with special educational needs?
2.2 Who makes the decisions as to whether you work in the classroom or in a resource room or alternative office?
2.3 Who determines what specific work or topic you will cover during your daily work with the children with special educational needs?

3 SELF CARE and DAILY LIVING SKILLS

3.1 What specific areas of self care and daily living skills should the children with special educational needs be able to achieve to be successfully integrated at school?
3.2 In what ways do you become involved in helping children with special educational needs in self care and daily living skills?
Ask same questions of the following areas :
a) Preparation for home
b) Transport
c) Care of clothing and possessions
d) Additional protection over and above that required by regular students while on school property (equipment, weather).
3.3 What are your feelings about this assistance?

4 SOCIAL CONTACT

4.1 What attributes in children with special educational needs do you consider help them be accepted by their peers?
4.2 What attributes in children with special educational needs do you consider detrimental to their being accepted by their peers?

5 TEACHER SUPPORT

5.1. What is your role as a teacher aide or support teacher with respect to the children with special educational needs?
5.2 Do you as a teacher aide have any role in the classrooms other than working with 'children with special educational needs?
5.3 Who determines the exact way in which your skills are used?
5.4 What additional resources would you like to assist you with the children with special educational needs in the classroom or resource room?
5.5 What is your contribution to the preparation of IEP's.
5.6 What training have you had in working with children with special educational needs?

6 GENERAL

61 What is your interpretation of this clause in the Education Act, 1989 'people who have special educational needs (whether because of disability or otherwise) have the same rights to enrol and receive education at state schools as people who do not". [*Show copy*]

6.2 What are the most important factors that you consider are necessary for the successful implementation of mainstreaming/ inclusion?

Appendix 8

PARENTS' INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

1 What is your interpretation of this clause in the Education Act, 1989 'people who have special educational needs (whether because of disability or otherwise) have the same rights to enrol and receive education at state schools as people who do not"? [*Show copy*]

2 Can you tell me what help your child is receiving in the way of :
2.1 teacher aide support
2.2 discretionary hours
2.3 equipment
2.4 transport ?

3 What effect has that help had on your child?

4 Do you feel you have enough information on what is available for children like .....[*child's name*]?

5.1 How were decisions made regarding additional help for your child?
5.2 How were you involved in the making of decisions?

6 What additional help do you think is necessary?

7.1 Can you tell me what happened when you enrolled .....[*child's name*] at this school?
7.2 Did the school set any conditions?
7.3 Did you set any conditions regarding resources?

8 I believe your child has an IEP.
8.1 Can you tell me what you understand by an IEP?
8.2 What part did you play in it's development?
8.3 Were you satisfied with the outcome ?
8.4 Are you satisfied with your child's present IEP?

9 What communication is there between you and the school about.....[*child's name*]?

10 Do you consider there is any difference in the communication that you have compared with other parents in the school?

11 Is there any part of .....[*child's name*].present education that has not already been covered, that you wish to comment on?

12 Is there any part of .....[*child's name*].future education that you wish to comment on?

In summary:
13 What are the important things that you consider necessary for successfully including your child in the school?

Appendix 9

STUDENTS' INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

1 How do you like to spend your time at school?
1.1 what is your best time at school?
1.2 what is your favourite activity at school?

2 Who do you like to be with when you are at school?

3 Where is a good place to be when you are at school? Why?

4 You spend time with Miss/ Mrs.....working only with you.
4.1 Can you tell me about that time?
4.2 Can you give me a word or some words to describe that time?
4.3 Why is it.....[*the word*]?

5 You spend time working in the resource room
5.1 visual resource unit
5.2 [*alternative descriptions*]
5.3 Can you tell me about that time?
5.4 Give me a word / or some words to describe this place?
5.5 Why is it.....[*word*]?

Appendix 10

DISTRIBUTION OF INTERVIEWEES

Schools/ Roles	Karo (1)	Miro (2)	Nikau (3)	Rata (4)	Titoki (5)	Totals
Principals	1	1	1	1	1	5
Board of Trustees respondents	1	1	2	1	1	6
Teachers Aides	3	4	1	2	2	12
Teachers	6	8	12	4	5	35
Parents	4	4	1	3	1	13
Itinerant/ Resource teachers	1	1	1	1	-	4

Table A-1 **Distribution of interviews according to roles and schools**

Appendix 11

Coding Protocol for the Source of Quotations

All quotations referred to in this thesis have been coded to protect the privacy of the participants. The following codes have been used throughout. (S1/T4), where:

- S refers to the school, numbered 1 - 5
- P refers to the principal of the respective school 1-5
- DP refers to the deputy principal, of which some schools had more than 1
- T refers to the teacher, numbered within the school as in (S1/T4), which would be School 1/ Teacher 4
- B refers to the board of trustees respondents
- PT refers to the parent of a child with special educational needs
- T/A refers to the teacher aide numbered within the school
- ST refers to students numbered within the school
- IT refers to itinerant teacher
- SA refers to a specialist adviser
- FN refers to the field notes recorded during observational sessions within the schools

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Methodology

Figure 5.1 provides a flow chart which describes the steps taken in the course of this thesis. These included: the gaining of background material relevant to the study; the entry into the school phase; and a period of one and a half years spent in the school observing followed by approximately a six month time span conducting interviews with parents and school personnel. The study was concluded with the transcription of the interviews and the write up of the results. These steps will now be looked at in more detail.

1) Preparation for the research began with the gaining of a wide knowledge on educational change in the field of special education and inclusion. This included gathering material on research methodology, historical reports, legal documents from New Zealand and overseas. At this stage, several parents of children with special educational needs were visited to ascertain the concerns which were uppermost in their minds with regard to inclusion. Recommendations were received at this stage on the method of keeping field notes and a research proposal was prepared.

2) Entry into the schools was commenced by choosing a school with a reputation for success in inclusive practices. This enabled the researcher to learn what successful inclusion entailed, why the school considered they were successful and what the process included. The approach to the schools included an initial phone call to the principal to kindle interest in the project and the making of an appointment for further elucidation of the scope of the research. At this first interview which generally lasted 30 minutes a copy of the research proposal was presented, a detailed explanation of the project was given and the proposed plan of action was discussed. The conversation generally focussed on the demands on the teachers with regard to time, the involvement of the pupils and any disruption of their programmes and the expectations of the researcher on the commitment of school personnel. As there were very limited demands made on staff beyond accommodating an extra person in the classroom, the principals appeared comfortable in approaching their staff, boards of trustees, and in some cases parents for their opinions. A second interview was held after consultations with these people. This sometimes included a meeting with school personnel and a question and answer session. Of the seven schools approached, five accepted the research programme while in the remaining two the decision to not be involved was made by the principal, even though in one situation it was later found that the staff wished to be involved.

3) Research involvement in the schools commenced slowly with additional schools being taken into the observational programme only as the researcher felt those already in the programme were being managed confidently. This staggered entry into the schools allowed for comparative analysis to occur as the programme was being developed as one could direct interest to particular areas of concern where additional material or another facet required clarification. The teachers were always prepared by telling them the researchers plan to be in their room the following day. On the first day in the room it was requested that no indication be given of which children were the focus of attention. In keeping with inclusive practices this indicated to the staff the fact that the classroom in entirety was the interest of the researcher and not individual children. The early days in each room were spent determining the classroom culture from the organisation, management, rules and activities of all the children. Then it was possible to focus attention on the practices which made for sound inclusion of the children with special educational needs. During these observation periods interaction was maintained with any child who approached the researcher and this took the form of talking, answering questions, assisting with school work and in particular reading, mathematics and language. This association spilled out into the playground and in general the researcher was accepted as just another member of the staff in the school. During this time in the schools, documentation was acquired on the charter, policies pertaining to special needs education including communication with parents and the community, curriculum, and staff development. Pamphlets for distribution to prospective parents and students, and school newsletters, were also gathered in at this time. Acceptance in informal staff meetings allowed one to see communication patterns and leadership styles in practice and this gave additional observational material. As the observational stage of the research progressed, a total of 45 children with special educational needs were under surveillance in the five schools:

S1 (Karo)	S2 (Miro)	S3 (Nikau)	S4 (Rata)	S5 (Titoki)
7	11	14	10	3

4) Interviews were conducted with all the school personnel who were directly involved in providing support to the children with special needs in the schools. These included the principals, the teachers, the teacher aides, itinerant or special teachers, the parents of these pupils and the representative trustee member designated by the principal. To gain maximum relaxation and thereby the best information possible, the interviewee chose the place where the interview was to be held and the interview schedule was given to the subject at least 2 days prior to the meeting. This enabled

those concerned to feel relaxed about the questions to be asked and reassured those who felt considerable uncertainty about inclusion.

5) Transcription of the interviews was followed by a coding practice using the following protocol:

1. Classroom routine
2. Time factors
3. Class placement
4. Classroom behaviour
5. Task completion and comprehension
6. Environment
7. Self care and daily living skills
8. Social contact including positive and negative attributes
9. Self worth and self esteem
10. Communication and co-operation
11. Teacher contact, including itinerant teachers,
12. Peer support system
13. Role expectations including principals, Board of Trustee members, staff, parents and the Special Education Service personnel
14. References to the Education Act. 1989 including interpretation and the effect of the Act
15. Staff development including principals, teachers, teachers aides
16. Playground, including policy and support
17. Individual Education Programmes
18. Summary of the essential requirements considered necessary for mainstreaming to occur
19. Use of outside agencies
20. Special classes, units or schools referred to
21. Allocation of hours from the Ministry of Education referred to
22. Parents referred to in any way other than their role
23 Resources which may include the hours allotted by the Ministry which enabled a teacher aide to be employed, teachers aides, finances for equipment, specialist electronic equipment
24 Adequate assessment of the children with special educational needs
25 Personal support for the teachers (emotional rather than resources)
26 Teacher's emotions towards inclusion
27 Specific topics, for example physical education and music

28 Positive reinforcement systems
29 Respect for the rights of others
30 Attitudes of community, staff, children and parents
31 Class sizes
32 Safety
33 Acceptance of children by peers
34 Health
35 Inter-school communication and consultation / notification of teachers
36 Space available in classrooms
37 References to school policy on children with special needs or the charter
38 Discipline in the school in general and children with special educational needs in particular. Policy on discipline
39 Methods of managing a variety of levels of skill in the classroom, for example group teaching
40 Inadequate preparation of teachers in classroom management of children with special needs
41 Expectations of colleagues

The coding attributed allowed for the following identification to occur: School code, job description code, name code, the recording of the primary code and the recognition of secondary codes where other issues were referred to in the discussion. The result was that by computer sorting it was possible to obtain all material with similar coding for consideration.

From the themes arising out of the propositions obtained during observations in the schools and clarified, enlarged on and discussed in the interviews, the material was analysed and written up. While the selection of material from the field notebooks and the interview responses which illustrated the findings reflected the value judgement of the researcher, the use of the triangulation method provided some check on the interpretation given. When associated with the written and documented material obtained from the schools, a framework of the change process was extracted and used as the basis for the presentation of results.

Additional Discussion

Inclusion, with individualized adaptations and support systems, has demonstrated that there are advantages to all children educated in the regular schools (Andrews and Lupart, 1993; Fraser et al., 1995; Gartner and Lipsky, 1987; Reynolds et al., 1987;

Stainback and Stainback, 1984; Stainback et al., 1989; Will, 1986; York et al., 1992). Research has indicated the following results may occur when inclusive practices are in place: High motivation and enjoyment of the class; there is genuine concern and acceptance of children; there are effects beyond the classroom time demonstrating increased interaction, especially informal such as greetings at lunch, in passageways, going to and from activities; the peers learn something about their peers with an understanding developing that they are "more alike than different from themselves"; and there is an acceptance, respect and accommodation of differences. While it has been reported that the students with disabilities learn more appropriate social behaviour and have acquired more desirable interpersonal characteristics, these facilitate interactions with peers and promote positive interdependence. This results in affording children to grow up together and even becoming friends (Hanline and Halvorsen, 1989). These positive effects of inclusion have become basic concepts in the drive for the promotion of an inclusive education and community. This thesis indicates that there are some results which parallel the findings and concerns in these areas of the ethnographic investigations of Stainback et al. (1992) and these shall now be discussed.

The importance of the acceptance of inclusion by the school and the support expected from the community by the board of trustees and the professional staff has been documented. The value of the leadership of the principal in inculcating inclusive ideals and practices in the school culture has been referred to frequently. It is this commitment to inclusion which Stainback et al. (1992) report as a "common denominator" in their own and the many international reports they refer to. They also consider the "collaboration and support among professionals and parents" essential in making the philosophy a reality. The developing matrix of interactions reported in this thesis has demonstrated the importance of recognising the input of all those involved in the school community. The result is the change in the ethos of the school in relation to caring attitudes and support of all students and not only those with special educational needs.

The empowering and involvement of all those involved in the school community has been recognised by Stainback et al. (1992) as a further element in successful inclusion. This has been demonstrated throughout the thesis where, for example, Karo school professional staff discussed their growing confidence in their ability to use inclusive practices successfully while, in contrast, Nikau school personnel frequently showed fragmentation and resentment in respect of some of their pupils with special

educational needs. The main difference was seen in the degree of involvement in decision making which directly affected professional staff in these respective schools.

The development of a "sense of community" was a third factor considered by Stainback et al. (1992) as contributing to the success of the schools' integration programme. All the schools in this study in ways peculiar to their school culture placed this aspect of school life in high regard. Nikau school, with its older pupils, included programmes like Reaching Out and Skills for Adolescents as an integral part of the curriculum. The aim of giving students the responsibility for helping and supporting their fellow pupils and the recognition of the differences which exist within all people was a core approach of this schools culture. All schools in this study used techniques of peer support and buddy systems and they encouraged collegiality among staff. Different levels of success were demonstrated with regard to parent-school participation, the use of co-operative learning practices and the responsibility of teachers in actively promoting friendships.

The results recorded from the research of Stainback et al. (1992) show both similarities and differences to the present study. The anxiety, hesitancy and concerns over having children with special educational needs in the classroom were referred to in the ethnographic study of both studies when teachers were asked for their opinions on their experiences. The age of enrolment as being a factor in the acceptance of children with special educational needs was also acknowledged in both studies. Stainback et al. (1992) report that children who have begun their school experiences together did not feel any change in their life patterns by having the children in their classroom because it was "natural or the 'status quo' ".They do, however, report that when children enter school part way through a school year there is an experience of discomfort while students and staff deal with that which is unfamiliar to them. The results of this aspect of inclusion from this study are presented in 10.2.1. Another consideration of these authors was the behaviour problems which occurred with the inclusion of some children in the classroom. Although teachers referred in passing to the occasional early use of unwanted or undesirable behaviour as, for example, inappropriate calling out or movements, they were promptly dealt with by programmes elicited from specialist advisers and were considered by teachers to be of little account. This, however, did not apply to children who demonstrated emotional or behavioural difficulties. These children created stress in the teachers, a variety of negative reactions in the peers and the manner and success with which the schools managed these problems varied widely. Teachers reported negative behaviours occurring from certain

members of their entire student population at times and these were not only confined to children with special educational needs.

The present study, like that of Stainback et al. (1992), reported the on going achievement recorded for the children with special educational needs who were integrated into the classroom. While both studies considered the influences on the peers, the positive stand taken by Karo, Miro and Rata schools to pre-empt any criticism by parents of the peers by notification of intentions and open invitations to attend class and witness for themselves the manner in which inclusion would work, eliminated or considerably lessened criticism of the schools with regard to inclusion. The factor of the use of teacher's time, which was widely reported in this research, was also referred to in Stainback et al.'s study as an influence on regular students. It is of interest that one form of support the teachers in their study perceived as necessary was a smaller class size, "although this support was never, in fact provided". In this there is a parallel experience.

Collaboration and support were discussed as essential for inclusion by Stainback et al. (1992) and, as in the present study, it varied from informal communication where two appropriate people met, to more formal team meetings. As in the present study, there were times of the day when more 'people presence' was required in the classroom and there was also a recognisable need for flexibility in providing support. While Stainback et al. referred to the possible diminution of support as the teachers became more proficient, in this study there was a required flexibility on an irregular and short term basis and was a response to immediate classroom requirements caused by health, behavioural difficulties or individual and personal social demands of pupils. At this time a teacher was required to play a multiple role of may be nurse, counsellor, social worker, friend to any student and this was when additional support, speedily delivered, was needed. The designation of a "support facilitator" as suggested by Stainback et al. (1989, pp.74-75) was in use in Karo school with positive results as this person sought out specific information for teachers, encouraged collegial support and promoted interaction between students as well as providing instant expert assistance to teachers in emergencies. Although this person generally worked with students with special educational needs, there were times when taking over the entire class provided the teacher time to give extra assistance to some children. One task undertaken by the itinerant teacher, which was essential and virtually unrecognised in the daily school programme, was the checking of the physical positions of some of the children with severe disabilities. Inclusion has often meant that these children are in

the regular school without a physiotherapists support In a classroom of up to 38 children this has become yet another concern for the classroom teacher.

If education is to meet the demands of an inclusive community it must look to promoting a balance between creating dependence and assisting with independence. This requires a skilful introduction to the recognition of dignity and the quality of life those with a disability desire for themselves. To this end social interactions, relationships and promoting friendships have become a focal point in the inclusive movement (Ballard, 1989; Johnson and Johnson, 1981; Stainback et al. 1989; Fraser et al., 1995). This study has presented evidence that the schools were giving a widely disparate service in this area of student interaction in their respective communities. The differences lay, firstly with the culture the school had developed and, secondly, with the type of disability the children presented. This did influence the approach the teachers used in promoting student interaction. In general, the teachers used the following approaches as the basis of their classroom management of student interaction: They expected the students to work together with mutual respect, they presented information to the children to allay fears and assist them to find suitable means to support and interact with each other, they used specific programmes where it was appropriate to teaching social interaction skills, they involved the class in co-operative learning on many occasions although this was not over emphasised, they used peer support regularly in their classrooms in as many activities as they appropriately could and generally showed a willingness to carry out these skills. Peer tutoring, although used on numerous occasions, was not carried out with 'tutored' students on specific adapted programmes which were reviewed. Within these schools it remained a relatively informal activity. Although the teachers were promoting interactions and relationships, which in many situations went beyond the school gates into the community, they did not consider that assisting in creating friendships was either their responsibility or feasible. The issues that require consideration in friendships are enumerated by Strully and Strully (in Stainback et al. 1989, p. 61) and include many of the comments made by teachers, as for example the fickleness of friendships, the two-way experience of social interactions and that "friendships are freely given". The comment was made that friendships are not the same as peer tutors and peer supporters and while these forms of help are useful in making the environment conducive to closer relationships, "they are not friendships". These authors make the suggestion to get the "adults out of the way and let the kids get to know one another" (p.66). This attitude was expressed by the itinerant teacher at Karo school when she commented on the children making their own choices and decisions regarding friends. It is interesting that Stainback et al. (1992) refer to the need to limit

the amount of help some children receive to encourage independence and the learning of new skills. The principal of Rata school discussed a student who finally in frustration, demanded to be allowed to be independent. Everything about this student encouraged 'friendship' of a smothering kind and in this case school education led to appropriate and welcome interaction. McKay and Ryba (in Fraser et al., 1995) consider social development and friendships as important goals for every student and especially those with special educational needs, and their reasoning is based on the direct relationship that these issues have with the eventual quality of life a person experiences.

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